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ERRATA.

Page 43, col. iii., line 4 from bottom. Omit "Swedish and."
Page 209, col. ii., line 35 from bottom. For "Marx" read "Max."
Page 210, col. i., line 6. For "Wooley" read "Woolley."
Page 421, col. ii., line 8 from bottom. For "here" read "hero."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 1, 1903.

The Week.

In an interview published on Friday, Senator Burrows declares that the Beet-Sugar Convention to be held in Washington City on the 8th of January will decide whether the Cuban treaty of reciprocity shall be ratified or not. That is, the Convention will decide whether a reduction of 20 per cent. from the Dingley rates of duty on Cuban sugar will materially injure the beet-sugar industry in the United States. He thinks it most likely that they will sanction the treaty, but if they do not, then the same Senators who blocked the Cuban relief bill last year will oppose the present treaty. He believes that they will be able to defeat it, since debate in the Senate is unlimited and a two-thirds vote is required for ratification; while the Democrats will try to foment quarrels in the Republican ranks. "The sugar beets of the West," he says in conclusion, "may expect as much consideration as was given the codfish of Massachusetts." Nobody can object to that phase of the case. Let us have fair play, and ratify both the Newfoundland treaty and the Cuban treaty, and then we shall be in better temper to consider the French treaty when Senator Cullom calls it up.

Article viii. of the new treaty of reciprocity with Cuba needs amendment, either in form or in substance, or both. The text is as follows:

> "The rates of duty herein granted by the United States to the Republic of Cuba are, and shall continue during the term of this convention, preferential in respect to all like imports from other countries; and, in return for said preferential rates of duty granted to the Republic of Cuba by the United States, it is agreed that the concession herein granted on the part of the said Republic of Cuba to the products of the United States shall likewise be, and shall continue during the term of this convention, preferential in respect to all like imports from other countries."

These words may mean merely that the most-favored-nation clause in our treaties with other countries shall not operate to admit the goods of those countries on the same terms as Cuban goods, without special treaties to that end. This would be the interpretation most commonly put upon it, since any other meaning would tie our hands for five years, and prevent us from making similar treaties with Germany, France, Great Britain, Russia, Brazil, or any other sugar-producing country. Yet the language used may be held to have the latter signification. "The rates of duty herein granted by the United States to the Republic of Cuba," it says, "are and shall continue, during the term of this convention, preferential in respect to all like imports from other countries." There is no exception here even of the Philippines, which, under the rulings of the Supreme Court, are another country, although subject to our legislation. There should be no clauses in the ratified treaty open to two interpretations. Especially should there be no clause restricting us as buyers of sugar at low rates of duty to one small patch of the earth's surface, and tying the hands of future Presidents and Congresses in that behalf.

The question of the "open door" in the trade of eastern Asia has come up again (as we predicted it would) in connection with the discriminating duty on Manila hemp exported from the Philippines. The Philippine Commission, in its wisdom, put an export duty of $7.50 per ton on that article when shipped to other countries than the United States. This discrimination was ratified by our Congress. It received little attention from the press at the time, and it is not known even now what influences contributed to so glaring an infraction of the principles we have contended for in the trade of the Orient. In searching for the guilty parties, one would naturally look to see who profits by the transaction. Evidently they are the manufacturers of cordage in the United States. If they can get their raw material $7.50 per ton cheaper than their foreign competitors, they can supplant them in neutral markets. But foreign governments have made representations to our Government on this matter. Germany and England have pointed it out as an infraction of the open-door policy, and have expressed the hope that it may not be continued to the hurt of their subjects. Secretary Hay has turned the correspondence over to Secretary Root, who has transmitted it to the Senate Committee on Philippine Affairs to be considered in connection with the pending Philippine tariff bill. Of course, there is only one thing to do, and that is, to repeal the discriminating export duty. Otherwise, our open-door policy will be in ruins in the Orient whenever it suits other countries to disregard it. Both England and Germany have it in their power to retaliate. They can make us lose more in other places than we shall ever gain from this export duty on Manila hemp. The honor of the country is concerned in undoing as soon as possible a transaction which bears so sinister an appearance.

An officer now in the Philippines who has had occasion to employ considerable labor for military purposes, writes us in opposition to the theory that the Filipinos will not perform manual labor. He states that there are at present about 200 Tagalog workmen employed in the Manila arsenal, making saddles, working on ammunition, etc. This kind of skilled labor seems to give absolute satisfaction. Ilocano day laborers at Vigan were found to be industrious and willing when put at the hardest tasks, for which they were paid $6.50 and $7.50 per month. Our informant thinks that a great deal depends on the way the men are handled, and adds, "I have seen Americans swear at natives for not understanding orders given in such a miserable apology for Spanish that not even a native Spaniard could have understood, much less a Tagalog. I often wonder that we Americans get any work out of them at all." This officer is of the opinion, however, that Chinese laborers are more industrious, thrifty, and economical than Filipinos, but he believes that in the long run they will only injure the country if they are brought over in such numbers as to enable American capital to obtain a speedier return than would otherwise be possible. So far from believing in Professor Jenks's proposed system of coolie slavery, our correspondent thinks that the Filipinos should be allowed to develop themselves—slowly, at first, if necessary, but none the less in their own way. Unfortunately, the capitalistic influences behind the proposed exploitation of the Philippines are not of the kind to wait for any normal development of the archipelago, unless they are compelled to do so.

Gen. Miles seems to have some very curious notions about the duties of a commanding general in regard to criticisms of army officers for alleged cruelties. If he were to follow the example of at least one of his superiors, he would content himself with denying any and all charges, and would simply decline to investigate and see for himself. This was the War Department's policy in the case of the Catholic friar who was murdered by the water-cure. Gen. Miles refuses, however, to follow any such bad example and has insisted upon making, or having made, some rigid investigations of the conduct of officers never accused heretofore—among them Capt. R. L. Howze, Sixth Cavalry, whom Mr. McKinley made a brigadier-general of volunteers for alleged brilliant services. Instigated by Gen. Miles, Col. Foote of the Twenty-eighth Infantry has unearthed some more cases of water-cure. It is quite characteristic that the press reports insinuate that Filipino money is being used to prosecute Major Glenn, who is now being tried a second time—as if money could be used in any way in

connection with an army court-martial. There never was a plainer illustration of the fact that "murder will out." President Roosevelt, Secretary Root, and any number of subservient generals have declared again and again that there were only a few cases, and that the offenders had been punished. Now, a year after the first cases were exposed, more and more are leaking out, and the War Department is forced to admit, as in the case of Friar Augustine, the truth of the anti-Imperialist charges. Gen. Miles in this matter is certainly putting Secretary Root to the blush.

The artists who are petitioning Congress to put all works of art produced fifty years ago on the free list, very properly hope for the support of the President. This Mr. Roosevelt can hardly refuse, for the duty on works of art is perhaps the single schedule that could be abolished without raising a howl from some afflicted infant industry. The measure which is to be presented to Congress is framed to meet protectionist susceptibilities. It retains the duty on paintings and sculpture not fifty years old, thus preserving—although no American artist desires state relief from foreign competition—a semblance of protection. The President should not fail to see that here is an easy way of proving to an incredulous people that the tariff can be revised downward by its friends. If the beet-sugar people came to him saying "Please free our beets from the galling discrimination of a needless subsidy"; if the Gloucester fishermen should cry for "free fish and no favor," how could the President refuse them? How, then, can he fail to give ear to those less vociferous persons, the artists of America, when they plead to him the cause of self-respect and of civilization?

Should a Trust, that, like the Standard Oil, raises the price of fuel during a winter when the usual supply has been restricted be considered "good" or "bad" according to Mr. Roosevelt's moral scale for mergers? Doubtless, the President knows just what companies he has in mind when he speaks of bad Trusts; but he is not inclined at present to share his knowledge with others, so that we are left almost wholly to conjecture in this matter. So let us ask whether there is any method by which this particular Trust could be disciplined in case the President should decide that it deserves chastisement. It is often said that the Standard Oil Company is in no way affected by the tariff, and this concern has often been employed to illustrate the theory that the Trusts can not be reformed by making changes in the Dingley Bill. Now we will not assert that the tariff was a factor in the original growth of the oil combination, but we should like to call the President's attention to the fact that the law of 1897 contains a "little joker" that is of interest in connection with the recent advance in oil. Petroleum and its products occupy a conspicuous place on the present free list, but the act has a little proviso to the effect that, "if there be imported into the United States crude petroleum, *or the products of crude petroleum*, produced in any country which imposes a duty on petroleum or its products exported from the United States, there shall in such cases be levied, paid, and collected a duty . . . equal to the duty imposed by such country." Now this applies, obviously, to Russia, the only competitor that could seriously annoy the Standard Oil Company. Oil produced in any country that can offer no effective competition is admitted free of duty, but the only product that could possibly mitigate the conditions caused by the recent rise of price is rigorously excluded. It is a fair inference that the President believes in preserving the "home market" for the Trusts; but we wonder whether he would consider this principle applicable to bad Trusts as well as good.

A former Representative in Congress and a former Federal judge has just given his views on the "lily white" movement in North Carolina, and in doing so Mr. H. G. Ewart uses such "strong language" about ex-Senator Marion Butler that it "cannot be printed." We are certainly of the opinion that the movement can be properly characterized only by the use of some very forcible adjectives. For downright selfishness it would be hard to parallel the conduct of those soulless leaders like Senator Pritchard, who, after having got into power by the aid of negro voters, are now ready to abandon them and to acquiesce in their deprivation of the suffrage. As Mr. Ewart points out, the Democratic boards of registration, despite unfair tests and frequent discriminations due to local prejudices, still found it right and proper to allow votes to six thousand negroes, the very best men of their race. To refuse to allow these men to take part in the councils of the Republican party is, as Judge Ewart says, "not only a cowardly, but a most asinine policy." It certainly smacks of "treachery and base ingratitude," no matter how much its apologists may seek to conceal its real meaning by hypocritical explanations that it is all done in the interest of the negro. The only redeeming feature of the situation is the readiness of men like Mr. Ewart to speak the truth.

Every question about Platt's reëlection has been met by certain people with the reply: "Anyway, he has the votes." But has he? The answers which the *Evening Post* has received from Republican members of the Legislature do not indicate that this is certain. There are in the Senate 28 Republicans and in the Assembly 89, a total of 117 on joint ballot. Assuming that the seat made vacant by the death of Senator Trainor cannot be filled in time for the election of United States Senator, the successful candidate must have 100 votes, the total vote being 199. In other words, if there are 18 Republicans in the Legislature who will not vote for Senator Platt he has *not* the votes. Now, of the 117 Republicans in the Legislature, only 28 have replied openly to the *Evening Post's* letter of inquiry. No less than seven, or a quarter of all who have replied, have clearly indicated that they are as yet unwilling to commit themselves; several others, though answering in terms probably intended not to anger Platt, have carefully left loopholes for use in case of need. As many as eighty-nine members have not replied at all. This might be taken as indifference to the *Evening Post's* canvass if it were not that the Simon-pure Platt legislators have hastened to reply. But where are the others? Do they not care to "please the old man" also? Are they, perhaps, cogitating about a political future in which Senator Platt is not an important factor?

Chicago householders are likely in the future to have their dwellings plainly labelled to this effect, viz.: The woodwork, plaster, decoration, plumbing, painting, all duly certified by placard as the work of respective branches of the associated building trades. It is to be presumed that only those who are opposed to the cause of labor will protest against the liberal use of the union label, for the labor unions have made of this identification and consecration of their handiwork a fixed policy. Their programme clearly presupposes novel ethical views of a strictness which orthodox Calvinism can hardly equal. The unions distinguish between fair wainscoting *(i. e.*, put up by unionists), and unfair wainscoting *(i. e.*, the same material and workmanship, but constructed by non-unionists); similarly are distinguished good plumbing and bad plumbing, not according to the working of cocks and traps and valves, but according to the union ticket in the pockets of those who made and laid the pipes; or, again, honorable wallpaper is that pasted by the paperhangers' union on union plaster, while dishonorable wallpaper is the same paper hung by anybody else. We can imagine that this discrimination may have troubled Chicagoans, little given to transcendental categories, and the use of the union label is doubtless a convenience, just as it would be a practical help to the Calvinists we have already cited if all except the elect were plainly branded with the mark of the beast.

From the point of view of the unions, however, this form of fetishism is a little confusing, and likely to lead them into all kinds of unprofitable speculation quite apart from their practical aims. Recently, an engineer in a new apartment building in this city refused to make trifling repairs on a leaking steampipe because that was the work of the steamfitter. The steam went through the building for a day or so, bringing down union plaster and warping union woodwork. The landlord of the building has had a costly lesson in transcendental unionism. Again, a lady in the course of refitting her house had two antique eighteenth-century mantelpieces put in. Their advent was reported by the workmen, and soon arrived the walking delegate to inquire if the mantelpieces were union-made. There were no unions in New York State before 1800, was the reply. Then they are not union-made and must come out, was the inexorably logical demand. The lady, with a truly feminine misconception of abstract reasoning, defied the walking delegate, who promptly stopped the work, leaving the house minus the front stairs and other necessaries. For three months this courageous woman has stood by her colonial fireplaces, and used the back stairs in a dismantled house—all because she could not understand why eighteenth-century joinery was, transcendentally considered, "unfair."

Chicago, like New York, is appalled at its water waste. It is estimated that fully 75 per cent. of the water pumped into the pipes is lost because of carelessness and leakage. The per-capita consumption now reaches the enormous figure of 164 gallons a day, although 70 gallons would be an extravagant figure. It is estimated that the city throws away $1,832,483 a year merely for pumping this wasted water. Just as is the case here, Chicago is face to face with the necessity of spending millions for new waterworks unless it can cut down the consumption. The City Engineer, who is much aroused over the situation, has made the far from radical recommendation that meters be placed on 40 per cent. of the faucets now in use. He is convinced that if this is done there will be a saving of $500,000 a year, and that the city could provide for any legitimate increase in the demand for water for years to come. New York already has meters in its factories and business houses, but it must soon come to their installation in apartment-houses and private dwellings. That there will be some prejudices to overcome is to be expected. As the Chicago *Evening Post* points out, however, this prejudice is wholly irrational. It is of the opinion that the change to meters would bear less heavily on small families and upon the very poor.

President James of Northwestern University, in appointing a "university drummer," has only given official standing to a customary practice. In older days in the Middle West it was not uncommon to send out a kind of academic gospel wagon, accompanied by the college glee club. This combination proved irresistible to the sub-freshmen of a ruder time. In the East, subtler methods have been employed; but the team captains who visit the great preparatory schools, and the alumni who teach in such institutions, have been, in a quite honorable sense, amateur university drummers. President James's drummer is apparently to be a professional, whose duty will be to explain persuasively to uncommitted schoolboys and undecided parents the advantages of Northwestern University. To many this will seem a method calculated to inculcate in the freshmen of Professor James's institution an inordinate self-esteem. While the vision of four hundred university drummers (assuming that President James's innovation becomes a precedent) descending upon the preparatory schools of the country is not reassuring, judgment should be suspended until the methods of the academic advance agent are known. Will he hold before the high-school boys the scholarly attainments of his faculty and the specific advantages of the curriculum of his university, or will he suggest other careers open to talents? It is significant in this regard that an Eastern university, thoroughly beaten this season on the football field, expects to capture all the school athletes next fall. The teams of its chief rival are so strong that no newcomer may enter there with a reasonable hope of ever "making the 'varsity." A skilled university bagman would doubtless find many similar ways of making all things work together for the good of his alma mater.

The six British hatters who have been forbidden to land at the port of Sydney may console themselves with the thought that their case is a parable. The future historian will grasp at that strange perversion of the idea of empire which made the Commonwealth of Australia, after voting ships to the British navy and hurrying troopers to the veldt, refuse admission to six British workmen who were seeking to better their fortunes in a British colony. Of course, there is a reason for so unreasonable an action. An Australian law, framed to prevent the importation of laborers during strikes, is suddenly found to apply to all labor imported under engagement. Naturally, there is a labor union to force Premier Barton's reluctant hand, and now the official attitude of Australia is, as the London *Economist* puts it, "that the set of workingmen happening at this time to have acquired domicile in Australia have some inherent title to monopolize all the employment which is going there." Meanwhile, the six rejected hatters are likely to be as historic as the Burghers of Calais. Their mishap shows how inevitably empire fails to meet the normal conditions of civilized life, and how powerless it is, both against such short-sighted selfishness as is here illustrated, and against the healthy growth of local or national spirit. Religious fanaticism, militant commerce, personal ambition have time and again built up great empires, but not one of them has stood for any length of time except through the military supremacy of the ruler or the cowardice of his subjects. How little it is true that the empire means peace will be felt when it is remembered that while Australia is treating these six hatters like criminals or madmen, Mr. Chamberlain is on his way to the latest imperial conquests, seeking to repair the havoc to make which Australia gladly paid her share in money and in the blood of her best.

That the Sultan of Morocco should be hard pressed by a native rival is nothing new. For years, every Sultan has had to fight for his throne. In the present rebellion there would be no cause for special interest, much less for the flutter of alarm which the news is causing in Europe, were it not that the Moroccan trouble has far wider bearings than the mere domestic concerns of the Sultanate. The truth is that Morocco has for a long time been regarded as a possible explosion-point. Within a twelvemonth, Mr. Bryce, with that sagacity and stored information which mark him out among statesmen, has predicted that Morocco would be the next scene of Imperialistic exploitation. The Sultanate has been closely hemmed in and almost invaded by foreigners. The French have steadily pushed westward from Algiers; and the common expectation in France has been that all the littoral up to the Straits will one day be under the tricolor. The Franco-Spanish *entente*, including, as it has been supposed, a secret treaty covering new delimitations in North Africa, has been taken as a sure index to French ambitions in Morocco. With this has been put, by suspicious observers in England and the Dreibund, the fact that Russia not long since established an embassy in Tangier. This was held to be, in view of the fact that there are practically no Russians in the Sultanate, a somewhat ostentatious notification that the Franco-Russian alliance was going to have something to say about the partition of Morocco. Possibly, a new Anglo-French treaty of African delimitation may settle the whole question amicably. The occasion is obviously one for thanking our stars that here, at any rate, is an international problem with which we are not called upon to meddle. Would that the Philippines were to us even as Morocco!

THE RIGHT KIND OF ARBITRATION.

After mature reflection, President Roosevelt has wisely decided not to accept the rôle of arbitrator between Venezuela and the European Powers, but to adhere to his first recommendation, that the questions be referred to the Hague Tribunal. By so doing he has avoided serious dangers for the country and for himself, and if his conduct in the future course of the controversy shall be governed by equal prudence, we shall have reason to be devoutly thankful. Great care must be taken to avoid accidental explosion of one kind and another in the progress of the settlement. The nearer we are to the scene of the trouble, and the more we are mixed up with it, the more chances there will be of an accident which may imperil our own peace and quiet.

If this were a difficulty between Germany and Turkey, or between England and Sweden, and our President were asked to take the place of arbitrator, the reasons, if any, for declining would be quite different from those operating in the present case. The Monroe Doctrine is lodged, without any clear definition, in the minds of millions of Americans who are ready to take fire at any time at any supposed infraction of it or disrespect to it. All these people can understand arbitration by an impartial tribunal like the one established at The Hague, and will be disposed to acquiesce in it. An arbitration by President Roosevelt would keep us dangerously close to the *corpus delicti* for months, would expose his decisions to criticism by the Democrats as truckling to foreigners, and as yielding some part of the precious Doctrine to further assault by Old World monarchies. The fear of attack by political opponents would operate as a bias in his own mind. It is the part of prudence for us to push the controversy as far from our own shores as possible. Having lodged it securely at The Hague, we should take the attitude of respectful silence pending the decision.

The question, as regards ourselves, having been thus happily disposed of, there seems to be no place to send the dispute except to the Hague Tribunal, or at all events none so fitting as that. The reasons why may be briefly recapitulated. In the first place, that court has been established by the solemn act of civilized nations expressly to try such causes. It is peculiarly fitted to try them. It has judges already appointed for the purpose. Having been named beforehand, they are beyond the reach of suspicion of bias. General rules of procedure have been laid down, and the mode of creating special rules for special cases has been fixed. The Court has just begun to discharge its high duties. It still has its reputation to make, and to this end all cases which actually arise and are suited to its powers and jurisdiction, ought to be sent to it. It is the bounden duty of every government which is a party to those agreements to avail itself of the moral grandeur which the Hague Tribunal stands for; and by so doing to add to the dignity and weight of its authority in the coming time. Equally is it the duty of the non-signatory Powers to avail themselves of it, a door having been left open for them to come in of their own choice. It is gratifying to know that Venezuela is ready to accept the jurisdiction of the Hague Tribunal. The dispatches say that she accepts it on certain conditions, but there is no doubt that we can name the conditions upon which she will put in her appearance. Of course, the blockade and all other acts of war will cease as soon as the terms of arbitration are settled.

To contribute to the world's peace, to diminish the loss and misery which war entails, was the first aim of the Hague conferees. To create a body of international law which the world will accept and be governed by was the next part of their programme. Obviously, this is not to be done by decision of King Oscar, or President Roosevelt, or Emperor William. However learned and eminent may be the counsellors chosen by them to study the law and the facts in given cases, they cannot command the attention and carry the weight which belongs to a tribunal specially designated for the trial of such causes. In every country there are as good lawyers off the bench as on it, but the bench alone speaks with authority. Its decisions alone go into the books and become precedents and rules of conduct for generations of men. So, too, will the rulings of the Hague Tribunal operate upon the public opinion which directs the policy of nations. A decision of the Venezuelan case by President Roosevelt would indeed be interesting and would settle that particular case, but it would not settle a similar case arising in another part of the world, while an identical decision by the Hague Court would most likely be adhered to in future disputes, and would avoid the necessity of a new trial where the grounds of controversy were the same. This is the very *raison d'être* of a court, whether local, or national, or international.

These reasons for sending the case to the Hague Tribunal are general in their nature, applying to the whole world, and to the future as well as the present time. Those which are peculiar to the parties themselves are perhaps even stronger. The man who goes into a powder magazine with a lighted candle exposes the region roundabout to great danger, but the risk to his own safety is greatest of all. Any piece of bad luck in Venezuelan waters, a mistake of orders, an error of eyesight, or the act of a rash and hot-tempered officer, might produce a condition of affairs uncontrollable by all the governments concerned. It is not pleasant to dwell upon such contingencies, and we therefore dismiss them with renewed thankfulness that they have been happily avoided.

SILENCING THE PRESS.

St. Petersburg dispatches recently gave a list of topics about which the Czar had commanded all Russian editors to be silent. Napoleon's muzzling or manipulation of the press is an old story. His suppression of free debate extended not only to newspapers, but to book-publishers and even romance-writers. "A printing-house," he said, "is a powder-magazine into which every fool must not be allowed to enter." Only last year a German writer published a volume about Napoleon's control of the press of Germany. Journal after journal was confiscated, while those left alive were kept under police surveillance and most rigorous rules. In general, the Emperor lived up to his cynical saying that balls and the opera furnished "excellent subjects for editorials," but that he could not have the gazettes "meddling with politics."

We in America laugh or rage at all this, in our complacent way, but it is a question if our own newspapers are not more and more silenced by ukase or *mot d'ordre*. With all the enterprise, with all the prying curiosity and the vaunted publicity of the American press, there are too many signs that some topics are forbidden it. It is not Czar or Emperor who issues his commands—only a boss or an advertiser; but the result is the same. Inasmuch as the people have come to look to the newspapers for the exposure of villanous politicians or rotten financial schemes, it is obvious that the service of suppressing the news and burking discussion is one that jobbers in politics or in stocks can afford to pay for handsomely. Silence is to them golden indeed. It is so very simple. You do not have to say a word in favor of men whom you abhor or measures that you know to be shady; you merely have to keep still about them, and write with Napoleonic zest on balls and the opera.

Close readers of our indefatigable metropolitan press must have been struck, for example, with its almost complete silence of late about two subjects of prime importance. One of them was the financial operations of a large insurance company. Its plans were so questionable that they were fought and enjoined in court, and finally abandoned by the promoters in alarm; but only one New York newspaper made any editorial reference to the matter. It was a case where a fundamental principle of finance was at stake, where great interests affecting many people were involved, where insurance commissioners in several States were in full outcry, yet the "great met-

ropolitan dailies," as they love to call themselves, were dumb. The reason? Why, there was no concealment of it. The large company was a large advertiser, and the ordinary prudence of the counting-room was enough to restrain the editor's pen.

The other subject which New York city newspapers, as by one consent, never mention is the proposed reëlection of Senator Platt. Not one of them supports him. They have not sunk so low as that. Even his personal organ excludes him from its editorial page. But in no columns, except those of the *Evening Post*, is there any reference to his candidacy, any discussion of his fitness, any concern expressed over the impending disgrace of the State by having a decrepit corruptionist represent it in the Senate again. Why is this? It cannot be that Democratic papers have any political reason for staying their hand. If Republican editors have had any fear that they might offend their readers by attacking Platt, they must have seen from the letters which the *Evening Post* has been publishing that Platt is a stench in the nostrils of decent Republicans. They loathe him, and would gladly see him deposed. Why do they get no help from the *Tribune*, for example? Why is it absolutely silent to-day on a subject about which, in other days, it has been fiercely voluble?

We are not going to intimate unworthy motives in its case or any other; though any one in search of them would have to look no further than to Platt's open alliance with the great interests which are doing so much to "commercialize" both politics and the pen. We prefer to take the explanation commonly offered. Platt is invincible. He is "a bad lot," but it is impossible to defeat him. The people know perfectly well what a tyrannous boss and an unblushing corrupter of public life he has been, but, if they do not rise, why should we say anything? We should only make ourselves disagreeable, and accomplish nothing.

Well, all that we say is, if journalism is going to adopt such principles, it will surely fall from its high estate. If there is to be no sense of trusteeship for the public, the public will have to look elsewhere than to the press for a bulwark against fraud and corruption. Since when was it the first duty of a fearless newspaper to be "agreeable"? How can you help being disagreeable to plotters against the common weal? Sir Leslie Stephen says that the world owes much to those who have been bores in a good cause. And what has a newspaper to do with the question of "success" in putting down a rogue against whom it writes? Its duty is done when it tells the truth. In the case of Platt, we are all the while asked, "Do you really think you can beat him?" Frankly, that is a question we have never asked. We know that the honest citizens of the State would beat Platt if they had a chance, and we can only do our part to give them a chance. The expressions of indignation which they have sent to the *Evening Post* are proof enough that Platt is as poor a representative of the party as are those newspapers which sit silent while the base deed is done.

MORAL COERCION IN SETTLING STRIKES.

At the time of the great strike of the iron-workers in 1901, Mr. Charles Francis Adams made some suggestions for the avoidance of such troubles. They deserved more attention than was then paid them. Just now, at all events, every one is anxious to listen to plans having this end in view, provided the plans are rational and practical. Plans for "compulsory arbitration" do not fall into this category. No power exists capable of forcing an employer to pay wages that make his business unprofitable. No court can compel a laborer to work against his will. The labor-unions refuse to be incorporated, for the avowed reason that they do not propose to make themselves subject to legal process. Their employers, they say, can afford to go to law. *They* cannot; and they do not mean to throw away their legal immunity. Their position, whether reasonable or not, makes all talk of compulsory arbitration preposterous.

Mr. Adams's plan contemplates neither arbitration nor legal compulsion. Since he first suggested it, he has reflected on it and taken counsel, and laid it before the Civic Federation, together with the draft of a bill for its application. The plan is such as may be adopted by a State Government or by that of the nation; but the bill takes the form of an act of Congress. Hence it is necessary to limit the act to controversies affecting the mails or the general government, or interstate and foreign commerce. The most important strikes are of this kind. Stated briefly, the bill authorizes the President to investigate any controversy of this description. For that purpose he may appoint a commission not exceeding seven in number. The commission shall have powers in procuring evidence similar to those of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the parties to the controversy may appear in person and by counsel. After investigation, the commission shall report the facts with recommendations for such action as shall, in their judgment, end the labor quarrel and prevent its recurrence.

The first question asked concerning such a measure will be, is it practical? The answer to this is, *solvitur ambulando*. The plan is now in operation. The commission investigating the coal strike is a commission such as Mr. Adams proposes, except that its powers are even more limited, and that no compensation was originally provided for its members. It cannot administer oaths or compel the production of papers; and, in our judgment, it is on this account all the better as a commission. Mr. Adams's reasoning tends to the same conclusion. It would be a better commission still if it had only three members. Perhaps it would be a counsel of perfection to say that the best commission would consist of a single member; yet we fancy that the public has forgotten that any one besides Judge Gray is now investigating the coal strike, and it will be his opinion that will be generally accepted. The most important law cases are heard by a single judge. In England a single judge can hang a man without appeal; yet few persons competent to form an opinion hold our administration of criminal justice to be better than the English.

When we come to answer the second question concerning the measure—Will it succeed?—we see that everything depends on the moral weight of the judgment of the Commissioners. The "sanction" in the case is public opinion. On this point Mr. Adams reasons with admirable force. His arguments are in line with the progress of civilization. They are illustrated by the growth of international law, by the constitution of the Tribunal of The Hague, by the increase in the amenities of social life, by the improvement in the vast field of morals which lies beyond the reach of legislation. We quote Mr. Adams on the point:

> "It is singular to note, when any controversy arises, how such a method of settlement as that here proposed is at once set aside, as being inadequate and unworthy of consideration because behind it there is no constable's club or soldier's bayonet. In fact, however, the word 'compulsion' has an unpleasant sound to Americans. In theory only is the thing popular. With us the final appeal must always be to reason; and public opinion enforces the edict of that appeal. In every field of legislation this has been again and again illustrated; and yet the appeal to reason, as now here made, is almost invariably contemptuously dismissed from consideration on the ground that there is behind it no force to compel obedience."

To command the support of public opinion—which, when well-informed and rational, exerts a pressure more irresistible than that of policemen or soldiers—everything must be done to increase the moral weight of the judgments of the proposed Commission. Hence every application of force is derogatory. Let the Commission ask, not command, the parties to produce their witnesses, or suffer public shame for their refusal. The very name *subpœna* is incongruous, and the fewer oaths men are compelled to take the better. Moreover, as moral force is relied on, the weight of the Commission would be augmented by whatever increased the disinterestedness of its members. It would be well if their services could be gratuitous. Whenever an office with liberal pay is created, the

politicians seek for it as a pearl of great price. We venture to say that the judgments of a Commission such as Mr. Adams proposes, appointed by the Governor of Pennsylvania, would not be supported by public opinion. The same would be true in some other States, where the emoluments of office are the rewards of party. Furthermore, the judgments of the Commission will be more effective the sooner they are delivered. The great railroad strike of 1877 in Massachusetts occurred on February 12, and the Railroad Commission made a conclusive report on the 21st. For the Coal Strike Commission to waste time—we do not say it has yet done so—is to waste influence.

To place the appointment of an investigating commission in the hands of the President is to fall in with an unfortunate tendency to overload the Executive; but this may be unavoidable in the beginning. Later on, Congress and the Legislature may see their way to shouldering responsibility themselves. But the great thing is to have the matter thoroughly threshed out in public discussion. Mr. Adams has done well to put his plan in the form of a project of law. That should appeal to the practical instinct. And let it not be forgotten that an emergency may arise sooner than any of us think, to make his bill for settling labor troubles by the moral coercion of public investigation a crying necessity.

DR. TEMPLE AND CHANGES IN THE CHURCH.

The death of the Archbishop of Canterbury not only removes a venerable and right English figure, but recalls the extraordinary way in which the ecclesiastical wheel has come full circle during his lifetime. Forty-two years ago any man would have been thought insane who should have predicted that Frederick Temple, Headmaster of Rugby, would die a bishop, much less Primate of the English Church. It would have seemed as impossible for him as for his famous predecessor, equally suspect on theological grounds, Dr. Arnold. Mr. G. W. E. Russell had this old incredulity in mind when he wrote, at the time of Dr. Temple's enthronement at Canterbury, that the event "made clear to the most casual eye the enormous transformation which sixty years have wrought alike in the inner temper and the outward aspect of the Church of England."

It is difficult to understand to-day the alarm into which Church and State in England were thrown in 1860 by the publication of seven modest theological essays. The first name in the volume of 'Essays and Reviews' was that of Dr. Temple, who wrote on "The Education of the World" in a tone that perhaps suggested Lessing, but that reflects only what is the current coin of theological thought to-day. The two men most noted since, associated in the venture, were Jowett and Mark Pattison. They stood for what would be now thought the mildest of mild Liberalism in theology. At the time, however, they seemed to be shaking both altar and throne. Mighty protests went up to the Bishops from all over England, expressing alarm at the "spread of rationalistic and semi-infidel doctrines among the beneficed clergy of the realm." In reply the Archbishops and Bishops said that they could not see how such opinions as those put forward by the authors of 'Essays and Reviews' could be "held consistently with an honest subscription to the formularies of our church," and intimated an ecclesiastical prosecution. Among the Episcopal signers was Thirlwall, who was in print with views fully as heretical, as Stanley did not fail to point out in his indignant article in the *Edinburgh Review*, and Tait, who was at the very time writing privately to Jowett that he saw nothing to object to in either his essay or Temple's. Such is the malign power of ecclesiastical panic!

One reason for the unreasonable excitement was that such a demonstration of Liberalism at Oxford had been wholly unlooked-for. The University, which her well-known son called the "home of lost causes, and forsaken beliefs, and unpopular names, and impossible loyalties," was supposed to be securely tied to Conservatism. Yet there they were, only a score of years after the Tractarians, with Oxford seething with that Liberal spirit which Newman of Oriel and Pusey and Keble had pledged their all to beat down. Pattison once gave a half-cynical explanation of the transformation of Puseyite Oxford of 1840 into the Oxford of 'Essays and Reviews' in 1860. He said it was the natural attitude of the undergraduate to be in a state of chronic rebellion against his tutors. But the student himself became a don in about twenty years, so that you had a cycle of something like forty years for the University opinion in politics and religion to oscillate from one extreme to the other. Thus the Broad-Church latitudinarians of 1860 were the legitimate product of the High Church tractarians of 1840.

Two of the Oxford Essayists were put on trial, but the final judgment of the Privy Council acquitted them in 1864. Yet the whole controversy was fanned into fresh fury when Gladstone appointed Temple Bishop of Exeter, the official announcement being made in 1869. There was a determined opposition to his consecration. Dr. Pusey went so far as to assert that the choice of Temple was "the most frightful enormity that has ever been perpetrated by a Prime Minister." And when, on December 21, 1869, the new bishop was formally consecrated, a High Church paper declared, in that moderate language which theological controversy so often begets, that "on that darkest day in the whole year was perpetrated the darkest crime in the history of the English Church."

To turn from those old bitternesses to the spectacle of an entire church mourning at the bier of its venerated head, is a lesson in Christian tolerance, as well as in some other things. Dr. Temple never recanted; the church did not change its formularies; yet the process of the suns brought the two into harmony, and the heretic of 1860 became the guardian of orthodoxy in 1902. So far as we know, Dr. Temple published little or nothing, in later years, on controverted questions of theology. He was too much overwhelmed with his vast work as an ecclesiastical administrator. Pattison once said that the way to kill a clergyman's mind was to make him a bishop, since "no bishop, ten years after he was consecrated, is ever in touch with the intellectual spirit of his day." Jowett's reason for appointing heretics to bishoprics was that it "keeps 'em out of mischief." But in Temple's case, the polemic and speculative impulse seems to have yielded naturally to the business demands and humanitarian appeals which filled his nights and days, both as Bishop of London and as Primate of England, with heroic and fruitful labors for the good of men.

COUNTERFEIT PRESENTMENTS.

The authenticity of a "Gainsborough" portrait of Benjamin Franklin recently presented to the University of Pennsylvania is now under dispute, and the discussion has brought out the interesting fact that a picture in Lord Lansdowne's London collection, which has been engraved and widely circulated as a likeness of Franklin, is only a portrait of that rather obscure Georgian worthy, Surgeon-General Middleton, who would doubtless have had Poor Richard hanged as a seditious rogue. What has happened in the case of Franklin is very characteristic. Around every great historic character there come to be grouped, besides genuine portraits, many dubious counterfeit presentments—forgeries, ideal heads, and portraits of forgotten persons rashly ascribed to their greater contemporary; and where no genuine likeness has come down, imagination steps in and gives us the invention of some later artist for the actual features of the hero.

Where no authentic likeness has been preserved, one can hardly quarrel with this tendency to visualize a hero who has constantly held the thoughts and hearts of men. It would be futile to protest against the Chinese and Japanese Buddha, for example; idle to seek in the Roman, Byzantine, and mediæval portraiture of Christ anything but the reverent imagining of the Redeemer in the forms

of successive ages. But where genuine portraits exist, the intrusion and acceptance of false likenesses are a positive misfortune. It is seldom that tradition gives so consistent and satisfactory lineaments as it does in the case of Dante, of whom there is no surely contemporary portrait. Often, indeed, there seems to be a kind of pictorial Gresham's Law at work, by which the worse likeness drives out the better. This is certainly the case with Shakspere. The pouular voice has selected as his best representation the so-called Chandos portrait. This picture, all experts agree, was painted some time after Shakspere's death; it is probably an honest delineation, not of an Englishman even, but of "a distinguished foreigner," yet it has, except for the critical, supplanted the hideous Droeshout print, as well as more attractive portraits with a better claim to genuineness.

How such a confusion arises may readily be imagined. The beginning of trouble is the credulous collector who buys an anonymous portrait because it "looks like," say, Milton, or Shakspere, or Cromwell, and gradually passes from hope to conviction on the subject. One may feel a certain tenderness for so amiable an infirmity, but the imputed likeness makes as much trouble for historians as the innocent "attributed to" does for art critics. Another source of error is the historical painter and the creator of imaginary portraits. Both may do a genuine service in expressing an historical memory in terms of flesh and blood, but both do harm when the fictitious likeness obscures any real image of the man.

Strangely enough, this very interesting branch of historical research has lagged behind. The illustrative material of history is handled in a way that, applied to documents, would be cried upon as a scandal. There is, to be sure, a tendency to exclude merely fanciful pictures from serious history, but excellent work is still published in which the absurd illustrations constantly belie the text. That gallery of Kings of Scotland from Macbeth and earlier, which some sixteenth-century dauber imagined for Holyrood Palace, still appear, on occasion, just as William the Conqueror is still acceptably represented by Virtue's eighteenth-century print. What should be a fascinating avocation for a historian has in the past been turned over to publishers' hacks, and the result has been that, while we may have read the past aright, we have unquestionably seen it wrong.

It will be no mean service of the newer and more comprehensive science of archæology if it provides us with a few experts on historical portraiture. The material already is offered in such institutions as the National Portrait Gallery in London and in our historical associations. To-day this branch lies largely in abeyance because few historians have the temperament for the minute analysis upon which this sort of connoisseurship depends, while, except in a few instances, the whole body of limners of historical personages belong to the artistic submerged tenth; hence do not concern the student of art. What we need, in order to keep our vision of Franklin and Shakspere free from surgeons-general and "distinguished foreigners" is a class of experts who will have, on the one hand, something of the connoisseur's delicacy of perception, on the other the laborious and critical habit of the regular historian. For the many students of history who feel that everything worth while has been done, here is a new and interesting field to be rescued from amateurism and conquered for historical science.

THE UNITED IRISH LEAGUE.

DUBLIN, December 13, 1902.

So much has been said of late of the United Irish League—in praise, chiefly in dispraise—that it may be opportune to present in your columns "an Irish-majority" view of that organization. The Land League and Home-Rule phase of Irish politics appeared to have spent itself after the defeat of the Home-Rule Bill by the Lords in 1893 and Mr. Gladstone's retirement from public life. The acclaims of the crowds with which the Lords' decision was hailed in Palace Yard were not answered by counter cheers of defiance, determination, and hope in Ireland. The broken expectations of half a century, the overstrain of thirteen years' acute agitation tending to paralyze the ordinary life of the country, and the bitter antagonisms between Mr. Parnell's former followers, appeared to have taken the political backbone out of Ireland. And this, so different from what England believed would have been her own attitude after the defeat of a measure as ardently desired as was Home Rule by Ireland, no doubt largely contributed to break up the Liberal party and bring the Conservatives back into power. For a while longer the fight was kept up in Ireland, with dwindling support, by Mr. Dillon and three-fourths of the Irish members under the banner of the National Federation, and by Mr. Redmond and the minority under the National League; the efforts of the majority being distracted and hampered by the machinations of some of the ablest of its nominal members, who have since made it plain that they were in reality sick of further contest for effectual reform, and were only anxious to secure such changes as were compatible with following their usual avocations and no longer shutting themselves out from a share of the loaves and fishes of Government patronage. Many who, fifty years previously, had shared O'Connell's hopes, and, after their collapse and his death, had seen Conciliation Hall turned into a corn store and the Library and Collections of the Repeal Association dispersed under the auctioneer's hammer, were now condemned to the humiliation of witnessing the closure of the offices of the National Federation and the National League. Once more, as in Duffy's time, Ireland appeared but "a corpse on a dissecting table." "Never again put trust in a fickle people," was the cry of many who had hoped and striven and sacrificed, and who, nevertheless, again have gathered courag for further effort.

Through and after all, much had been gained. Twenty per cent. reduction had been secured on the rents of Ireland. Thousands of former tenants at will had been put in the way of becoming proprietors of their holdings. "A nation of serfs had been turned into a nation of freemen." The uprising of the Land League had been so formidable that Government and the ascendancy element in Ireland had been forced, as never before, to realize that there was an Irish people to be counted with. Railways were made in remote districts, a Congested Districts Board and a Department of Agriculture were created; and, half a century after its necessity had been fully admitted, a system of county government was established—cramped, it is true, compared to its English prototype as to many of its powers. A greater interest than ever before began to be shown by the upper and middle classes in the welfare of the people. Workhouse and philanthropic reform associations, police-aided clothing and children's protective societies were established. The admission of women as guardians of the poor exercised a beneficial influence on the management of the poor-houses. The complete success of Mr. Gladstone's measure of disestablishment was shown in the dying down of religious animosities, and we had what formerly would have been an anachronism in Ireland—the principal conservative organ (the *Irish Times*) also the mouthpiece of the upper-class Catholics. But the doors were still closed against further land reform; even Mr. T. W. Russell advised the farmers of the north to bid good-bye for the present to hope, and make the best of their state.

It is, however, true of peoples as of individuals, that every "heart knoweth its own bitterness." It was impossible that Ireland could long remain satisfied under present conditions. Depopulation continued. Marshy wastes and stony mountain sides continued crowded with a miserable rack-rented population, while contiguous rich lands, from which their fathers had been driven in famine years, were still given over to cattle ranches and sheep farms. Vital statistics proved that the fibre of the nation was deteriorating. The benefits of recent land legislation could be obtained only through expensive legal procedure, too often only after risky and protracted litigation. The class feeling of the judges in Ireland led to many of the most beneficial provisions of the Land Acts being narrowed in their application. The Sales Court was overburdened with estates held back from disposal by the presiding judge so as not to "bear" the property of his friends the landlords. The Land Courts were upon the whole, by even so ardent a Unionist as Mr. T. W. Russell, stigmatized as "an Augean stable." The laborers had, it is true, benefited by a rise in wages, but the reduction in rents had not made up to the farmers for the fall in prices of agricultural produce. A Government commission instituted to inquire into the financial relations of the countries reported that Ireland was overtaxed to at least £2,500,000 per annum, and although this sum could easily have

been made up to Ireland in other ways than by altering the uniformity of taxation over the United Kingdom, Government made a jest of the report. Not the slightest hope was held out of the old system of Castle government being altered.

Under all these circumstances, it was inevitable that some organized effort should again be made to crystallize Irish feeling, express it in Parliament, and compel attention to Irish wants. For the hundredth time an opportunity was let pass by the "better" and upper classes of society in Ireland to take their natural place as leaders of the people, and show that while they were not prepared to go the length of home rule, they were determined their country's affairs should not be neglected in the Imperial Parliament. But, as ever since the Union, which put them above and beyond the influences of the opinion of the mass of their fellow-countrymen, they held aloof, satisfied in the circles of their own lives. In minor respects they could feel for their fellow-countrymen. To broad requirements they were blind. If the Irish people were not satisfied with general conditions, it was due to their hopeless crassness. If Belfast was satisfied, why should not the rest of Ireland be so? The extent to which Irish society is permeated and influenced by official classes in no way dependent upon the good will of those about them for pay or advancement, is largely explanatory of this state of feeling. If outsiders are inclined to take the opinion of the classes in Ireland that all is well, that agitation is but the outcome of the machinations of interested politicians, they should remember that all previous periods of unrest, culminating in the accomplishment of reforms since acknowledged to be necessary and salutary, have been regarded in like spirit.

The masses and those who sympathized with them had to go forward as best they could. Common sympathy for the Boers, due to whatever cause, had something to do with bringing Irish nationalist parties again together. The election of 1900 found the United Irish League, commenced in the west, fully established in central offices in Dublin, and represented in Parliament by a united party as strong in numbers as that led by Mr. Parnell. The capacity of Irishmen for compromise was shown in the chairman of the Parnellite (the smaller) section being chosen as chairman of the whole, and by the manner in which, since, Mr. Dillon, chairman of the former majority, and his ablest lieutenants, Mr. O'Brien, Mr. Blake, and others, have loyally served under their old antagonist. And this chairman, Mr. Redmond, has fully justified the confidence placed in him. Since then the League has flourished. There are said to be 1,400 branches in Ireland, besides many in Great Britain. If we may judge from accounts published in the papers, one way or another during and since the election of 1900 some £40,000 has been contributed by the Irish in the United Kingdom to its funds, now three in number—one for the expenses of the League itself, one for the support of members in Parliament, another for legal defence.

The League has in a remarkable manner aroused public opinion. Again Ireland is a factor in Parliament. It is due to the League that a Land Bill was introduced by Government last session, that it was withdrawn as inefficient, that a better one is promised. Owing to the League a conference between representatives of the landlords and the tenants is about to take place. The League is a grim necessity. There is not much "sweetness" or "light" about it, although there are few higher-minded men living than many connected with it. But these largely want the support and influence of classes which in Great Britain have helped to steady and dignify politics. The League has to work too often through imperfect instruments. Those who join must subject themselves to the suspicion of approving wild language too common at meetings, and a fictitious atmosphere of connection with crime is spread around its doings, from which political movements of like vehemence in self-governing countries would be free. Language and acts are held as criminal over Ireland which from Orangemen in the north or any party in Great Britain would pass unnoticed; and a microscopical eye is directed to Irish doings. Police notetakers attend all outdoor political gatherings—and most gatherings in Ireland are outdoor; the people are not permitted to use for political purposes the courthouses and other buildings built and maintained at their expense. Trial by jury is dispensed with wherever and whenever the Government desires. Men are tried by Magistrates sent down from the Castle and removable by the Castle; and where it is thought well to submit cases to juries, these are "packed." In a recent instance not only was a special jury secured by Government to try a case, but the jurors were specially selected from a large panel; forty-five being ordered to "stand aside." Apart from the chances of supposed connection with or approval of crime, the dangers of financial ruin are, under recent decisions of the courts, not inconsiderable. Members have, however, the satisfaction of knowing that never perhaps before was Ireland freer from real crime.

Under all the circumstances, however, it requires nerve, a clear sense of right, an overwhelming conception of the political necessities of the country, for quiet people, who would gladly live in good esteem with all men, to take the popular side in Irish politics. For a Protestant it is peculiarly difficult. He must work mainly in conjunction with Catholics, with most of whom, on other than political issues, he cannot have much in common. He is ostracized from much that is sweet in society. He has, however, the consciousness of working with men many of whom he learns to love—men who, while holding firm to their own religious convictions, he realizes are no more desirous of interfering with his beliefs than he is with theirs. He knows he is striving for a people of as innate capacity for advancement and high things as any other—no more prone than other peoples to forget those who have served them or to bear lasting grudges.

It is beside the subject which this letter was written to elucidate, but it is difficult not to note the bearing which recent doings in Parliament may have on the terms of an Irish settlement. If Catholic feeling has been so powerful as to compel the Irish members to take their recent part in Parliament on behalf of Catholics in England, would it permit them to relinquish their continued right of interference in English affairs? And to what extent will English Nonconformists, smarting under the Irish Catholic opposition in Parliament on the education question, be inclined to modify their views as to relinquishing their right of interference in Irish affairs on behalf, it might be, of their co-religionists?

D. B.

AMERICAN WARES IN ITALY.

NAPLES, December 10, 1902.

With the other readers of your columns, I have long enjoyed the letters from time to time written upon the literary and archæological and political conditions of Italy. May I be permitted to call your attention to several points that may be instructive to thinkers upon the commercial future of the United States abroad?

About two years ago I decided to obtain the Italian representation of several large American woodenware manufacturers. This intention sprang from a desire to encounter the ubiquitous German competitor fair in the face, with a firm resolve to find out why Americans could not share, or, at least, hitherto had not been able to share, proportionately in this importation into South European markets. Previous diligent perusal of our consular reports and "Commercial Relations" in Europe had led me to the belief that I had hit upon a fresh field for effort of this kind. Nor was I mistaken. Upon my arrival, somewhat over a year ago, I found that I was the only direct Italian representative of American woodenware in Italy. My equipment for the enterprise consisted in a tolerable speaking knowledge of the language, and in an acquaintance with the ways of the people as well as with their wants gained from a previous sojourn in Naples.

My desire was to sell large orders to wholesalers and to jobbers in the principal business centres of Italy; said orders to be filled direct from the United States. My first surprise came from the discovery that to all intents and purposes the wholesaler did not exist. Something remotely approaching his kind flourished in such cities of the north as Milan. Effort had, therefore, to be turned in the direction of the nearest Italian analogues to the American jobber—namely, the vast tribe of *rappresentanti*. The fact that merchants of every sort refused to consider catalogues in any language other than Italian confirmed the oft expressed, though seldom regarded, warning invariably found scattered throughout consular literature. Even if illustrated, they elicited no interest. At his office in Turin, one important *rappresentante* had a mound of catalogues of divers American hardware manufactures. He begged me to buy for him in New York certain kinds of hardware, full descriptions and illustrations of which for months had been stacked on a neighboring table. Furthermore, he had been provoked by the visit, some weeks before my talk with him, of an English hardware agent who spoke no Italian and unintelligible French.

However, these were trifling difficulties in my path, because I had brought with me illustrated circulars printed in Italian. These gave prices in *lire*, and easy terms of payment that conformed to those readily granted by the Germans with whom I hoped to compete. The serious stumbling-

block that now confronted me was the matter of delivery. Buying in small lots as Italians do, the prices of all the goods were unnaturally though necessarily elevated by reason of the extra cost of freighting in small amounts. Besides this, there was to be met the objection of my prospective Italian buyer in regard to the speed of delivery. Granted that our own were superior in quality to the German goods, the German stood ready to deliver from his bonded stock in less than a week any order great or small. For inland delivery I, on my part, could not promise anything in less time than two months at soonest. And the house whose ice-cream freezers I represented for Italy, wrote me in a disconcerting manner that the factory was so far behind on domestic orders that they could promise me nothing more than samples until some time in 1903.

In order to do business to advantage, it was evidently necessary to have a good-sized stock of all the manufactures represented stored at either Genoa or Naples, or at both these ports. Domestic prosperity had made Americans in general quite loth to put themselves to any risk or expense (of warehousing and so on) for the sake of an export market. Effort on their part could not be enlisted farther East than New York or Boston. Certain large commission houses with offices at New York, London, and in Germany bought in America orders of considerable amount, carried them to Germany, and thence dispersed their contents in small lots over Italy. In order to lessen the expense for each of my houses, I proposed that each should contribute enough to pay for the storage of a common stock to be placed in bond at Naples. The suggestion was quite fair, as there were no competing goods to be put together. The idea was discountenanced as hazardous; and a proposition to set up an American hardware and woodenware store where goods could be sold at both wholesale and retail, met with refusal. And this was notwithstanding the fact that the best local advice indicated that an undertaking of this kind could easily have been begun with a small initial outlay, and that it would have proved to be a profitable novelty, likely to sell the goods at rates below those offered by *rappresentanti* whose per cent. of profit, plus that of the people through whose various hands the goods had already passed, would be clearly saved by the complete elimination of middlemen.

It took no extensive research to show why the Germans who were in Southern Italy were introducing woodenware and hardware with practically no competition from without. The reasons for this situation are few and simple. With their proverbial insight, the Germans approached the question of export trade with the philosophy that has won them so high a position in purely intellectual realms. In Italy they have overcome opposition both by accident and by design. As the whole world knows, for some years, Germany has been in the throes of an industrial crisis. To avert disaster and possible outbreaks among the hordes that constitute the operative class, it has been found expedient to keep the factories productive at any risk short of actual loss. As a result of the domestic market being overstocked, goods are turned out and sold to the export trade at the merest trifle above actual cost of production. How has an outside demand been built up? For one thing, the consular service attained its present highly efficient development by reason of the need of a continual outlet for German products. Each consulate is obliged to turn into the chief bureau at Berlin (the statistics of which are always accessible to German manufacturers) accurate reports and tables. The former describe the general market conditions of the consular district in question, and state what products can be imported at a profit from Germany (and, also, exported to Germany). The tables present detailed information as to the means of access and the cost thereof. They also give the local *octroi* (where such exists), as well as the cost of delivery of goods to the market; and, finally, prevailing quotations on those lines that may be of inter est to the prospective German exporter.

The German manufacturer consults the statistics that are ever at his disposal, and sends one or more representatives into the district he proposes to invade, armed with a copious supply of samples for distribution, and power to make the best terms possible. The representative will ask the local buyers what they are willing to pay for certain articles; and he can usually agree to deliver any desired order on terms of ninety days or more, or with a small per cent discount, for cash in thirty days. These articles once introduced, a stock is afterwards kept so that at short notice orders can be refilled. So scrupulously painstaking are the Germans that no conciliatory effort is omitted to urge their wares upon the export market. For example, I saw the other day some German wall-paper that, on the back, had a legend printed in six languages informing one of its washable qualities. More than this, in order to draw the eye to the words themselves, there was a large and strikingly quaint design of gnomes wandering over the surface between the print. This insistent fondness for pandering to the fancy of any one who may become a buyer, is further illustrated by a still more classic example. It is well known that at one time England and Germany were competitors in selling sewing needles in the Chinese market. The English needles were sold in the customary black wrappers. An ancient superstitious dread of black shifted the Chinese needle trade to the Germans, who presented their inferior product wrapped in red paper of good omen. British conservatism or stolid indifference to pampering such whims as this (which proved, at least in this one case, a matter of crucial importance) cost dear. English and American manufacturers have very much the following attitude toward foreign buyers: "If you are not satisfied with what I have to sell, better go elsewhere." And elsewhere they often go. This independent and dictatorial manner is of small moment in times of vast domestic demand for home manufactures, but it never makes for commercial expansion, since the successful competitor abroad finds pliancy in its widest sense the most imperative consideration.

Meanwhile, the American manufacturer has probably not done more than to sell orders at New York to Germans who resell at a profit, which might be saved by employing a representative equipped with a knowledge of Italian, abundant samples, power to give long credits where it would be safe to do so, and illustrated circulars in Italian. Or, perhaps, he has opened an agency (with a small stock) in London. In this case, at least two profits unnecessarily intervene between American manufacturer and Italian consumer. At most, let us say, he has sent a representative over to Italy to look after his interests. But this unfortunate has his hands tied. He is obliged to submit to the indignity of having a successful German rival step in under his nose and take the market out of his hands because his power is limited. He cannot extend credits. He must await advices from headquarters about trifling details to which he could better attend on the ground. His superiors are naturally annoyed at the pettiness of questions they cannot understandingly answer, questions upon the instantaneous reply to which may depend important orders; and with which, once and for all, the representative should have been authorized to deal.

From the above strictures upon American obtuseness in matters of export, the managers of the Singer sewing machine, the Remington typewriter, and the National cash register are exempt. Their successful introduction is national. From Palermo to Turin their progress has been rapid far beyond that of any other American manufactures. How was this brought about? Superiority of the article itself, compliance with all the demands made by the Italian consumer that are met by the Germans, and, lastly, by extensive advertising. It is probably not too much to say that Italians advertise as much in proportion to the amount of capital invested as we do at home. These three machines are everywhere advertised in journals and by posters. A few Americans, very few as yet, have followed this encouraging example.

A carefully planned and logically conducted assault on the present German supremacy in woodenware and hardware, for example, would make a comparatively important place for America in southern Italy. The attack must be carried on along the lines followed by those now holding the field, or in another way that could hardly fail of a sudden success. So little Neapolitan capital is invested in industries of any sort that a large American department store at Naples, in which nothing could be bought that was not of American origin, would succeed from the hour of its inception. There should be a direct delivery of goods from the American manufactory to the store at the lowest export rates. This plan would obviate the various middle profits that at present are holding us back in this region where "English" and "American" are in themselves advertisements of no little value. This saving would be so considerable that the Germans could be met victoriously with goods superior to their own, at as low or lower prices than those at which they now find themselves practically without competition. A store such as I have in mind, such as several times has been suggested to me by people cognizant of the possibilities here for American enterprise properly directed, ought to include a varied assortment of commodities. For instance, there need be no clash in an "emporium" of this kind between dry goods and optical goods, between shoes and woodenware, between groceries and drugs,

provided that no conflict of interests should be permitted to occur, and that each department be by itself in charge of a responsible director. Shop rents in choice situations are low beyond belief. Before many months the establishment could count on a much larger *clientèle* than that of tourists, resident English, and modernized Neapolitans. Its sales would extend outside of Naples into central and northern Italy.

RAPPRESENTANTE.

Correspondence.

CHANNING'S VERSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Noticing in a recent issue of your journal the citation, from Channing's 'Poems of Sixty-Five Years,' of that impressive meditation of his entitled "To-morrow," it has occurred to me to send you the first form of it, as he sent it in a letter to Emerson from New York, where, at the age of twenty-six, he was aiding Horace Greeley in editing the *Tribune*. In copying the verses for publication from the printed volume of 1847, it escaped my notice that I had them in a fuller form, but with variations, in this letter. It came back to Channing, with other letters to Emerson, after 1882, and was left to me with the mass of his manuscripts at his own death a year ago. He gave the poem no title, and omitted three lines in printing it. The thought, though profound, is obscure, like much that poets have to say about that mysterious entity, Time—"the wild Time," as Emerson says.

F. B. SANBORN.

CONCORD, MASS., December 23, 1902.

NEW YORK, Feb. 9, 1845.

MY DEAR FRIEND:

I got and was glad to get your letter to-night. I thought, not that you had forgotten me, but that you had forgot to write. It is dated Feb. 1, and is a nine days' wonder.

I have nothing to say; it is for this reason that I write. Had I anything to communicate I should be perfectly silent. Not only have I nothing to say, but I cannot imagine how any one ever had. At remote distances from where I am, some faint possibilities of life in a shaded background seem to arise.

Fled, O fled forever! are you, early and mysterious lights, that around the initials of existence once in rosy beauty played: gone, gone, there where all things fine and fair fleetly go!

Thus, O thou man of marble security! do *I* write, the child of impulse, the creature of imagination, and the ghost of the past. Thou, cased in triple steel, needest not confessions, desirest not sympathies. It is better where thou standest than where I conflict with the shadows running swiftly over the wide, bare, deserted and misty plain—its only music the very distant, sullen dashing of some sea bitter in its waves, or now the dull sough of a weary wind that here has come to die in the long strands of sere grasses. W. E. C.

I send you, you patron of the poor! the only verses I have written this winter.

TO MY WIFE.

And thou, who art the life of this world's light,
Fair flower that sweet suns nurtured into bloom!
From thee I urge no more the weary flight,
Thy image kindly sits within the room,
And softly smiling bans the veiled doom.
. . . . . .
To-morrow comes, alas! my friend, to-morrow—
There down below the pines the sunset flings,
Long arching o'er, its lines of ruddy light,
And the wind whispers little harmonies,
And underneath their wings the tender birds
Droop the averted head—silent their songs.
Yet not a word whispers the moaning wind,
Nor when the primal stars, in faint array,
Trail with the banners of the unfurled night;
Nor even when the low-hung moon just glints,
And faintly with few touches seres the wood.
Not then, nor there, doth Nature idly say,
Nor whisper idly of another day:
That other morn to its own morrow is,
That other day shall see no shade of this—
Being forever morrow where the hand
Omnipotent the shadow parts, and time,
Circling in gayest measure, rounds the print.

A "STRENUOUS" KING OF ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In these days of a "strenuous" President, it is interesting to note the "strenuous" King of England who first gained that title. Bishop Stubbs, in his 'Introductions to the Rolls Series,' recently reprinted, says that King Richard

"had the rare prerogative of true genius, to be able to see the best plan of operations [in war] to be the best, even when it did not proceed from his own brain. He was circumspect to design and swift in execution, ready to seek and to take the best advice, to yield his own schemes and accept a subordinate position when the decision of the majority was against him. Skilful as he was in the designing and earnest in the execution of military combinations, he was the veriest tyro in politics."

Bishop Stubbs cites in his notes Bohadin, who says of him: "The King of England—strenuous before all," and Giraldus, "Strenuitas et magnitudo fere pars"; Gervase of Tilbury, "In strenuitate, magnanimitate, militia, scientia, et omnis generis virtutibus nulli secundus"; Chronicle of Tours, "Vir armis strenuissimus et a populo honoratus."

At another place (p. 314), Bishop Stubbs says of him: "His eloquence, such as it was, may have come to him with his troubadour tastes from his mother, and his indomitable pride, and his carelessness of expressing his contempt for those he felt beneath him in strength or fame." And at page 321, "His political alliances were formed on the merest grounds of likes and dislikes; he was eloquent after a rude and effective fashion, consciously unfit to govern men—he did his best to choose good ministers—and utter want of political common sense prevented him from being a good ruler."

In these days of historic parallels, it might be suggested that Richard the Lion-hearted, as described by Bishop Stubbs and the early authorities quoted by him, was in some sort the prototype of our own strenuous President. At all events, it is curious and interesting to find such a picture in the grave and well-weighed pages of so good an historian as Bishop Stubbs, of the great English King, with some features so like those of the modern President. R.

"MALAHACK" ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Volume 73 of your esteemed weekly a great deal of discussion is to be found on the word "malahack" (see pp. 148, 205, 245, 264, 377, 413), but none of your correspondents had found it in a dictionary or traced its origin. I met the word by chance in John S. Farmer's Dictionary, 'Americanisms, Old and New: A Dictionary of Words, Phrases, and Colloquialisms Peculiar to the United States, British America, the West Indies' (London, 1889). At page 356 "malahack" is explained thus: "To cut up hastily or awkwardly. This is an *English* provincialism, which, however, is colloquial in America." But more is said in the fourth volume of the famous Oxford work of Prof. Joseph Wright, 'The English Dialect Dictionary' (1902): "*Malahack*, verbum, East Anglia. (1) To cut or carve in a slovenly, awkward way. Cf. *molly-hawk*. Norfolk, Suffolk. (2) Of a horse or donkey: to become disabled or worn out by hard work. East Suffolk." Under "*Molly-hawk*," p. 148, occurs the entry: "Norfolk. A heavy double-toothed mattock."

"Malahack," therefore, is in every-day use in Norfolk and Suffolk, and appears not to be found outside "East Anglia." As your correspondents from Maine to Virginia prove, it is also common especially in the districts peopled by early emigrants from "East Anglia." No doubt, the word came from there to America, not *vice versa*. Whether the etymology from *mal* (French) and *hack* (English), "to hack badly," as mentioned somewhere, is correct, I cannot decide.

The word *mallack* mentioned by one of your correspondents (p. 377) is, according to Wright's Dictionary (vol. iv., p. 40), one of the many forms of the word *marlock*, which means, as substantive: "a prank, frolic, 'lark'; a trick, practical joke; a noisy disturbance, an uproar, 'row'; an unfortunate accident; one who plays pranks, a fool"; as verb: "to play; of a horse: to be restive, kick," etc. Other forms of the word *marlock* are "*maalack, mailack, mailock, mairlock, malech, malek, marlak, marluk, morlock*," etc.

I may mention that I have not found the word "malahack" in slang dictionaries such as James Maitland's (1891) or Albert Barrère and Charles G. Leland's (1897).

Yours truly, A. B. MEYER.

DRESDEN, ROYAL MUSEUM, December 14, 1902.

Notes.

The Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, O., announce in a limited edition an important historical series entitled 'The Philippine Islands, 1493-1803: Explorations by Early Navigators, descriptions of the Islands and their Peoples, their History, and Records of the Catholic Missions, as related in contemporaneous books and manuscripts, showing the political, economic, commercial, and religious conditions of those Islands from their earliest relations with European Nations to the beginning of the nineteenth century,' in fifty-five volumes, the first of which will appear about January 15, 1903. This work will present (mainly in English translations) the most important printed works, to the year 1803, including a great number of heretofore unpublished MSS., which have been gathered from various foreign archives and libraries, principally from Spain, Portugal, France, England, Italy, Mexico, Japan, the Philippines, etc. The series will be edited and annotated by Miss Emma Helen Blair, A.M., of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, assistant editor of 'The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents,' and James Alexander Robertson, Ph.B., also formerly engaged upon that work. An historical introduction and notes will be furnished by Prof. Edward Gaylord Bourne of Yale. The series will include a very extensive bibliography of "Philippina," surpassing any that has yet appeared. There will also be an exhaustive analytical index to the complete series, and numerous facsimile illustrations, maps, etc. One thousand numbered sets is the limit of the edition.

The handsome typography of Charles Lamb's 'Adventures of Ulysses,' brought out for the holidays by R. H. Russell, is its chief recommendation as a reprint of a classic. Full-page tinted illustrations, by M. H.

Squire and E. Mars, it does not lack, but of hardly any of these can it be said that they are real designs, or more than decoration. They make the story a picture-book for the young, and these at least will seek no further.

The same publisher hands us a small folio in humorous vein, 'A Dog-Day,' the diary by Walter Emanuel, the chalk and crayon plates by Cecil Aldin—from the French. Old folks can enjoy it once; babes will return to it as often as the mother makes up a text of her own for this dog's adventures.

The story of St. George and the Dragon, in Burne-Jones's designs and an old English ballad, has been attractively presented by Mr. Russell on a scroll that might, if need be, be tacked to a wall, though it is on rollers. The scenes are rather faintly reproduced, as if at second or third hand.

Messrs. Dent's 'Don Quixote,' pretty in all externals as Dent books always are, is intended for unfortunate youth—unfortunate as not being thought worthy of a complete edition. We can do very fairly without "The Curious Impertinent," and even with an abridgment of the "Story of the Captive," but to cut out the disquisitions on knight-errantry, the classics, the drama, and so on, because they are supposed not to interest "youth," should be criminal, and is stupid. Then, to praise the book thus transmogrified for "its healthy fun and frolic" is most precisely to add insult to injury. The text is the always readable vulgate of Jarvis, and the illustrations are by W. H. Robinson. As to these, we should have rejoiced more over the old set of Tony Johannot.

It is hard to imagine to what wealth of language and prodigality of capitals FitzGerald would have been moved had he reached Mr. C. H. A. Bjerregaard's 'Sufi Interpretation of the Quatrains of Omar Khayyam and FitzGerald' (J. F. Taylor & Co.). The position of the commentator seems to be that, in some mysterious way, not only Omar but FitzGerald wrote Sufism without knowing it, like M. Jourdain and his prose. This inner meaning is now extracted in a most sumptuously printed but undeniably dull exposition, the principal value of which is that it illustrates so beautifully how sane men could once believe in the double meaning of Scripture. As to Omar, most are agreed that he was no Sufi, but a philosophical sceptic, who sought refuge from time to time in a theological "perhaps." And as to FitzGerald, Sufism in Omar was his pet bogy. He even, it may be, made Omar more of an unbeliever than he was. Mr. Bjerregaard and all good occidental Sufis have now their revenge by making FitzGerald one of themselves *malgré lui*. But if a man does not himself know what he is writing, and his word cannot stand for the faith that is in him, where—with permission—"are we at"? On the side of scholarship, this book, in spite of protests, raises grave doubts as to Mr. Bjerregaard's first-hand knowledge of Sufism. Certainly no one who had such knowledge would class together al-Ghazzali and Jalal ad-Din ar-Rumi. As well confuse Hegelians of the right and of the left.

The 'Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges' would not ordinarily find notice here, but a new commentary on the 'Song of Songs' is of some even literary importance. Principal Andrew Harper has in this case (Cambridge, Eng., University Press; New York: Macmillan) produced a really suggestive little book, although it is improbable that his view as a whole will meet with much support. It is practically Ewald's hypothesis cast into lyric rather than dramatic form. In its defence is suggested the parallel of such dramatic lyrics in varying metre as make up Browning's 'James Lee's Wife' and 'In a Gondola.' This is undoubtedly valid so far as the separate songs or soliloquies are concerned. Browning's dramatic lyric is the nearest parallel we have to the very essence of all Semitic poetry. But the combined whole cannot thus be explained; Semitic poetry knows no such elaborate structure. Throughout, Principal Harper vainly kicks against the pricks of Budde's hypothesis, and finally exhausts his ingenuity on it in a twenty-page appendix. The fixed use of the Authorized Version as text in this series is here reduced to an absurdity by the printing of a new translation separately.

The long series of the Dent-Lippincott charming little volumes, "The Temple Bible," has now been closed by an 'Introduction to the Study of the Scriptures,' by the Bishop of Ripon. As the volumes have separate editors, their general merit of course varies, but the plan of literary introduction, clearly arranged text, simple notes, and lists of references in English literature is admirable, and has inspired to lucidity some most learned theologians. As we cease to read the Bible in one way, we may perhaps, by grace (partly) of books like this, come to read it in another. That the other way shall still be essentially religious is the care of the Bishop of Ripon's little introduction. It, too, is simple, direct, and telling.

Mr. J. N. Larned's 'Literature of American History,' noticed in our last volume, made a few incursions into 1900 and 1901, but its 4,145 numbers were otherwise retrospective up to the last year of the last century. The work is now continued for 1900-01 in a thin 'Supplement' of less than forty pages (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) "on lines laid down by the parent volume," and yet with a difference. Mr. Philip P. Wells of Yale appears as editor in charge, and his all but uniform practice is to cite, often freely and again condensing, some authoritative review, giving the writer's name where it is known. Very serviceably, also, mention is occasionally made of controversy over the work in question, as in the case of Prof. E. G. Bourne's 'Essays in Historical Criticism' or of the Durham Report. The numbering is continuous with the elder volume, and the concluding title is No. 4333. On the whole, this seems to us a safer mode of procedure than that of express and first-hand collaboration in appreciation. The longer extracts not infrequently convey a satisfactory impression of the weight of judgment even when anonymous.

We are glad to receive the sixth edition of Clegg's useful little 'International Directory of Booksellers and Bibliophile's Manual; including Lists of the Public Libraries of the World, Publishers, Book Collectors, Learned Societies, and Institutions, Universities, and Colleges; also, Bibliographies of Book and Library Catalogues, Concordances, Bookplates, etc., etc.' (Rochdale, Eng.: James Clegg; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.). It is three years since the fifth edition appeared. No material change has been made in the scheme, and the editor still strives to keep the work of a handy size. The title does not exhaust the variety of information here packed conveniently away.

With volume iii. is concluded the 'History of Enfield, Conn.,' edited and published by Francis Olcott Allen at Lancaster, Pa. This remarkable work embodies in permanent form all that pertains to the planting and growth of a Connecticut town. Careful explanatory notes add much to the value of the record. Volumes of history might be evolved from the lists of soldiers sent out from Enfield to the several colonial wars, with specific detail of the object of each expedition, and in some instances of its result. Other phases of colonial life are clearly brought out and illustrated. The records of death and graveyard inscriptions are conspicuously minute and indigenous. Enfield may well take pride in this exhaustively comprehensive history, testifying as it does to the love and loyalty of a descendant of one of its early settlers—Moses Allen—the ancestor also of the Revs. Thomas and William Allen, Gen. Ethan Allen, and many other worthies.

In a little volume entitled 'Hugh Price Hughes as We Knew Him' (London: Horace Marshall & Son) are collected several interesting reminiscences of a distinguished English Nonconformist minister, whose recent death is described by one of the contributors, the Dean of Westminster, as a loss to "the cause of national righteousness." These brief papers are a remarkable evidence of the impression made by Mr. Hughes upon his fellow-workers in the various fields of church work, social reform, and journalism. All his associates speak with amazement of his untiring energy. One of his volumes of sermons, for example, for which a publisher had long been clamoring, was dictated to his private secretary in two days. Even more significant was his disinterestedness. He refused to take from the West London Mission a salary of more than $1,500 a year, with the use of a furnished house; and during the last year of his life, having received a small legacy, he returned the whole of his stipend to the mission, and in addition contributed $500 to the Methodist Twentieth Century Fund. As Mr. F. A. Atkins says, "He might have made ten thousand [pounds] a year as a barrister, but he preferred to be a Methodist preacher with the salary of a managing clerk."

The fact that the attention of students in other parts of the world is specially directed toward English institutions, by the Rhodes scholarships or whatever else, makes Gilbert C. Bourne's 'Introduction to the Study of the Comparative Anatomy of Animals—Vol. II., The Cœlomate Metazoa' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) a very timely publication. The author's selections of types of animal organization for dissection, description, and comparison have been determined by the requirements of students reading for the preliminary and intermediate science examinations in the universities of Great Britain; yet the work is quite as well adapted to the needs of students and teachers in foreign countries as in England. As will be seen from the list, the chosen types have close allies in nearly all parts of the earth, and the slight differences that exist only add interest to comparison. A good deal of the work is embryological, and in embryos

the minor differences are less likely to appear than in adult forms. The types include the liver fluke (Distomum), the worms Lumbricus and Polygordius, the molluscs Anodonta and Helix, the crustacea Apus and Astacus, the insect Periplaneta, the lancelet Branchiostoma (here named Amphioxus), the shark Scylliorhinus (here named Scyllium), the frog Rana, and the mammal Homo. The nuclei of definitions are prominently indicated in bold-face type. In most cases the specific name of the type under dissection is given; an exception appears to be made in the case of "the frog." Some of the names are antiquated. Opportunities for criticism in regard to treatment, thoroughness, and accuracy are comparatively few. It is a pleasure to deal with a work of so much excellence.

'Clinical Psychiatry,' adapted from the German of Kraeplin by Dr. A. Ross Defendorf, a lecturer at Yale, is published by Macmillan Co. as a text-book for students and physicians. It does not seem particularly adapted to such use, for the style is not fluent and the directions for treatment are not particularly satisfactory. We should be disposed to put it in the library for occasional consultation in confirmation or disproof of deductions from observed mental phenomena.

England's new King and Queen and President Roosevelt are in the select portrait gallery of the new issue of the *Almanach de Gotha*, its 140th (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The editor conceals his reluctance to drop the Transvaal and the Orange Free States forever from view, but notes their disappearance and hails the swimming of free Cuba into his ken. His official perplexities have arisen, he says, from unprecedented changes in the diplomatic service. Cabinet changes have been perhaps fewer than usual. In all civilized nations there has been a rejuvenating of the high military commands. By courteous exception, the *Almanach* gratifies a request of the Swedish Minister of Foreign Affairs in admitting to the appendix a brief account of the Nobel Foundation, with the personnel of the committees.

The desideratum in the Harvard University Catalogue which we have long expressed, viz., a page reference for instructors' names in the index, is, we are glad to observe, supplied in the new issue for 1902-03. One who wishes to learn the rank and chair of a member of the teaching corps, for example, is no longer obliged to search through the entire list of "officers of instruction and administration," arranged, not alphabetically, but "on the basis of collegiate seniority."

The nineteenth annual report of the American Bureau of Ethnology opens with an extended administrative report by the late Col. Powell. To this document he appended a short outline of "Esthetology, or the Science of Activities designed to give Pleasure." This is a treatment of the games, art, music, drama, etc., by which savages attempt to render their tedious lives more agreeable. The papers accompanying the report are of rare value, and largely from the hands of specialists regularly connected with the Bureau. Of these the Myths of the Cherokee, by James Mooney, is noteworthy, embellished as it is by a careful study of the historical setting of the racial contact of Cherokee and European. Three papers are given to the Puebloan Tusayans, one to the mounds of Northern Honduras, and three to numbers and calendar-systems. Of the latter, "Primitive Numbers," by W. J. McGee, offers data for important generalizations. "The Wild Rice Gatherers of the Upper Lakes," by A. E. Jenks, is a valuable study in culture-history. The printing and the plates of these two volumes are, as usual, of a high class; but the plate-work suffers in comparison with that of several years ago, specially when in color.

The 'Handelsatlas' of A. Scobel (Leipzig) is one of the most satisfactory aids to the teaching of commercial geography that have come under our notice. The maps are all in color, and the shades are, fortunately, so arranged as to lend themselves with comparatively little difficulty to reproduction in lantern-slides. The author has selected accurate forms of base maps, and has refrained, with few exceptions, from overloading them. His charts represent the distribution of all the most important articles of commerce—metals, minerals, and commercial flora and fauna—in great detail. These maps tell their story almost at a glance, and are well designed to aid the younger student as well as the more mature. Besides the distribution of products, the regular trade-routes, ancient and modern, are well represented; and the density of population and prevalent occupations are likewise indicated. Detail maps of all the important harbors of the world form a valuable feature; and ancient and modern colonial geography comes in for some attention. The map which represents the colonies of the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and Greeks, together with the extent of the Roman Empire, is especially convenient, and that which shows the extent of the Hanse puts a great deal of detail in compact form. The Atlas is cheap in price.

Among the historical manuscripts published in the December Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is a letter from Boston, dated July 20, 1779, in which a reference to the possible capture of the city by the British closes with the remark that "half of the people wish their coming." Possibly this Tory leaning had much to do with the refusal to believe the news of the taking of Stony Point. "We have just recd an Account from Genl Gates of the Reduction of a fort on the north river, but the people know the credulous disposition of the Genl so well that they place no confidence in any Account he may transmit hither." In a letter dated "Park of Artillery near Morris-Town, March 19th, 1780," some details are given of the dispute between the officers and soldiers of the Pennsylvania Line, "respecting the inlistments of the latter, many of whom contend they were listed but for three years while their Officers insist on their being inlisted during the War. This dispute caused such frequent desertions while those troops were on Command on the Lines, that it was thought expedient to man the Line with the Troops from Connecticut alone."

The new Chinese tariff, which went into effect October 31, is published in the Consular Reports for December, together with the agreement between the special commissioners of the United States and of China. Consul-General Mason of Berlin describes the German processes and machinery for briquette manufacture. There is a picture of a machine "by which black dense briquettes of high caloric value are made from peat without the application of heat—simply through the action of kneading and drying." Other German industries treated are uralite, a new fireproof material, and quartizol, "a cheap, strong, fire- and water-proof brick made of fine clean quartz sand and some chemical admixture." Of peculiar interest is the prospectus of a proposed international peace exhibition of South Africa to be held at Johannesburg in 1904-05.

The principal article in the *Geographical Journal* for December is Dr. M. A. Stein's report of a journey in Chinese Turkestan, his special aim being to examine some of the ancient ruins seen by Sven Hedin and other travellers. It was made under the direction of the Indian Government, and was the first attempt to explore this region from an archæological point of view. He visited the sites of several towns which have been submerged by what the natives term the "great sand ocean," and found numerous remains dating back to the second century of our era. Among these were statues, stucco images, rilievos, frescoes, ornamental wood-carving, and coins. Orchards and gardens could be traced, and in one place a row of fallen poplars was discovered. The most important finds were several hundred wood tablets, the great majority of which were written in an Indian language. Some were in a non-Indian language, but written in Indian characters, and may prove to be an indigenous tongue spoken by the people of that period. When they are deciphered, it is hoped that they will throw light upon a lost chapter of Central Asian history. In his notes of a trip through Uganda, Sir C. Eliot recommends the use of automobiles for the transport of goods—an experiment which has been successfully tried in the Congo Free State. Capt. R. Amundsen describes his proposed expedition to determine the position of the North Magnetic Pole. He hopes to start in May, 1903, with eight companions and return by way of Bering Straits in the summer of 1907.

It is significant of the progress of Japan in scientific knowledge that the leading place in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 11, should be given to a morphologic study of the Selouchi or Inland Sea by Dr. N. Yamasaki of Tokyo. After briefly adverting to the important place which the sea has occupied in the history and industries of the nation, he describes the topography of its shores and numerous islands, its geologic history, the peculiar features of its bottom, and the changes which are taking place mainly through erosion. Hauptmann W. Stavenhagen gives another instalment of his review of Russian cartography, past and present.

—Truth is no longer in a well. From the Esoteric Centre of Washington she has come out, and even now, but sexless and pure, in the astrality of the Occultist, Dr. A. de Sarâk, Count of Das, she is radiating forth, "forward, ever forward," even to Boston, "dissipating darkness" by luminous lies and "proclaiming peace" with a steady flagellation of her dearest foes, the Theosophists. Great was Blavatsky, the Russian spy who succumbed to the influence of the most notoriously ignorant quack of India; but greater still is the astrality of the Count of Das, who will "hatch out a

bird or a fish in the space of a few minutes," and can thus (for in the persuasive words of his review, "this is logic") prove his title to be an Adept superior to the "poor old gentleman, proud of his title," at the head of the Theosophists. All this we learn from a rapt perusal of the first number of the first volume of the *Radiant Truth*, managed by Miss S. L. Lee, late a Theosophist, but now a successful scorner of that heresy, and edited by the glorious Count himself, who spells Krishna as Christna (as if Christ could be thought to derive from India!); attributes to the Vedas ideas utterly foreign to them; cites from Manu verses not found in Manu; and cheerfully endorses the claims of one Jontin, an extant alchemist, who can "manufacture the diamond, gold, and the elixir of life." But this is not all. The *Radiant Truth* publishes Occult *secrets*, and, that all may test the truth of the *Truth*, it even prophesies. Who would not be inspired? Hear, all ye poets and clergymen: "To facilitate inspiration, breathe from time to time the perfume of the leaves of the Lemon Verbena plant. It is good to carry about the person three leaves of the Lemon Verbena, gathered on a Sunday, three hours after sunrise." And this is the twentieth century! As to the prophecies which are to substantiate beyond cavil of the Theosophist the claims of the Occultist, only one is vouchsafed to us by the astral Count in this first number of his *Radiant Truth:* "Our review will meet with the greatest success."

—There is little to edify in the Poe-Chivers papers, an instalment of which appears in the January *Century*, with editorial introduction and comment by Professor Woodberry. Some may be interested to learn that Poe's temperament was bilious, nervous, sanguineous, but, upon first view, appeared to be bilious, sanguineous, nervous; or that he was "the Incarnation of the Greek Prometheus, chained to the Mount Caucasus of demi-civilized Humanity, with the black Vulture of Envy feeding on his self-replenished heart"; or that Tennyson's poems are "as effeminate as a phlegmatic fat baby"; or that Lowell's Rosaline was "as palpable a plagiarism as was ever palmed off by arrogant mental mediocrity upon a too credulous Public"; but unless the limitations of Dr. Chivers are themselves of importance, no important interest has suffered by the long slumber of his opinions. A final instalment is to follow in February. The "so-called" Sugar Trust (since they are all so called, why not consult brevity and call them so?) is considered by Franklin Clarkin, with somewhat fewer details of management than have characterized the previous articles of the series. Albert Shaw writes of the President and the Trusts, censuring the managers of these organizations for their reluctance to accept the policy of publicity and governmental regulation for which the President has declared. The editor pleads earnestly and thoughtfully, as he has often pleaded before, for the status of friendship between labor and capital, rather than the status of warfare so generally maintained at present.

—Benjamin Kidd, still harping on my daughter, contributes to the January *Harper's* a further presentation of his theory of "projected efficiency," whereby he seeks to reconcile the facts of social life and progress with the doctrine of the survival of the fittest as it is held in respect of the lower realms of life. In the earlier stages of human existence, immediate efficiency was the price of survival; as the races have advanced, the successful candidate has more and more become that race which carries not only those qualities necessary to efficiency in the present, but also the burden of qualities which will contribute to a higher efficiency in the future. Natural Selection is at work, therefore, among human kind as elsewhere, but in this field her discriminations are now based not so much upon present fitness as upon "the degree of efficiency of the subordination of the present to the future." Wu Ting-fang writes interestingly, as always, of Chinese and Western civilization. If it were not for the mistaken fear of recognizing anything commendable in a non-Christian civilization, the mission of such a man as Wu Ting-fang might have done an immeasurable amount of good in establishing a basis for mutual respect and understanding between China and the United States; and no thoughtful and unprejudiced person can doubt that the reception of the fundamental principles of Christianity in China would be much more rapid under such conditions than it has been in the past. James B. Connolly writes a vivid description of Arctic whaling, as it is carried on to-day, but it is impossible to get the real spirit of adventure into a chase that ends by shooting an explosive bomb into the whale with a mechanically operated gun. Professor Kittredge, of Harvard, illustrates briefly the current growth of language by the formation of new words, counselling, with Horace and so many others, a mean between the unyielding purist and the reckless innovator.

—The November number of the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science contains a study, by F. R. Fairchild of Yale University, of the financing of the South African war. A detailed history of the financial operations of the war is followed by sections devoted to a more general discussion of the war taxes and the Government borrowing, and to a summary of the cost of the war and the means by which it has been met. The total cost of the war, covering only actual expenditure during the four years of war (the official estimates being used for the year 1902-3), is computed at £212,609,000, being made up of the three items—supply services, £196,657,000; interest on loans, £9,367,000; discounts on loans, £6,585,000. This expenditure has been met as follows: by suspending the sinking fund, £9,228,000: by taxation, £53,208,000; by borrowing, £150,173,000. Of the additional taxation levied to meet war expenditure, the most important measures are the import duty on sugar and the export duty on coal, enacted in 1901, and the import duty on corn and flour, enacted in 1902; this last particularly interesting, in view of Great Britain's long abstention from any form of "corn laws." A remarkable feature is the fact that the heavy outlay for war expenses induced no economy along other lines; on the contrary, the ordinary expenditure of the Government was increased by about £23,000,000 during the past three years. Additional taxation to the amount of more than £75,000,000 was imposed during the war, of which only £53,000,000 was devoted to war expenditure.

—The war loans amounted in all to £159,000,000, of which £92,000,000 took the form of consols. The loans were very successful, so far as popular response is concerned, but the terms which the Government was able to make became more and more unfavorable as the war progressed, as appears from the contrast between the first loan, issued at 98½, and the last one, which was floated at 93½. At the close of the war, consols stood at 96, having dropped ten points or more since the summer of 1899. The very low point of 91⅛ was reached in November, 1901. Other forces, however, besides the war borrowing, contributed somewhat to the fall in consols. A comparison with the other principal wars in which Great Britain has been engaged since 1688 shows that the total cost of the South African war has been exceeded by only one other war, the twenty-three years' war with France (1793-1815). No other war has reached half the cost of the South African war. In proportion to its duration, the cost of the recent war is half as great again as that of any previous one. A greater proportion of the cost has been met by borrowing than was the case in the other important wars of the past century.

—'Some Experiences of an Irish R. M.' was a blithe work that won an immediate popularity, even with readers who knew nothing of the happy-go-lucky existence described by its authors, Martin Ross and E. Œ. Somerville. Their latest joint production, 'A Patrick's Day Hunt' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a short story profusely illustrated with colored plates. The scene is laid in County Cork, but the description of the pack, the run, and the members of the hunt would fit any hunting county in Ireland. "The like o' the crowd of people that was in Kyleranny that day never you seen—side-cars, and carts, and phaytons, and all sorts, let alone them that was goin' huntin'. Ye wouldn't hardly know there was hounds in it at all with the dint of the people that'd be around them, and it 'd be as good for you to thry to get into Heaven as to get past the cross roads. Ye'd lose your life cursin' before the owld women 'd stand out from under your feet. Ye'd have to be going around them this way, the same as a person that'd be winding a watch. 'Is it sick the Major is, that he's not in it?' says I to Tim Hurley, the Whip (that's the son of an Aunt of mine by the Mother), when I got to come at him, 'and Johnny Daly riding Monaloo?' 'He has the 'fluenzy,' says Tim. 'Is it bad with him?' says I. 'He's bad enough to-day,' says he, 'but yesterday he was clear dead altogether.' 'It's a pity anything would ail him,' says I. The Major was a fine man, always, and his family was a fine family. Sure me father used to say that in owld times if ye went to the big house ye'd get the smell o' roast beef when ye'd be no more than half-way up the avenue, and there'd be dhrinkin' all day and knockin' all night, and if ye axed the change of a half-crown it wasn't in it. Faith, I said to John Daly, there wouldn't be any fun, nor no cursin,' nor nothing, when the Major wouldn't be in it." Miss Martin of Ross is one of the well-known Galway family called for generations the "Kings of Connemara." Galway is a county notorious in Irish hunting circles for the "Galway

Blazers," which is the suggestive name of the most popular hunt. Miss Martin's handling of the vernacular is, naturally, excellent, and her experiences are at first hand. In a Christmas gift book like the present work the illustrations count for much, and Miss Somerville's share in the volume is perhaps the more important. The printing of the colored plates by Evans of London is unusually good.

LOWELL THE REFORMER.

The Anti-Slavery Papers of James Russell Lowell. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

Immediately after his marriage to Maria White at the close of 1844, Lowell went to sojourn in Philadelphia, and entered into an engagement with the abolition *Pennsylvania Freeman* to furnish an editorial article fortnightly at five dollars apiece. Later, returned to the East, he rendered a service of the same kind to the *National Anti-Slavery Standard* of New York, but weekly, and at twice the previous pay. These leaders (five from the Philadelphia journal, in 1845, fifty from the New York, 1846-1850), were examined by Mr. Horace Scudder in preparing his Life of Lowell; some were epitomized, some freely quoted from. The need of this elegant reprint, therefore, is not at first sight apparent. Nevertheless, the collection shows how much an acute editor may miss by attacking his material piecemeal. On page 236 of his first volume, Mr. Scudder, with a slant at those abolitionists who, while being stigmatized as men of one idea, were chided or reviled for having too many reformatory irons in the fire, says of Lowell:

"His imagination and his sense of humor both prevented him from being a thick-and-thin reformer, and he refused to allow his hatred of slavery to be complicated with practical measures for the reform of various other evils which troubled society."

This is echoed by the scarcely well-informed writer of the Introduction to the present reprint, when he pronounces Lowell "surprisingly free from radicalism," yet cites approvingly from the very first leader in the *Freeman* the passage: "The aim of the true Abolitionist is not only to put an end to Negro slavery in America: he is equally the sworn foe of tyranny throughout the world." And here he stops, but Lowell, as will be seen on page 6, was arguing for that divorce of the anti-slavery agitation from politics to which the radical Garrison held his faction, since "if American slavery be politically abolished, the power of the abolitionist will extend no farther." And again, four years later (p. 195):

"Though chattel slavery be the most odious shape in which oppression presents itself, it is well for us to be accustomed to consider the abolition of it, not as an end, but as a step toward a more perfect reorganization of society."

In 1849, concerning Greeley's "contemptuous expressions toward Garrison and those who are nicknamed Garrisonians," Lowell wrote (ii., 83):

"The friends of every class of Reform in America owe a debt to Garrison, and in such matters there should be no repudiation. Especially let not the butt end of the wedge sneer at the *ultraism* of the entering part."

In fact, Lowell was at no pains to conceal his opposition to capital punishment, or his temperance views (in sympathy with his wife's brother William), or his condemnation of a pro-slavery church and clergy. But these volumes also make clear his complete possession by ideas which would now be called Socialistic. Of this, Mr. Scudder takes not the least notice, and his index has but two entries under Socialism, one in connection with Henry George and the address on Democracy of 1884; the other with the Introduction to 'The World's Progress' (1887), and both antipathetic to State Socialism. We must resist the temptation to cite freely on this point. Here is a decisive quotation from page 10 of the first volume:

"It is not money or railroads or factories that the Northern monopolist usurps; he lays his selfish hands upon human freedom like his brother at the South, and hence a feeling of unavoidable sympathy between them. The system of labor and of its reward at the North we sincerely believe to be but little better than that at the South."

The sound of this in his ears came back to him four years later while he still confessed that "the arguments of the anti-land-monopolists are entirely conclusive." He hedged a little (ii., 137):

"We do not see how any advantage is to spring from disputes as to whether this or that injurious system is entitled to an evil preëminence; but we are not to be supposed as granting that chattel-slavery is no worse than wage-slavery. It is one of those assertions which recoil disastrously upon those who make them."

We take leave of this theme by noticing the cropping up of Lowell's Socialism in the words he puts into Calhoun's mouth in the absurd colloquy with Foote and Cass. See particularly pages 79 and 82 of volume one for this curious incarnation. Mr. Scudder thinks the interlocutors "decidedly more discriminated in character than his old men of straw, Philip and John, so that the reader really seems to hear these worthies discoursing together, and not struggling against the betrayal of the master of the show, who is shifting his voice from one to the other." Calhoun, however, is unmistakably the mouthpiece of the Socialist playwright.

The present Introducer is again at fault—traducer rather—when he says that Mr. Lowell "never sympathized with the extreme wing of the Abolitionists in their attacks on the Constitution and their proposals to dissolve the Union." However, on page 4 following, one may read: "the new position assumed by the American Society [for disunion, seven months previously]. . . . I rejoice at the stand which has been taken by the Society. In my eyes it never looked so sublimely as now." On page 13—"reverence for a pro-slavery Constitution," "the utter worthlessness of that piece of parchment." On page 43 (of Webster)—"the defender of the 'Constitution' when he might have been the champion of Freedom and of Man!" On the corresponding page of volume two—"In repudiating the doctrine of dissolution as if it were something odious and shameful, we think he [the editor of the Boston *Republican*] acts unwisely."

At this period, Mr. Lowell was at one with his associates in standing fast for a purely moral agitation, and in holding it impossible to combine this with the conduct of a political anti-slavery party; at one in regarding (as did Birney) the American church as the bulwark of American slavery, and in finding it natural in the new "third party" to "resolve" that its members "have nothing to do with the assailants of the church and clergy." The prime utility of this reprint is in demonstrating just the reverse of what is ignorantly stated in the Introduction.

Lowell was not a born journalist; he was not even a born prose-writer. His natural vehicle was verse, as he again and again declared. These papers show a disproportionately long vestibule, an extensive cutting out of work, and a sudden pull-up. The seriousness of the reformer and the exuberance of the humorist often destroy the "keeping" of an article. From epigrammatic phrases like "public *want* of opinion," or "morals as high as the cispenitentiary degree—enough, that is, to keep them out of the State's Prison," we pass to an allusion to the "dark horse" custom of Presidential conventions, "The only feasible plan for them is to buy another pig in a Polk," or an allusion to the scriptural defence of slavery combined with mob violence, "an entertainment [for the anti-slavery lecturer] of Ham and eggs (the clergy and people contributing their respective quotas), which kept the promise of hospitality to the ear and broke it to the sense." Through it all, one encounters noble and inspiring sentiments never out of date, as, of caste: "When the moral vision of a man becomes perverted enough to persuade him that he is superior to his fellow, he is in reality looking up at him from an immeasurable distance beneath." True to-day is it: "In this country the civilization of the people has not yet come nearly up to the political principles set forth in the Declaration of Independence." All that relates to Webster, and there is a good deal here, is worth attention now, as showing how long before his 7th of March speech his readiness to sacrifice his principles for the Presidency was mistrusted. Latter-day whitewashing, with its false assumption of a juster perspective, needs this contemporary check. Let any one answer now Lowell's interrogatories in 1846 (i., 37): "What has Freedom to thank Daniel Webster for? What has Peace? What has Civilization? What has that true Conservatism which consists in bringing the earth forward and upward to the idea of its benign Maker?" This passage is succeeded by a striking personal reminiscence of Webster "when he defended himself in Faneuil Hall against the outraged Whiggism of Boston for having retained his seat in the Tyler cabinet," and displayed all his magnetic power and majesty of person.

These volumes demanded an index, which is denied them, and invited annotation. Twentieth-century readers need to be told who was "the Fox of Kinderhook" (ii., 49); to have the South Carolinian John Brown (i., 202) identified; to have the dictum, "That is property which the law makes property," remarked for Clay's on page 84 of volume two, before the ascription is overtaken on page 191. Shall we not also admit, with shame, that the historical satire on page 72 in the first volume will escape the penetration of fairly attentive readers? "Hangman" Foote *loquitur:*

"If, for the sake of appearances, he [Jefferson] declaimed against our wisest and

most cherished institution, he was neither so thriftless nor so inhuman as to turn the Ishmaels he had begotten into the desert. He was a prudent and economical farmer of all the qualities of his nature. If he made his organ of language profitable to him as a politician, he no less enriched his pocket as a private citizen by his philoprogenitiveness."

Finally, time's irony on the art judgment on page 218 of volume i., "Probably this world has never had five such sculptors as Powers," called for anticipation of the inquiry from the present generation—"Who the deuce was Powers?"

So tasteful, fairly costly, and limited an edition was bound to be correspondingly free from printers' errors. For the benefit of purchasers we subjoin such as we have observed: volume i. (p. 26, line 8), "these" for those; (p. 39, lines 12 and 14), omit comma after shallowness, "di grege" for "de grege"; volume ii. (p. 53, first line of last paragraph), "as" for from; (p. 172, last line), "natural" for neutral (compare p. 175); (p. 183, line 16), supply "law" after "moral"; (p. 195, line 5 from bottom), "put" for puts.

THE POLITICS OF ARISTOTLE.

The Politics of Aristotle. With an Introduction, two Prefatory Essays, and Notes Critical and Explanatory, by W. L. Newman. Vols. III. and IV. Pp. xlvi, 603, lxx., 708. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1902.

The works of Aristotle have been sadly neglected by classical scholars in America. Not one in five hundred of American college graduates has read a page of Aristotle in the original, and not one in a hundred has been required by his college courses to read a page even in a translation. Yet Aristotle is the "master of those who know." Huxley in late middle life learned Greek in order to read his works in the original, although we should expect observations made before the invention of the microscope to be of slight interest to a modern scientist; and he showed in an interesting case that Aristotle was right where his unscientific interpreters had believed him wrong. And Gladstone is said to have counted the 'Politics' one of the three books to which he was most indebted. An examination of the catalogues of fourteen prominent colleges and universities of this country shows that courses in Aristotle's Nicomachean Ethics are offered by two universities in Greek and by two in English. The 'Metaphysics' is studied in English or in Greek in three universities, and the 'Categories' in one. Two courses are offered on the 'Constitution of Athens' and one on the 'Politics' in Greek, while the reading of the 'Politics' in English is part of the work in political science at two other institutions. But in the particular year covered by the catalogues examined, these courses in the 'Constitution of Athens' and the 'Politics' in Greek were not given.

The published work of American classical scholars shows the same neglect of Aristotle. No paper on him or his works is printed in the 'Transactions' of the first thirty annual meetings of the American Philological Association, and the index to the first twenty volumes of this publication notes but one such paper as read before the Association. The first twenty volumes of the *American Journal of Philology* contain but one article based on a work of Aristotle, suggested by the then recently discovered 'Constitution of Athens,' and one note of less than a page in length on the 'Metaphysics.' In the first ten volumes of the "Harvard Studies in Classical Philology," the nearest approach to our author is in a paper on Homeric quotations in Plato and Aristotle, which naturally does not enter into esoteric Aristotelian discussions. Apparently, only two or three American dissertations for the degree of Ph.D. in classics have had to do with Aristotle. His position in German scholarship forms a marked contrast to his treatment in America. An index to the German classical publications for a quarter of a century, 1873-98, gives nearly twice as many pages to Aristotle as to any other Greek author. Such eminence is doubtless due to the volume and variety of his works, but this makes the American indifference still more noteworthy. But two or three of our classical scholars of a younger generation are now publishing occasional papers on him in philosophical periodicals, and at last the influence may spread to the philological.

Oxford, however, is the true stronghold of the study of Aristotle in modern times. Probably no other city, large or small, contains so many scholars acquainting themselves at first hand with at least some of his views. Of the great and useful editions of Aristotle's works published in the course of the last thirty years, England has furnished more than all other countries together. For the study of the Nicomachean Ethics the most important works are Bywater's critical edition of the text, Jackson's learned and stimulating edition of Book V., Stewart's two volumes of commentary, and the convenient exegetical editions of Sir Alexander Grant and of Burnet. In recent years, Germany has given us no work to match any one of these, except Susemihl's poorly printed edition of the text. For other works, Kenyon's and Sandys's editions of the 'Constitution of Athens,' Wallace's 'Psychology,' Cope and Sandys's 'Rhetoric,' and Butcher's 'Poetics' give the fullest and best commentaries of recent years. Jowett's translation of the 'Politics,' with a volume of notes, just preceded the publication of the first two volumes of Newman's edition, and in 1894 Hicks published an excellent and convenient revision and translation of the first part of Susemihl's edition with German commentary. Thus we have a fine shelf-ful of English editions of Aristotle, scholarly and attractive, in large type which contrasts strikingly with the typography of the ordinary German editions. The quarto edition of the Berlin Academy, published in 1831, has become such a standard for reference that the preservation of the same lines is convenient, and, to attain this end, the Teubner text of Aristotle is set in type much smaller than that used for the other Greek authors, while the English publishers have been luxurious in the use of large type and good paper.

The first two volumes of Newman's edition of the 'Politics' were published in 1887, and were reviewed in these columns. The four volumes contain 2,513 pages, of which 224 are occupied by the Greek text, 131 by critical notes, 1,177 by the exegetical commentary, about 700 by essays and appendixes, and 132 by indexes. The ordinarily convenient plan of having text and notes on the same page is manifestly impracticable here, since less than one-tenth of the space is given to the text, which hence would form but a narrow rivulet on the page. Consequently, the reader who desired a copious draught of Aristotle rather than of commentary would be seriously inconvenienced, having but a small part of a sentence on the page before him, for frequently the comments on a single line occupy more than a page. But this arrangement is at least more convenient than that of Stewart's commentary of 1,012 pages on the 'Ethics,' which furnishes no text of its own, but refers the reader to Bywater's edition. The 'Politics' should be read by many more than have the leisure to study such a commentary and such essays as Newman's, but this edition will be of high value not only to those who take it all in course, but perhaps especially to those who desire to consult it occasionally. The reviewer has read about five hundred pages of the commentary, and pronounces it anything but dull and heavy reading. The editor, like Aristotle himself, draws illustrations from all quarters, including the modern as well as the ancient world. Frequent references are made to Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' Bare references to authorities are not so frequent as full quotations, and the commentary will be useful to the student of political science who, with a limited knowledge of Greek, is using Jowett's or Welldon's translation, but desires a commentary. The characteristics of the first two volumes are maintained. The work is learned and accurate, and furnishes the most complete apparatus for the study of the 'Politics' which is likely to be published within the lifetime of scholars of to-day. Perhaps some may feel a certain lack of perspective, in the similar treatment of more familiar and less familiar matters, but for such a work this has its advantages. That nothing should be overlooked, and that the editor should agree with the reviewer in the interpretation of all doubtful passages, could not be expected.

An interesting Appendix of Reminiscences of passages in the writings of Plato could be extended. It does not include the remark in 1324 b 22, that the true statesman will not hold a part of his art to be the consideration how he shall acquire power over men, whether they desire it or not. This is a distinct allusion to Plato's "Ship of State" (in the 'Republic,' 488), where the true pilot, who is fitted to command, will not think there is any art in securing control of the ship, and, if there be such an art, will believe this to be incompatible with the art of ruling. The Aristotelian passage aids in the interpretation of the Platonic sentence, and, on the other hand, a careful comparison of the Platonic sentence would have saved the editor from suggesting an inconsistent construction for one of Aristotle's words. In another passage the editor seems to be out of his true field. At 1338 a 25, Aristotle quotes as Homeric a verse which is not found in our manuscripts of Homer, and then adds a bit which is in our Odyssey. The editor, with others, supposes that the two fragments belong together, and he rewrites the Homeric passage so as to introduce the new line. In the process, however, he omits a half-verse which is quoted with the follow-

ing by Plato in the 'Republic,' and makes carpenters to be called not to a settlement as useful men for a hamlet (as our Homeric text would have it), but to a feast, in which we may suppose they could be of no special service. The Homeric nobles had reasonable views of the dignity of labor, but they would not take special pains to invite carpenters to their feasts, and the Homeric passage does not imply a feast, but work.

The editor adopted fifteen years ago the view that Books VII. and VIII. of the MSS. and old editions had been displaced, and should follow immediately after Books I.-III. To this order, naturally, he holds still, only saying rather mildly that he is not sure that Wilamowitz-Moellendorff is right in his view of the original order and its change. Wilamowitz believes that Aristotle's lectures on politics were among his very earliest courses of instruction, and that they were often repeated; that the discussion of fundamental questions (Books I.-III.) was followed originally by a consideration of the best state (Books VII., VIII.), though in later years the lecturer postponed the discussion of the best constitution, and inserted a discussion of the essence, the differences, and the changes in constitutions (Books IV.-VI.), but, since the course was often repeated, parts of I.-III. may be later than VII., VIII. Every teacher of to-day will readily believe that Aristotle was not able always to conclude his course of lectures exactly as he had planned, and will demand no further explanation of the groups IV.-VI. and VII., VIII. Huxley thought that our manuscripts of the 'Historia Animalium' were based on notes taken by students, explaining thus from his own examination of note-books the broad contrast between acute, accurate observations, due to the master, and minor inaccuracies which are likely to be due to the student. Every instructor is grieved at times to learn how he has been misunderstood even by his best students. Newman rejects the view that our 'Politics' is based on students' note-books, and as evidence of this calls attention in the commentary to passages which show attention to literary style not likely to be caught by a student in taking notes. Wilamowitz believes that our 'Politics' is based on the drafts which Aristotle made for use in his lectures, drafts used several times and containing both earlier and later elements. This seems to explain the facts better than any other hypothesis. That some passages were written out in greater detail than others and with particular care is natural. Nothing indicates that either this work or the Ethics was published by the philosopher himself. We know him, perhaps, after all, rather as a teacher than as an author. The 'Historia Animalium' may have been published from note-books, in default of the lecturer's drafts, but the 'Politics' from his papers after his death.

Aristotle collected through his students more than one hundred and fifty constitutions of States in Greece and out of it. This collection was of great use to him in his lectures, and the gathering and sifting of the material must have been admirable work for his "research-students"—just such subjects as are sought by the modern candidate for the degree of Ph.D. Perhaps an analogy for the number and variety of these constitutions might be found in American colleges and universities, where many experiments have been made in administration, the government of students, the manner of appointment and the tenure of office of the instructors, the duties of instructors and their part in the management of the institution, and the like. Each of the older institutions and others still very young have made changes in these respects, which would prove an interesting subject for investigation. If the facts could be ascertained, what principles one college had borrowed from another, and why it had deviated from the ordinary rule, under what influences and with what limitations the appointing power had been given to the President, or to the trustees, or to the faculty, material for a doctor's dissertation would be at hand in almost every college. A change of administration and the introduction of a strong man as President has often caused a complete change in the unwritten constitution of the college. Many such essays must be written before a really authoritative book on college administration in America can be composed.

The editor's criticism of Aristotle's treatment of education may be of interest:

> "Does Aristotle's scheme of education call for enough effort from the young? . . . Would not a training which gave them more difficulties to face and to conquer, develop in them more force of will and be more really useful to them? Does not education largely consist in requiring the power and the will to do that which is distasteful to us, when it ought to be done?"

Rhode Island—Its Making and its Meaning: A Survey of the Annals of the Commonwealth from its Settlement to the Death of Roger Williams, 1636-1683. By Irving Berdine Richman. With an introduction by James Bryce. In two volumes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

Mr. Richman's book is not a study in the origins of political or economic institutions, or an analysis of the forms of colonial government. It is essentially a plain narrative of the chief events connected with the early history of Rhode Island, from 1636 to 1683; it is the story of the "making" of Rhode Island, told for the purpose of elucidating its "meaning"—for the purpose, that is, of showing that Roger Williams and the colony which he founded furnish the connecting link between the religious reformation of the sixteenth century and the political revolution of the eighteenth century. The central idea of the Reformation was individualism. Roger Williams was the first man to understand the full significance of individualism on its religious side; he did not, however, fully understand the significance of individualism on its political side. It was the work of Rhode Island, as distinguished from the work of Roger Williams, to understand and establish this idea also.

This theory is worked out substantially as follows: Massachusetts, in attempting to establish and maintain a theocracy, found itself in conflict with the "Time Spirit" of toleration. This "Time Spirit," which was represented in America by Roger Williams and others, supplied the condition which made a new colony necessary. Rhode Island was the result of this necessity. Freedom of conscience was made the cornerstone of the new colony, and the struggle for "political individualism" was immediately begun. This struggle finds its expression, on the mainland in the establishment of government by a majority of householders, on the island in the contest between the Coddington people and the "Hutchinson-Gorton combination." In both cases the principle of political individualism triumphed. The land system which was developed was typical of the same struggle; that of Providence was opposed to political individualism, while that of Aquidneck fostered it. The further development of this principle, which was given wide recognition in the first Rhode Island Constitution (the government established in 1647-50), was checked for the time being by Coddington's "coup d'état," and was ultimately subject to some wholesome restrictions, the precise nature of which does not clearly appear. The principle of freedom of conscience was formally recognized by the English Government in 1644 and in 1663, but meanwhile, in practice, it encountered, at the hands of "Destiny," two crucial tests. The first "test" was that of persecution, at the hands of Massachusetts, in the persons of Holmes, Clarke, and Crandall. The second "test" was concealed in the problem as to how far individualism should be allowed full swing in resisting governmental authority. For this test the instrument of Destiny was William Harris, who denied the legitimacy of any governmental restraint. At this point Roger Williams and Rhode Island part company: the former maintains that individualism shall not be permitted to go so far; the latter maintains the doctrine of "Soul Liberty" to the logical end. Nevertheless, by the author's own account, after political individualism had "paralyzed the arm of Rhode Island in time of peril from the Indians," the colony itself apparently came back to the position of Williams, or nearly so.

When a student of history groups the results of a long series of careful investigations about a central principle or theory, the initial question which must always be asked is this: Is the theory the result of the investigation, or is the investigation the result of the theory; has the student tried to "understand by investigation," or has he investigated what he is convinced he already understands? In the latter case the work will most likely have very little historical value. In the former case a second question arises: Is the theory a correct inference from the facts which have been presented?

While one is strongly tempted to suspect that Mr. Richman's investigation was the result of his theory rather than the reverse, the book is in no sense mere special pleading. On the other hand, the author has produced an unusually careful and impartial piece of investigation. It is based upon a full knowledge of the printed sources, and the examination of some important manuscript collections. It has been presented with great wealth of detail, and in a style that is clear and not without its charm. While less attention has been paid to constitutional questions than one might expect, and while the almost total disregard of economic conditions is disappointing, the author has nevertheless shown otherwise a sufficient care for proportion and perspective, and no event or phase of development has been wrenched,

to any appreciable extent, out of its proper setting for purposes of advocacy. So conscientiously, indeed, has the work of investigation been done that it does not, in great part, obviously or convincingly connect itself with the theory which it purports to set forth. There are whole chapters (*e. g.*, x., xiv., xv.; the last is perhaps the most valuable part of the book) which are altogether remote, apparently, from the central thesis; while most of the chapters which do connect themselves with that thesis contain much extraneous matter. This distinction is clear even in the table of contents, where the statement of the theory has been sandwiched in, at proper points, between the chapter headings. The theory, in fact, is not an unbroken thread which we follow continuously, but rather a series of mile-posts in front of which the author stops us at intervals in an interesting journey, for the purpose of indicating where, precisely, we are. The theory is thus detachable from the investigation, or the investigation from the theory, according to the inclination of the reader, neither interfering seriously with the other. If, therefore, Mr. Richman has technically adopted the method of the advocate rather than the method of the historian (we do not assert that he has), he has successfully avoided the dangers which that method inevitably involves.

As for his theory in general, one may be permitted to suggest that it is a far cry from the reformation of the sixteenth century to the revolution of the eighteenth, and perhaps so small a link as Rhode Island is likely to need some stretching before it can be made successfully to reach from the one to the other. On the whole, Mr. Richman appears to us a careful investigator, but not altogether a profound political philosopher. It is his contention, for instance, that Roger Williams did not understand the full significance of "Soul Liberty" on its political side, as it is understood to-day. In a narrow sense, this is true; more broadly considered, it is not. It is true that Roger Williams believed that preaching against the legitimacy of governmental restraint might, in general, be rightly suppressed. It is true that in England and the United States such preaching is now, in general, permitted. But why? Because, in general, such preaching has no appreciable effect on the stability of the existing political authority. The fundamental question which individualism in politics raises, is not whether this or that expression of individualism shall be permitted, but it is whether the principle of individualism shall be permitted to undermine and destroy the State. Roger Williams believed essentially that it should not be permitted to do so; most people to-day, even in "England and the United States," agree with him. In fine, the "full significance" of individualism in politics is anarchy. The State, if there is to be any State at all, must protect itself by drawing a line between that expression of individualism which is permitted and that which is not. This line was drawn at one point in theocratic Massachusetts, at another in the tolerant but small and weak Rhode Island; it is drawn at still another in the great and powerful United States. The principle, however, is the same in each case; the application of it will depend upon the character of the State and the firmness of its foundation.

On the whole, the work of Mr. Richman is a valuable contribution to American Colonial history. Some exceedingly useful maps supplement the text. A fuller citation of authorities would have pleased some readers, and irritated others. An exhaustive bibliography of sources would have added materially to the value of the work.

Essays Historical and Literary. By John Fiske. Volume I. Scenes and Characters in American History. Volume II. In Favorite Fields. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

These posthumous volumes of Mr. Fiske's possess a good deal of interest, though not always a very novel interest, at least to his readers. Half of them are historical, dealing with the "last Royal Governor of Massachusetts," Hamilton, Jefferson, Madison, Jackson, Webster, and other worthies; the other half gives us *inter alia* glimpses of the historical method, of Mr. Fiske's view of the bearing of evolution on religion, reminiscences of Tyndall and Huxley. They are all of a popular sort—that is, are designed for a popular audience—and must not be read too critically. They all have merit, derived not merely from lucidity, but from a characteristic simplicity which was Mr. Fiske's own, and which helped to give him the art of carrying his audience along with him, no matter what he touched upon. Occasionally his simplicity gets the better of him; he falls into a kind of boyishness of expression which is perhaps not well suited to the subject in hand.

In his essay on Old and New Ways of Treating History he gives a much clearer exposition of what the new historical school, successors of the men of the order of Freeman, Stubbs, and Gardiner, are about than they have ever given for themselves; with all the more impartiality, too, that he was not himself altogether one of them. He was primarily a scientific man (his scientific attainments and learning were comprehensive enough to have made a name for him without anything else) who in the middle of his career diverged into history, and developed a remarkable power of popular historical exposition, so that, while he was originally known as the standard-bearer *in partibus* of the Spencerian philosophy, it seems probable now that he will be remembered chiefly hereafter by his striking contributions to American popularized history. But these contributions are not in the main works of research or original investigation. They are in many respects what historical writing was before research was ever heard of; that is, they are primarily literary, narrative, and descriptive. Their superiority over much of what went before them consisted in their being much better done, not in their being done on any novel theory or plan. They also introduced into American historical writing a feature of which Macaulay first revealed the secret—that of reconstituting the past by actually introducing us to the daily life of the period—a feature lacking in some of the best volumes of even so recent a writer as Parkman.

Of the scientific portions of these volumes we do not undertake to speak with authority. Fiske's reminiscences of Huxley and Tyndall are interesting, but perhaps the most curious paper is that in which he explains his religious views. To most minds—to Huxley's above all—the tendency of the evolutionary view of the universe was towards agnosticism. Not so, however, in the case of Mr. Fiske. Evolution is exactly what mankind has long been waiting for as a sort of new Revelation; it is what we might have anticipated, had we not been dull enough, until within a few years, to miss the point. The essay, considering who the author is, is certainly a strong proof of the ineradicable craving of the human mind for some religious basis for the phenomenal world.

We have not space to go into details, but strongly recommend the volumes, even to those who are already well acquainted with the author. The essay on Charles Lee is, to us, quite new and very entertaining.

American Animals: A Popular Guide to the Mammals of North America North of Mexico, with Intimate Biographies of the more Familiar Species. By Witmer Stone and William Everett Cram. Doubleday, Page & Co. Small 4to, pp. 341. Illustrated.

This is a good sample of what may be accomplished in a popular work scientifically handled. It is said to treat of every species and variety of mammal found in North America east of the Mississippi, all of the varieties of big game animals north of Mexico, and only the most important species of the others west of the Mississippi. A first impression obtained by turning these pages is that they contain more of real life than is the case with most works of similar purpose, and this impression is strengthened by closer examination. Mainly, it is due to the large number of excellent photographs from live animals. The pictures are ably seconded by a text well adapted for securing and retaining the reader's attention. The volume is a popular-science work, in which the popular features are generally so good as to enhance the value of the science—not the most common peculiarity of popularized science.

Points for criticism occur here and there, especially in connection with the illustrations. In many cases these are distributed without regard to their accompanying texts. The texts of the mountain goat and the mountain sheep are illustrated by the figures of the prong-horn antelope, and the article on the bison by those of the mountain goat and the musk ox. The prong-horn's text contains the figures of the woodland caribou, the only figures in the limits of the essay on the Virginia deer are those of the wapiti, and the armadillos are to be found in the description of the whalebone whales. By search the reader is able to locate figures that should be in the article to which they belong. A few of the plates are from colored drawings; in these the selection of colors in reproduction could not have been made with a view to doing justice to the artist.

At times, in the notes on habits, one may detect something like straining for a conclusion almost or quite out of reach. The old grizzly, we are told, writes his challenge by clawing the pine tree as high as he can. Another grizzly finds the tree, and, unable to reach as high, leaves the range to the first; but if able to reach as high or higher, he stays and hunts as he pleases

until the combat decides. The author concludes:

"The method of challenging all comers is common to a great many wild beasts, large and small; not only bears of all kinds and many of the smaller hunters, but deer and moose as well. And I am inclined to think that when the house cat stretches up to sharpen his claws on the trunk of a tree, it is a similar challenge for other cats to read."

A question to be asked in this connection is whether the cat, the bear, or the deer really exerts himself to reach as high as he can when working off some of his surplus energy in this way. Beavers, again, are said to be so persecuted that they scarcely dare to raise a lodge or dam, but are compelled to hide in secret burrows beneath the bank. As a trapper would tell it, on the contrary, the beaver builds a dam and a house only when and where he needs them. On a strong stream, with an eddy in which to sink the supply of brush in front of a bank to burrow in above the floods, he is simply a "bank beaver," in need of neither dam nor house, and not so easily trapped as those with dams and houses. Fishers are said to be as much at home in the treetops as pine martens, and to climb where the partridges roost to catch them in their sleep. The partridges usually bearing the name roost on the ground. Raccoons are said to dig hornets' nests out of the turf; but the insect commonly called hornet swings his paper nest from branches or other supports in the air. A Canada lynx is said to have a "retrousse tail."

A key to the genera is given; there is also a short bibliography.

Glimpses of China and Chinese Homes. By Edward S. Morse. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1902.

Modestly set forth as is Professor Morse's volume, it is a noteworthy addition to our knowledge of China, for to this work he has brought the same competence, industry, and zeal which made his 'Japanese Homes' uniquely valuable. One does not, indeed, get from this work the idea that the author is altruistic or philanthropic. Rather, the tone of it, in contrast with his high praise, amounting sometimes to rhapsody, of the Japanese, seems startling. Perhaps he was spoiled by his comfort and his popularity in Japan. Yet, even making all allowance for the winsomeness of "things Japanese," he seems almost savage in tone when decrying the Chinese generally, so that one is almost tempted to discount the value of his judgments of Japanese, whom he flatters so highly. He does not seem to make proper allowance for the fact that the Chinese, being an old race, have necessarily the defects and diseases of age, and possibly of decrepitude; while the Japanese, in comparison, are a young race with a very new country. The critical student sees no Japanese civilization, based on writing and letters, before the fifth century of the Occidental era, while in China the historical period begins at least nine hundred years before Christ, with trustworthy traditions reaching still further. On many points the author's standards of comparison are certainly unfair, because they are always with Japan and the Japanese, and not with other countries and races. Certainly, a wider induction of facts would have given the reader more confidence in Professor Morse's judgment.

Apart from this, however, his book, for its architectural information, is a genuine contribution to science. His sketches, though possessing no artistic merit, are, for truth, at the antipodes of the deceptive or thoroughly misleading pictures of French and other artists that have so long dominated our popular works on China. The descriptions of the Chinese homes, and the dinner—with the leavings thrown on the floor—of the back yard, the theatre, the prison, and the peasant's house, worthily supplement, in the interests of science, Dr. Smith's great works on 'Chinese Characteristics and Village Life.' We have realistic descriptions, which we can depend upon, of the examination hall, military drill rooms, and the water clock.

In one instance, in his zeal for science, the author hired a boat and faced the howling mob in a potter's town on the river beyond Canton. Though apparently his life was in danger, he saw the working of a Chinese potter's wheel, of which he gives a sketch. The wheel rests on the ground, and the potter squats beside the wheel, while the helper, holding to a rope hung from above, rests on one foot and kicks the wheel around with the other foot. Unlike the potters in all other parts of the world, he lifts the clay vessel from the wheel, which has been previously sanded, and, though somewhat deformed by this act, the pot is afterwards straightened by the spatula and the hand. The ovens, though like those in Japan, are much more substantially built. Barren as a brick yard, the Chinese pottery, without a green leaf or flower, contrasted frightfully with the hospitality, politeness, and love of work and beauty of surroundings of the Japanese potter. Followed back to his boat by a "venomous mob of thoughtless brutes," the seeker for knowledge "no longer wondered that magistrates could order these people to be beheaded by hundreds without a quiver of feeling"—which order and process, he declares, he would at that moment have enjoyed and witnessed with equanimity. Mr. Morse justifies our Chinese Exclusion Act, believing that in those respects in which the Chinese are different from us they represent a savage race.

The book is handsomely presented and is well indexed. It will have a welcome on the lengthening shelf, where the material is gathering which some day a literary master will coördinate into science.

Our Homes, and How to Beautify Them. By H. J. Jennings. With numerous illustrations. London: Harrison & Sons. 1902. Pp. 254.

This is one of many books devoted to the subject of inexpensive decoration of domestic interiors. Although there is mention of the statelier ways in which ornamentation has been carried out in old times, and much insistence upon the splendor of Renaissance and later furniture, on the spirit and movement of Elizabethan plaster work, on the refinements in carving and in inlays of colored woods of the eighteenth-century English makers, there is still at least a superficial semblance of thinking for the people of small means who, however impecunious, must needs have suggestions of splendor. The lecturer who tries to interest his audience in interior decoration, finds the same hindrance now that he found thirty years ago: if he shows on the screen the magnificent interiors of the seventeenth century, or talks of the refined decoration of the eighteenth century, he is told by his audience, if he consults them, that he is talking over their heads and showing them what they cannot imitate. If, on the other hand, he tries to show them what they might really have which is at once tasteful and inexpensive, he will find that his audience yawns.

With the disappearance of well-defined classes of society, showing itself most obviously in the replacing of costume by fashion, there has come to be also that lack of distinction between the styles of adornment in other things than dress. There is no decoration suitable for the quiet domestic house of small cost or small rental, because its owner is not really satisfied unless there is copied in its furnishing and its appliances as much of the magnificence of the past as he has happened to notice or to have heard mentioned. The exceptions to this rule are the only interesting decorations of modern times. We have some such exceptions in the suburban houses built in the neighborhood of Boston during the last twenty years—houses in which the architects have carried their designing into the details within, and have panelled their walls and put up chimney-pieces in the character of the simple exterior, keeping all the rooms in harmony, one with another. Such interiors may be very inexpensive in their fitting up, and their furniture need cost but little, and yet there will frequently be beauty in them.

If we understand aright the book before us, the author is seeking to assert the possibility of having such things in modern England also, and while he shows magnificence, he seems to be quite aware that the person of small means ought not to seek the magnificent. The frontispiece gives the long gallery of Knole, in Kent; or, at least, a photograph of that reproduction of it which was set up by a London firm of upholsterers at the Paris Exhibition of 1900. Another full-page plate shows a "French Renaissance Dining-room," the expense of which, even if it were in pounds sterling, would be in the thousands—supposing always that the work is solid and respectable, and turned out by responsible makers of such things. But, on the other hand, there are simplicities enough: even in the large plates there is the modification of a Jacobean Hall and of a supposed Elizabethan fireplace; "a Renaissance Dining-room" which, if studied from anything of the sixteenth or seventeenth century, would at least seem to have been studied from the simplest parts of the mansion in which it is found; a "Hall for Country-house," in which the plainest of woodwork and plaster, and the commonplace fittings, unite to reassure the would-be economical builder.

There are a great number of text illustrations, half-tone cuts from good examples of writing-desks, tables, and cabinets, sofas, settees, and chairs of many epochs. But with mention of these pictures must come a needed reference to the fact that all these pictures, except a few taken from "the Louvre, South Kensington, and private collections" are furnished by one London firm, and that the text makes constant allusions to the work of this firm, so that one is a little surprised not to see their name appearing on the title-page as the

publishers of the work. It is not to be denied that the resources of one large and enterprising firm of upholsterers might supply material enough for a book of this sort. We know of half a dozen such houses in New York—houses whose experience would work up into a most fascinating record, which would be full of instruction for such as wish to learn by the experience of others. Hence it is not absolutely in condemnation that we mention the very peculiar conditions under which this book seems to have been prepared and published.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Garland of Love: A Collection of Posy-Ring Mottoes. London: Arthur L. Humphreys.
American Essays. Edited by E. E. Hale, jr. Globe School-Book Co.
Aspects of the Jewish Question. By a Quarterly Reviewer. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Barry, William. The Papal Monarchy, from St. Gregory the Great to Boniface VIII. (The Story of the Nations.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Bell, Malcolm. Sir Edward Burne-Jones. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Bellairs, E. G. As It Is in the Philippines. Lewis, Scribner & Co. $1.50.
Bingham, N. W. Rollicking Rhymes of Old and New Times. Henry A. Dickerman & Son.
Bond, R. W. The Complete Works of John Lyly. 3 vols. Henry Frowde.
Booth, A. J. The Discovery and Decipherment of the Trilingual Cuneiform Inscriptions. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Bronson, T. B. Sur les Bords du Rhin: Selections from Victor Hugo. H. Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Carter, Mary D., and Malloy, Catharine. Cuentos Castellanos. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Castlemon, Henry. The Haunted Mine. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.
Cowell, J. E. "I Live." Macmillan.
Custance, Olive. Rainbows. John Lane.
Dawson, A. J. Hidden Manna. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Douglas, Marion. Days We Remember. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Echols, W. H. An Elementary Text-Book on the Differential and Integral Calculus. H. Holt & Co. $2.
Eggert, C. A. Schiller's Wallenstein. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Emanuel, Walter, and Aldin, Cecil. A Dog Day: or, The Angel in the House. R. H. Russell.
Everett, C. C. Immortality, and Other Essays. Boston: American Unitarian Association. $1.20.
Fay, E. W. T. Macci Plauti Mostellaria. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
Fernow, B. E. Economics of Forestry. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.65.
Feverel, A. A. B. The Pilgrim's Scrip. Scott-Thaw Co.
Finck, Bert. Plays. Louisville: Published by the Author.
Francis, Mary C. A Son of Destiny: The Story of Andrew Jackson. The Federal Book Co. $1.50.
Griggs, E. H. A Book of Meditations. B. W. Huebsch.
Hartman, J. R. Rare-Bits of Humor in Prose and Poetry. L. J. Carey & Co.
Hastings, Hugh. Ecclesiastical Records of the State of New York. 2 vols. Albany: State Printer.
Henderson, M. S. Three Centuries in North Oxfordshire. Oxford: B. H. Blackwell; London: Edward Arnold.
Hertwig, Richard. A Manual of Zoölogy. (Translated by J. S. Kingsley.) H. Holt & Co. $3.
Hill, F. P., and Collins, V. L. Books, Pamphlets, and Newspapers Printed at Newark, New Jersey. Newark: Privately printed.
Jackson, Birdsall. Pipe Dreams and Twilight Tales. F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.
Jewish Encyclopædia. Vol. iii. Edited by Isidore Singer. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
John Crerar Library: A List of Bibliographies of Special Subjects. Chicago: The Crerar Library.
Kemp, E. W. History for Graded and District Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Lamb, Charles. The Adventures of Ulysses. (Illustrated edition.) R. H. Russell. $2.50.
Landor, A. H. S. Across Coveted Lands; or, A Journey from Flushing (Holland) to Calcutta, Overland. 2 vols. Scribners.
Lee, Joseph. Constructive and Preventive Philanthropy. Macmillan.
Lodge, G. C. Poems. Cameron, Blake & Co.
McCullough, J. A. Comparative Theology. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Memorial of the Most Reverend Michael Augustine Corrigan, D.D., Third Archbishop of New York. The Cathdral Library Association.
Miers, H. A. Mineralogy: An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Minerals. Macmillan. $8.
Milburn, Lucy M. Lost Letters from Lesbos. Chicago: R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co.
Moore, C. H. Horace, the Odes, Epodes, and Carmen Sæculare. American Book Co. $1.50.
Morris, William. The History of Over Sea. With decorations by Louis Rhead. R. H. Russell.
Munro, D. C. A History of the Middle Ages. D. Appleton & Co. 90 cents.
Peel, George. The Enemies of England. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Piñeyro, Enrique. Hombres y Glorias de America. Paris: Garnier Hermanos.
Rankin, Jean S. Everyday English, Book One. Educational Pub. Co.
Reinach, Théodore. L'Histoire par les Monnaies: Essais de Numismatique Ancienne. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Robertson, L. A. Cloistral Strains. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. 75 cts.
Sachs, E. O. Facts on Fire Prevention: The Result of Tests Conducted by the British Fire Prevention Committee. 2 vols. London: B. T. Batsford.
Songs of the Veld, and Other Poems. Reprinted from "The New Age." London: New Age Press.
Stockham, Alice B. The Lover's World. Chicago: The Stockham Pub. Co. $2.25.
Thayer, S. H. Songs from Edgewood. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
True, H. L. The Cause of the Glacial Period. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $1.
Ware, F. M. First-Hand Bits of Stable-Lore. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Waterhouse, A. J. Lays for Little Chaps. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.
Watson, William. Selected Poems. John Lane.
Weeks-Shaw, Clara. A Text-Book of Nursing. New ed. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Weston, J. L. The Three Days' Tournament: A Study in Romance and Folk-Lore. London: David Nutt. 2s.
Wheeler, Catherine. Bright Little Poems for Bright Little People. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co.
Wilcox, Ella W. The Heart of the New Thought. Chicago: The Psychic Research Co.
Wildes, H. H. Animal Classification. Henry Holt & Co.
Wilson, D. M. Where American Independence Began. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Winfield, Arthur M. Larry Bartow's Ambition. Akron: The Saalfield Publishing Co. $1.

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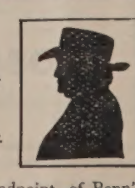

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The Week.

President Roosevelt rings true again in the matter of the post-office at Indianola, Miss. The office in this place was in charge of an excellent colored woman who had filled it for a number of years, always with complete satisfaction to the Post-office Department and to the neighborhood she served. Originally appointed by President Harrison, she was reappointed by President McKinley nearly six years ago. Her character and standing are of the best, but of late the rowdy white element in the community, whose Anglo-Saxon chivalry towards her sex is reserved for white women exclusively, has tried to drive her out of office simply because of her color. The just punishment of the town is the closing of the office. The prosecution of the offenders belongs, under the circumstances, to the community, and the President's action is a proper bringing to bear of pressure to that end. Southern regeneration from lynching must come from the South itself; but the Federal Government should not withhold its moral influence when its own officers are threatened. Meantime, as was foreshadowed, the President has sent in Dr. Crum's nomination for the Charleston collectorship.

Whatever else may be said of Senator Hoar's Anti-Trust bill, it may be confidently affirmed that it is not a measure which will become law at this session of Congress. It is a long and intricate bill, which it would be the easiest thing in the world to talk out in the Senate, even if the chairman of the House Judiciary Committee were not strongly opposed to it, as he explicitly announces that he is, and even if the President were not disinclined to let Mr. Hoar steal his thunder. He has notified the country through the press that the Administration's measure is something apart from the Massachusetts Senator's.

A mass meeting was held last week in Faneuil Hall to urge upon Congress the imperative necessity of an immediate repeal of the duties upon beef and coal. The gathering was interesting principally on account of the prominent Republicans who had some part in the proceedings. Of course Mr. Foss was present, and advocated, as "a Republican and a protectionist," free iron, free coal, free hides, and Canadian reciprocity. Then the Rev. Edward A. Horton, speaking as "a Republican and a minister," denounced the tariff on coal and beef as "a disgrace to Christian rules of brotherhood and humanity." This, we suppose, will merely convince the protectionists that clergymen should keep out of politics. Only an unworldly and unpractical visionary would ever have supposed that the tariff had anything to do with brotherhood and humanity; it is, of course, purely "a business question." And finally, Congressman McCall sent a long letter, in which he denounced the duty on coal as "a miserable device of men" to deprive Canada and the United States "of a choice gift which Providence has bestowed upon them," and declared that we are attempting "by artificial contrivances to nullify the benevolent decrees of nature." If this be not the rankest free-trade doctrine that ever came from the pen of a New England Congressman, we should like to know where a better specimen can be found—for we should be glad to read it. But then, McCall always was a hopeless case. He actually believes that the wretched Filipinos have rights which the Anglo-Saxon is bound to respect, and does not hesitate to say so. Such a man would be drawn, naturally enough, into a movement to secure some recognition of the rights of those Americans who are so unfortunate as to have to buy either coal or meat.

The New Year is full of promise for the new Republic of Cuba. It finds President Palma in a stronger position than ever, owing to his firmness in putting down the Havana strike. The feeling in the Cuban Congress towards him is friendlier, and he has gained a number of supporters, despite the fact that he was forced to remove the Mayor of Havana, who did his best, it appears, to foment the strike. As a whole, the island seems to be far more orderly, particularly in the interior, than when under Gen. Wood—a circumstance that makes the refusal of the President to withdraw the last of the American troops the more regrettable. The Republic is now collecting more revenue and expending less than did Gen. Wood's government. The sugar-planting season has begun earlier than usual, and the tobacco crop bids fair to be one of the largest in the history of the island. If the reciprocity treaty should be passed at an early date, the Cubans would undoubtedly look forward to one of the most prosperous and happy years in their history.

Extracts from the annual reports of Gov. Taft and the Philippine Commission, published on Monday, give so gloomy a view of the condition of the Filipinos as to warrant all Imperialist editors in burying them as deeply as possible in the inside pages of their newspapers. Nothing said by the "pessimistic" anti-Imperialists, incredulous of the ability of the United States to administer colonies better than any other nation, can surpass the blackness of these official reports. Wasted by war and misgovernment, the islands are really in a shocking condition, many of the inhabitants being kept alive only by food supplies purchased by the Commission with the insular revenues. A locust invasion; the loss, through war and disease, of the water buffaloes upon which the rice culture is dependent; the cholera and the plague; brigandage; the pecuniary losses because of the silver standard—these are some of the reasons assigned by Gov. Taft for taking a gloomy view of the future of the islands. If the buffaloes are not speedily replaced by importations from other countries, agriculture will continue to be at a standstill. Under these circumstances brigandage flourishes, so that Gov. Taft foresees the necessity of calling upon the military for aid in certain districts, although the constabulary has thus far been able to cope in a measure with this evil. He reports that, "as the conditions grow worse—for they are likely to do so before they grow better—it will be necessary in a province like Cavité, where ladronism seems inbred in the people, to proclaim martial law, and even to call in the military finally to suppress it; but it is still hoped that it may be avoided." The only encouraging statement in Gov. Taft's message is the fact that, "since the Fourth of July last, not a shot has been fired by an American soldier." For this we may all give thanks. Gov. Taft pays a high compliment to the natural orderliness of the Filipinos by expressing his surprise at the slight disturbances in view of the terribly depressed financial condition of the islands.

By his usual methods, Addicks has secured one more supporter in the Delaware Legislature. There seems to be some little dispute whether voters in the Kent County district, where a special election was held on December 31, received $50 or only $20 each for their ballots, but nobody denies that the vote-buying by the supporters of Addicks was open and general. As a result, the Addicks man won by a majority of 192, in a district where the result in November was a tie, and where the total vote is only 800. Though he gains an additional vote in the Legislature, Addicks will hardly profit by this flagrant exposure of his corrupt practices. His strength on joint ballot will now be 23 instead of 22, but the number of votes necessary to a choice has also been increased by one as a result of filling the vacant Kent County seat. The Delaware corruptionist

is therefore no nearer an election than before, and the opposition to him must be strengthened by these latest outrages. There is nothing to indicate that a single one of the anti-Addicks Republicans in the Legislature will give way.

After weeks of agonized silence, the *Tribune* has at last found its voice about Platt—but what a voice! It says he "will be Senator," and will also be "an adviser in State affairs," thus continuing a state of things which has, it says, been "an advantage to the State." So this is what Dr. Theodore Cuyler and the other Republican clergymen and college professors and men of light and leading, who are indignant at Platt's disgraceful domination of the party, get from the old organ of decent Republicanism. They have not forgotten, if the *Tribune* has, its open charge that Platt was a corruptionist, and its bold challenge to him to sue it for libel if he dared. On April 12, 1895, it said: "The information was conveyed to us direct from Mr. Platt that . . . if we had any regard whatever for Mr. Whitelaw Reid's character, reputation, present welfare, or future prosperity, we would [should] do well to refrain from any further reference to Mr. Platt's practice of disbursing the money of the Republican State Committee by his own check and without accounting." The *Tribune* defied him then, and for many a day thereafter, pointedly observing that the boss's friends "have not yet persuaded Mr. Platt to begin a suit for libel." Its columns would furnish many more delightful excerpts in support of its sudden discovery that Platt is "an advantage to the State."

The figures given out by the Comptroller at Albany, showing the condition of the State's finances, are for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1902. They show the effect of the legislation of 1901, but not to any considerable extent that of 1902. The increase of revenue from the taxation of corporations is notable, the total for the year being $6,226,183, as compared with $4,966,680 for the previous year, an increase of $1,259,503. The fact that $380,567 was collected in organization fees from corporations forming under the laws of this State, as compared with $295,091, indicates that some advance, at least, has been made in the effort to induce new companies to incorporate here rather than in New Jersey, West Virginia, and elsewhere. The rate of the organization tax was reduced by the Legislature of 1901 from one-eighth of 1 per cent. to one-twentieth of 1 per cent. of the authorized capital stock. Of the total receipts of the State ($23,660,775), the amount from indirect sources was $16,051,353, about $7,000,000 less than the expenditures. This was the highest point yet attained for indirect revenues, but will doubtless be somewhat, though not largely, increased for the year ending September 30, 1903. Legislation proposed in 1902 for the purpose of increasing these revenues failed of enactment, notably the proposed tax on foreign corporations and the proposed recording tax on mortgages. The gap shown in the Comptroller's figures between the indirect revenues and the expenditures, therefore, indicates about what the deficit for this year will be. Last year the difference was made up by a direct tax; this year it will be made up from the surplus. The figures just made public clearly indicate why the session of the Legislature this winter must be largely occupied in devising new sources of indirect revenues if the Governor's policy of permanently abolishing the direct tax is to prevail.

Superintendent Kilburn of the State Banking Department directs attention to the tendency of trust companies to attract savings deposits to themselves, and he considers this an element of danger in times of financial disturbance. Deposits of savings banks, as he points out, are of two kinds, or rather they come from two classes in the community. One portion consists of the savings of wage workers and other persons of small means. The other consists of surplus funds of the well-to-do classes, and even of those who may be ranked as capitalists. The latter avail themselves of the facilities offered by savings banks to distribute their investments. Thus, a man or woman of large means may have deposits of $3,000 each in half a dozen savings banks. Although savings banks are not designed for this class of depositors, there is no way to prevent them from making such deposits, nor does any visible harm arise from it, unless it be the lowering of the rate of interest from the competition of capital. But the competition of capital in the loan market would not be prevented by excluding this class of depositors from savings banks; it would merely take other forms. Quite different is the danger which arises from the accumulation of savings deposits in trust companies. The danger ensues from the character of the savings depositor, who is most commonly inclined to give ear to rumors of bank disaster and to panic generally. The savings bank is empowered by law to require thirty or sixty days' notice of an intention to withdraw deposits. It is thus enabled to curb an unreasoning panic. The trust company must pay its deposits on demand, and accordingly it is destitute of the power, which the savings bank holds and exercises in cases of necessity, to check a panic. All that the Superintendent says is quite true, but the only remedy for the case lies in moral suasion—in warning the trust company not to take savings deposits and to the savings depositor to put his money in the savings bank rather than in the trust company.

About one in ten of the non-union workers in New York State joined the union ranks during the past year, as appears from an inspection of the figures submitted by the State Labor Commissioner. Such a rate of growth would need to be continued for only a few years to give the walking delegates practical control of the labor market in this State. Fortunately for those who employ labor, and for the workers themselves, this rate of increase is not likely to continue. The growing arrogance of the unions may be expected to deter self-respecting applicants for membership, and will surely stretch to the breaking-point the patience of employers. It is a warrantable conclusion that, but for its extreme views, union membership would be larger in industrial New York. In Minnesota, for instance, it is a little over 48 per cent. of those engaged in manufacturing industries and the small trades, as compared with only about 39 per cent. in this State. This showing in New York ought to encourage a disposition to resist the extravagant demands of the unions. Politicians may learn from it, too, that a majority of the workers are opposed to union tyranny, and are not to be delivered at the polls by labor leaders.

Gen. Greene has made an effective start in his new office of Police Commissioner by suspending without pay the captains and inspectors against whom there are charges pending. He has also terminated the influence of Inspector Cross, whose prominence hitherto has been a disgrace to the Administration, by making Inspector Brooks commander of Manhattan and the Bronx. Still another admirable move is his placing Inspector Cortright at the head of the entire force as chief inspector, in accordance with the recommendation of the Philbin Commission. Gen. Greene's second day in office was marked by as striking and important reforms as was his first. He remanded all the wardmen to patrol duty. At last we have a Police Commissioner who recognizes a state of affairs which is simply notorious. Gen. Greene does not hesitate to say that there is blackmailing, and that the wardmen have done a lot of the collecting. There is thus no procrastination, no waiting for "evidence" with a promise to act after careful, legal investigation. Gen. Greene's next step should be the remanding to patrol duty of the roundsmen and sergeants now attached to the staffs of the inspectors, and the reorganization of the Detective Bureau. Gen. Greene took still another excellent step in coming out strongly for a police-signal system. On the question of the liquor-law enforcement, Gen. Greene was

forced to keep silent when interviewed. He should ask himself whether the existence of so much blackmailing among the police is not in large measure due to the Administration's attitude towards enforcement.

Another outrage is about to be added to the dismal annals of monetary crimes. The Mexican Ambassador to the United States has confirmed the report that his country "is examining the question of changing to the gold standard," and it appears that some preliminary steps have already been taken in this direction. This will be sad news to the friends of silver who had looked forward to the complete rehabilitation of their favorite idol, and had believed that Mexico would never "dishonor" one of its greatest staple products and reduce silver to the position of a mere commodity, such as pork, or grain, or iron. And the worst of it is that the blow has been struck so soon after Mr. Bryan had journeyed to Mexico to study the currency problem, and to prevent, if possible, the perpetration of such an outrage. And yet, one who is able to master his sympathy for the sad fate of poor, abandoned silver can manage to take a cheerful view of the situation. Of all the countries that have remained upon a silver standard, Mexico is our best customer. In 1901 our total trade with our Southern neighbor was estimated at $65,326,000, which was more than twice the value of our trade with such a country as China. From our own point of view, it will be highly advantageous to have commercial intercourse with Mexico freed from the embarrassment caused by a fluctuating silver currency.

Wireless telegraphy threatens to remove the last resort for the nervous—the ocean steamship. Certain liners, it is announced, will not only maintain constant communication with the shore, but will issue a newspaper every day for the use of passengers. This will bring into shipboard life everything that the newspaper means. The stock ticker will compete with the mild merriment of the smoking room, branches of the famous houses of X——, Y——, and Z——, bankers and brokers, will displace the comparatively innocuous professional gambler, the latest odds on the races will be posted near the shuffle-board, a pool-room will attract those who would naturally have shone in the purser's gymkana; and the gossip of London, Paris, and New York will sustain seasick members of the gentler sex whom mild shipboard scandals leave comfortless. In fine, Mr. Marconi's invention seems likely to destroy that sense of community on shipboard by which people of diverse tastes, being forced to waive their work-a-day interests, meet upon a basis of pure sociability. Much of the glory and all of the restfulness of a sea voyage will have departed—except for those who have the time and courage to take sailing vessels, or, being millionaires, can afford to keep their steam yachts unprovided with the latest invention.

Why the Conservatives have lost fifteen hundred votes and a bye-election in the sporting constituency of Newmarket, it would be difficult to say. Presumably, the jockeys and trainers who worked for Mr. C. D. Rose, a well-known yachtsman, did not make their appeal primarily to the Nonconformist conscience. Perhaps the Government's failure to "witch the world with noble horsemanship" in the purchase of army remounts may have been cited with damaging effect by good Liberals who were also convinced horsemen. Mr. Gibson Bowles has recently caused some amusement by catching the Foreign Secretary in a mistranslation of French, and one may imagine the Liberal orators of Newmarket adopting Mr. Bowles's heckling methods, and saying of Mr. Brodrick's knowledge of horseflesh, "'e don't know 'is 'ead from 'is 'ock." Arguments like this would have distinct political value in the Newmarket constituency. But, however special the causes of the Newmarket defeat may be, there is now a sufficient record of Unionist disaster in constituencies as various as those of Kent, Yorkshire, and Lancashire to show that the Government has worn out the patience of many of its supporters. This conviction that something is amiss with the Ministry is politically quite as damaging as a more reasoned opposition.

Germany's rupture with England is now complete—poetically speaking. Wildenbruch has handed Kipling his passports. Never again shall the English poet's name be heard in Germany, announces, in true dithyrambic spirit, the favorite bard of the Hohenzollerns. Kipling is only the uncrowned—the unlaurelled—official poet of Great Britain, but Wildenbruch is court meistersinger in Berlin. The Kaiser openly praises and patronizes him, and apparently would like to make it *Majestätsbeleidigung* not to go to his stupid mediæval plays. Certainly the German people have shown that nothing but the threat of prosecution for high treason can drive them to a Wildenbruch drama. However, this poet's retort to Kipling's ode on the Goth and the shameless Hun is evidently something more than a display of courtier zeal. It is a kind of poetical mailed fist shaken across the Channel. Germany wants the English to understand that she can give as good as she gets in the way of poetical billingsgate.

The Emperor Francis Joseph reverses the usual process—instead of making his Ministers resign, he himself threatens to abdicate. The manœuvre is reported to have brought the Prime Ministers of Austria and Hungary to terms: they have agreed to prolong the *Ausgleich*, which fixes the financial relations of the two kingdoms. Whether the respective Parliaments at Vienna and Buda Pesth will be equally complacent remains to be seen. The question will occur to every one, however—If the mere threat of abdicating produces such consternation, what will happen when the Emperor dies? That is an event which, in the course of nature, cannot be long deferred, and no conundrum is harder to answer than what will then take place in the Austrian Empire. Of course, there are all sorts of rough-and-ready breakups and partitions suggested—Hungary to set up for herself, Bohemia to be a separate kingdom, the German provinces to gravitate towards Berlin, and so forth—but not one of them fails to create more formidable difficulties than it surmounts. It is possible that Europe may be so convinced of the soundness of Talleyrand's saying, "If Austria did not exist, it would be necessary to invent her," that all hands may join to preserve the *status quo* even after the puissant Emperor is gone. Yet the problem of Austria's housekeeping is clearly growing more acute with every year.

The late Señor Sagasta was probably quite as much politician as statesman. He was the War Minister of Gen. Prim, and the prop of the Bourbon dynasty during the Cuban war. His peculiar and personal form of Liberalism stood for very few political ideas, although within the present year he fearlessly enforced the laws against the religious orders. But he will probably be remembered less for his varied activities as engineer, journalist, and party leader, than for that strange chance which brought him to power on the eve of the Spanish-American war. At that time he showed himself a statesman. He accepted an inheritance of disaster with patient hopefulness; did everything to restore peace to Cuba, to quiet Spanish indignation, and to meet the ever more pressing demands of the United States. That he deserved to succeed, and that the final declaration of war was the result of the *Maine* horror, and of needless vacillation at Washington, will undoubtedly be the verdict of history. Powerless to prevent the humiliation of Spain through the loss of her colonies, he saved her from internal anarchy, and at the last appeared to turn disaster on the two oceans to the profit of the home country; thwarting personal ambitions that threatened the state, and placing the crown securely upon the head of a boy king. In the last five years of his life he showed that peculiar fortitude which any statesman must have who leads back to political health a prostrate nation.

COLOR AND CRIME.

We print in another column the reply of "W. H. B." to Professor DuBois's criticism of his misuse of the census. On examination it will be found that he has compared the figures for the entire colored population, male and female, negro, Chinese, Japanese, and Indian, with the figures for the negro male criminals. The error in this respect is of no great practical importance, except as emphasizing how perfunctory was the statistical inquiry upon which "W. H. B." assumed to base an argument against the education of nine million of his fellow-countrymen. The radical blunder which he made is, however, due to his not having taken the trouble to find out what the Census Office means by an illiterate. He supposes that the word as used in the census reports implies a person who can neither read *nor* write, when, in fact, it means a person who cannot read *and* write. He found that the census report stated that 56.76 per cent. of the colored population were illiterate. He turned to another census volume and found it there stated that 54.13 per cent. of the negro male criminals can neither read nor write. Without more ado, he felt himself justified in asserting that, in proportion to their numbers, the "educated negroes were more criminal than the illiterate." Had he read the few paragraphs preceding the tables of illiteracy in part two of the population statistics of the census of 1890, he would have found a precise definition of the term illiterate as used in those reports.

In his first letter to this journal, "W. H. B." asserted that, proportionally, the negro rate of criminality was higher in the Northern than in the Southern States. There is no question that the census reports for 1890 do show that, on June 1, 1890, there were, in proportion to the total negro population, very many more negroes confined in prison in the Northern than in the Southern States. It may be true that this fact shows that the Northern negroes are more vicious than the Southern. It is, however, by no means certain that it does. The same table shows that, on the same day, June 1, 1890, out of every million inhabitants of Massachusetts, 2,335 were prisoners, while only 531 to the million of the inhabitants of North Dakota and 590 to the million of the inhabitants of West Virginia were similarly confined. It would be a rather rash man who, on this basis, should assert that the people of Massachusetts were four times as bad as those of North Dakota or of West Virginia. Moreover, the same table shows that only 1,421 to the million of Mississippi negroes were imprisoned, while, as before stated, there were 2,335 prisoners to the million of population in Massachusetts. If "W. H. B.'s" reasoning is sound, it follows that the average Mississippi negro has fewer criminal propensities than has the average resident of Massachusetts, black or white. It will be also rather hard to explain why it is that, while, to every million of Mississippi negroes, there were only 1,421 prisoners, there were 3,086 to the million in Alabama, and 3,022 in Georgia. The fact is, that the methods of administering criminal justice and the provision of reformatories, jails, and penitentiaries differ so widely in the different States, that any comparison between the criminal statistics of the different sections of the country based merely on the number of people in each of them who are in prison on a particular day, are absolutely worthless. There is, of course, no doubt whatever that, in proportion to population, more negroes than whites are convicted of crime. There can be little question that more negroes than whites commit crime. It is practically certain, however, that the difference in the criminal propensities of the two races is exaggerated rather than represented by the statistics of convictions, and would be exaggerated rather than represented by those statistics even if they were always accurately compiled, and compiled in such a way as to make comparisons more practical and easy than they now are.

It is not probable that many innocent negroes are convicted of offences which they did not commit. Such convictions sometimes take place, as they sometimes take place in the case of innocent white men. They probably take place somewhat more frequently among negroes than among whites, and this for two reasons. In the first place, the negroes as a class are poor and without influential friends. The innocent white men who are convicted of crimes they did not commit, are almost always poor and without influential friends. There being relatively more negroes than whites who are in that unfortunate condition, the chances of an innocent negro being convicted are greater than of an innocent white man. Secondly, the factor of race prejudice in this and other matters cannot be ignored. It is not that a white jury ever deliberately convicts a negro of an offence which they do not believe he committed, but it is because, unconsciously to themselves, very much less evidence will satisfy an ordinary white jury that a negro has committed a crime than is required to convince them that a white man has done the same thing. In short, their state of mind is very like that of "W. H. B." He would never have made the assertion that education made white men criminals unless his study of the subject had been so complete and thorough as to leave in his mind no room for a possibility of doubt that he is right. A mere hasty glance at a couple of tables was quite sufficient to satisfy him that education did tend to turn negroes into criminals.

Then, many times white men commit crimes for which they are not convicted, or, if convicted, are sentenced to lighter terms than are imposed upon negroes for similar offences. A very small proportion of the white men in this country, North or South, who commit a premeditated murder, are capitally punished for the offence. In some portions of the country, such, for example, as the mountain regions of Kentucky, any punishment for such offences is relatively rare. It is probable that the greater number of negroes who are guilty are punished, and not infrequently to the full extent of the law.

No one who has had any experience with the practical administration of criminal justice, can doubt that people who have influential connections, of one kind or another, are less frequently and less severely punished for crimes committed by them than are those people who have no such connections. It is not merely or chiefly what may be called a clearly illegitimate exercise of political or personal "pull" that produces this difference. The causes are more diverse and more subtle. A young man commits an offence, perhaps a serious one. He or his people have friends of respectability and more or less influence. These friends see the prosecuting witnesses, and press strongly upon them the possibility that, if this offence be overlooked, a worthy citizen may be saved to the community and the family spared permanent disgrace. In very many instances considerations like these prevent any prosecution at all. Even after the prosecution is begun, similar representations to prosecuting officers often lead to an entry of a *stet* or a *nolle prosequi*.

Often this failure to prosecute or to carry on the prosecution to the point of trial is not only merciful but wise. It still remains true, however, that such wisdom and mercy are very much more likely to be displayed in the case of those who have intelligent and influential friends to speak for them than in the case of the poor and friendless. When a criminal case is brought to trial, the offender who has money enough to procure good counsel, or who has friends enough in the community to create more or less sympathy for him, stands a very much better chance of escaping conviction, though guilty, than do those unfortunate members of the community who, though no more guilty, have no such assistance rendered them. The extreme poverty of the negroes as a class compels those of them who live in cities especially, to leave their children at a very early age practically without parental supervision or control. When, as is common, both mother and father are out at domestic service, or at other employment which takes them from their homes for long hours together, the children from a very early age are left to their own resources.

After all such allowances are made, it

is not improbable, however, that there is a greater tendency to crime in the American negro of to-day than in the American white man; but the difference is much less than the statistics of conviction of crime would indicate to be the case.

WORK FOR A REAL "WORLD-POWER."

We had so fondly hoped, because we had been so loudly told, that the United States became a "world-Power" when it whipped enfeebled Spain, that we can but rub our eyes to find Europeans saying that we have only now attained that dignity. And, perversely enough, they acribe it to our having, not gone to war with some one half our size and smashed a fleet, but having kept the peace! It is the firm and successful stand of this country for arbitrating the Venezuelan dispute which makes us thought of with more respect than ever in those very lands where the heart of military glory was long ago plucked out, to use Rosebery's phrase. The French dispatches speak of the great admiration felt everywhere on the Continent for President Roosevelt as a peacemaker. It is our exaltation of peace which has heightened our prestige, and our success in causing arms to yield to the august verdict of the Hague Arbitration Tribunal which has made us bulk larger in the eyes of the world.

We should not let this Venezuelan incident, which we have made a national triumph, swim from our ken before we have read in it the moral that lies writ there for all who have eyes to see. This renowned victory of peace has been won on principles which are a standing refutation of what we have been doing elsewhere for four years past. In Venezuela we have done what we said could not be done in the Philippines. In behalf of aliens we have dared greatly, and have encountered risks which we said could not be faced in behalf of our own subjects. One has only to recall the two main reasons given for our course in the Philippines to see that they applied with equal force to Venezuela. If they could safely be disregarded in the latter case, so they could in the former.

These two reasons were (1) that if we should withdraw from the Philippines the rapacious Powers would pounce upon them; and (2) that, but for the presence of our flag, the islands would fall into "anarchy," and the United States could never be responsible for an anarchist government. Who does not remember the awful pictures drawn of the navies of Europe speeding to the prey in case they once saw us leave the archipelago? Why, the land-grabbing Powers were only waiting for the signal! Each of them had its favorite island picked out in advance—Japan had her eye on Mindanao, Germany would never be happy till she got Cebu, England would, of course, slip over in the night from Hong-Kong and annex Luzon. Among so many islands, there would be something for every one; and our alarmed Imperialists saw them already parcelled out. The European nations simply could not resist the chance to take good land away from the weak Filipinos. Hence how clear our duty, having taken it ourselves, to follow the good old rule of conquerors, and say with Charles XII., "The Lord has given and the Devil shall not take away."

Well, gentle Imperialist, do you not see now the significance of what has happened in Venezuela? There you had your weak and defenceless country. It was like a tethered lamb before the lion and the eagle. But did they rush upon it? No; the United States told them they must not, and they did not. Ah, but that was the Monroe Doctrine! Let us, however, clear our minds even of Monroe cant. The Monroe Doctrine is, in the last analysis, nothing but our wish and will. It has no standing in international law. It is simply *Sic volo, sic jubeo.* And we could just as successfully will and command in the case of the Philippines as in the instance of Venezuela. Of course, we said at the time that we could not. Our leading Jingoes among the prophets assured us that an American protectorate over the Filipinos was impossible. A predatory world would not respect it. But we could make it, in the East as well as the West. The Monroe Doctrine is elastic enough, we'll be bound, to stretch across the Pacific in case of need.

Then there was our dread of Philippine "anarchy." Venezuelan anarchy, however, we have shown ourselves perfectly ready to stomach. If any chaotic government ever had a name to live anywhere, it has existed for nearly a century on the shores of the Orinoco, if Venezuelan historians have written their own annals true. "Mean and bloody" has that history been, as President Roosevelt has said. From Blanco to Crespo, at least, the Venezuelan Government has been in the hands of an ever-changing oligarchy of adventurers and usurpers and tyrants. It is precisely because of rampant anarchy in Venezuela that Great Britain and Germany proposed to interfere. But we, to whom an imagined Philippine anarchy was a nightmare, stood up for the actual Venezuelan anarchists like brothers beloved, and maintained that, as Mr. Roosevelt has said, it was infinitely better that they should be left to develop along their own lines than be interfered with by an alien Power.

We will not labor the point. Were not the art of contradiction as glorious in power to-day as it was in the time of Socrates and Glaucon, we should expect all reasonable Americans to agree that what we have done in Venezuela—and, we may add, in Cuba—we could have done in the Philippines. We assert, for our part, that it is a work we yet ought to undertake. To cry "Hands off!" for a feeble folk in the isles of the Pacific; to give their strong national sentiment an opportunity to expand in conformity to its own type; to place them under the ægis of the American republic and the Hague Tribunal—there you have work right worthy of a real world-Power.

THE PHILIPPINE CURRENCY BILL.

Just before the holiday adjournment of Congress, Senator Lodge reported from the Committee on the Philippines a bill (S. 6357) to regulate the currency of the islands. It provides, first, that the gold peso, equal to a half dollar of our money, shall be the unit of value, but does not provide for any gold coinage. Instead of that, it makes the gold coins of the United States legal tender in the Philippines at the rate of one dollar for two pesos. Next, it provides for a silver peso of full legal tender, to be coined from bullion bought by the Government, and of which the Government must coin twenty millions, and may coin seventy-five millions. Thirdly, it provides for subsidiary silver coins to be legal tender for ten dollars.

The effect of this measure is to establish in the Philippines what is called the "limping standard"—a phrase applied to countries which have the gold standard nominally, but also have a large amount of silver of full legal tender. Germany, France, and the countries of the Latin Union are in this category. The United States is in the same category. None of the countries named consider the condition a happy one. The European nations took the limping standard because they could not help themselves. They caught it, as people catch the measles. They had large amounts of silver in circulation in the early seventies, when the gold standard asserted itself over the civilized world, and they could not get rid of it. Germany made great efforts to sell hers, and did dispose of a part of it. In doing so she broke the price of the metal so that when the Latin Union countries decided to stop coining silver, they had no market on which to sell theirs. The United States is the only country which took this kind of measles voluntarily. We took it with our politics, but no political party is very proud of it now; nor shall we have any reason to be proud if, after our experience with it and our knowledge of it in other lands, we inflict it upon a people who are under our legislative control.

The great objection to the limping standard is its uncertainty. Those who are under its régime never know where they may stand a year hence. A bill is now pending in Congress to remove the

uncertainty which the limping standard entails—a bill to provide for the redemption of the silver dollar in gold. The act of March 14, 1900, recognized the uncertainty by a clause requiring the Secretary of the Treasury to keep the silver dollar at par with the gold dollar, but did not provide him with any means to do so. Senate bill 6357 recognizes the same uncertainty attaching to this system in the Philippines, by authorizing the Government of the islands to adopt such measures as it may deem proper to maintain parity between the gold and silver coins, and to borrow ten million dollars gold for that purpose. This clause of the bill expresses the fear of its framers that the equilibrium of the standard will not be maintained without extraneous and extraordinary efforts.

Looking at the details of the bill, it is very doubtful whether parity can be maintained if the Government of the Philippines exercises all the powers conferred upon it. It must coin twenty million, and it may coin seventy-five million silver pesos of full legal tender, at the ratio of 32 to 1, while the market ratio of silver to gold is 43 to 1. The line of prudence and safety under the limping standard lies in keeping the amount of the overvalued money (the silver pesos) no greater than the retail trade of the country can absorb, but the temptation will be ever present to overpass the limit. We know how this is ourselves. Unless the Philippine Government is wiser than the Washington Government was, we may expect to see the limit overpassed as it was under the Sherman act.

In devising a new monetary system for the Philippines, the simplest plan is the best. The gold standard, as provided in the bill before us, with a silver subdiary coinage of the kind provided in the act passed by Congress last year, is quite sufficient. There is no good reason for thrusting in a third kind of money, whose sole virtue will consist in its redemption in gold. These pesos would be both an element of danger and a needless expense. As the bill provides for issuing paper certificates for them like our silver certificates, why not issue the certificates in the first instance? The pesos are to circulate on the credit of the Government, not on their intrinsic value. Our silver certificates would circulate just as well, perhaps better, if there was not a dollar of silver behind them. If the Filipinos prefer to handle silver rather than paper, give them plenty of half pesos, which the bill also provides for. The natives probably know that two halves are equal to a whole one.

As the pesos are quite unnecessary, the only visible object in coining them is to make a market for silver bullion. We trust that the Senate Committee is not now trying to "do something for silver" at the expense of the Filipinos, but we recall the fact that the Senate bill of the last session did have that aim, since it contained a clause that the coins might be made at our mint, but that the silver bullion so coined should be of American production.

We are told by some people that if we introduce the single gold standard we shall increase the wages of labor in the islands. That depends upon the ratio between gold and silver which may be taken as a starting-point. Wages in the Philippines, although nominally the same as of old, have been actually reduced by the decline in the value of silver. The laborer who gets a peso in wages, cannot buy so much with it as before. As regards future wages, the question is, What shall the future peso be? The bill says it shall be an amount of gold equal to half of an American dollar. That is the ratio of 32 to 1. It is a fair starting-point, since it was the market ratio when we took the islands. It was the ratio actually adopted by Japan in the same year. There has been a fresh drop in silver within a few weeks, which has cut the effective wages of labor still lower. The Filipino laborer has been thrown down by the force of circumstances, and Congress ought not to hold him down, but rather to lift him up and put him on his feet, especially since Congress neglected its duty in this particular, last summer, when it might have avoided the major part of this trouble.

THE ARTS OF THE EAST.

Lord Curzon, addressing an audience of native princes at the opening of the Indian Arts Exhibition at Delhi, urged these leaders of Indian opinion to stand by their own beautiful art. He deplored the tendency to adopt European fashions of furnishing merely because they are European, and showed that the future of the finer industries of India depends upon the presence of a body of intelligent patrons who will hold artist and craftsman to their best. An amusing sequel of this speech is the protest of the Tottenham Court Road furniture dealers, who blame Lord Curzon for discouraging the furniture trade with India, and convict him of purchasing in quantity the English fittings which he bids the princes of India eschew. But the furniture dealers of Tottenham Court Road will hardly be accepted as referees of the questions—Is it desirable to preserve the arts of the East? and, What are the conditions of their preservation?

When Théophile Gautier said that no Western nation could make a carved saddle, he caught a striking symbol for the arts of the East. These arts are, first of all, applied to the ordinary uses of life—the rug for prayer, the tent, the saddle cloth, the enamelled lantern, the tiles on the floor, the pottery for household uses, the brass or bronze utensils of ordinary service. These are the characteristic products of Asiatic art. These things have become the marvel of art lovers throughout the world, through a peculiar skill of which Western workmen have lost the tradition. The cumulative habits of a thousand years alone make possible the certainty of the Japanese ivory-cutter's knife; the peasant rug-maker of Persia and Asia Minor has a knowledge of color effects more subtle and correct than that of our greatest painters. In every branch of art, immemorial training has perfected the work of brain, and hand, and eye, so that in comparison with, say, a scrap of a Persian tile, our best pottery seems tentative and amateurish. It is this accumulated knowledge of beautiful ways of doing things that Lord Curzon begged the Indian vassals of England to cherish.

The future historian of Eastern culture will have a somewhat melancholy chapter to write on the decline and fall of Oriental art. He will show how the Western nations, among whom machine work had destroyed handicraft, filled the East with Brummagem manufactures. He will explain how the West dealt the East a still more crippling blow by requiring of the Eastern artist the work of the Western machine. The people of the nineteenth century, he will say, asked of China, Japan, India, Persia, Asia Minor, not their best, but their worst—anything, so it bore the tag Oriental. Under this foolish demand, he will explain, the art of rug-making virtually disappeared from the Asian villages, while the potteries of Japan gave themselves to caricatures, "for export," of their older and finer products, and Japanese painters cast away the beautiful linear symbolism to the perfecting of which centuries had gone, and gave themselves to meaningless imitation of the painting of Paris.

A very few years will decide the fate of the apparently moribund arts of the East. Unquestionably, machine-made products will there, as elsewhere, increasingly replace the direct work of the artist's hand. Does this mean that beautiful handicraft is to perish out of the East as utterly as it has done out of the West? Lord Curzon thinks he sees a remedy in the revival of national spirit and taste in the East itself. And, clearly, the redemption of Eastern art must come in this way, or not at all. The artist artisan does his best only for the patron of his race, from whom he may count upon complete appreciation. The patronage of foreign connoisseurs is, on the whole, demoralizing to the craftsman. He distrusts their knowledge, and scamps his work for them—as a glance at the French painting made expressly for the American market will prove. The real danger to Eastern art, then, lies in the reaction of Western civilization upon

the men of wealth and station in the East. When the Indian prince becomes an Oxford man and a cricketer, he usually accepts the worst English standards—replaces his century-old rugs with Brussels carpet, and his carved teakwood with the gilt lacquer of the shops. Similarly, the Japanese has a tendency to become a vague New Yorker or Parisian. Thus he is unsettled in his own tastes, while he hardly acquires a sense for European art.

In fighting against that levelling tendency which is making the top hat the sign of gentility the world around, one is not merely tilting quixotically in behalf of the picturesque. There is a deeper principle at issue than the æsthetic preference for a turban over a derby hat—namely, that of intelligent nationalism. If the brown and yellow men of the East consent to be made over after the image of John Bull and Brother Jonathan, we shall have not only a less interesting world, but a less efficient world. No one, who realizes how much diversity of national life and thought has meant to the history of mankind, can wish to see the world peopled by Europeans and intellectual hybrids.

IS COLOR-BLINDNESS PREVENTABLE?

At a recent meeting of the British Ophthalmological Society, Dr. F. W. Edridge-Green brought forward some new facts of vital importance to the owners of railway and steamship lines, as well as to the travelling public. As a specialist on the subject of color-blindness and a member of the International Code of Signals Committee, he had pointed out, some years ago, that the Government tests for color-blindness were still insufficient, and the enforcement of regulations too lax. He predicted that if color names were ignored in the Board of Trade tests and reliance placed solely on the Holmgren system of matching colors, normal-sighted persons would be rejected; and this prediction was, he said, fulfilled. More than 38 per cent. one year, and more than 42 per cent. another year, were found to be normal-sighted and to have been wrongly rejected. He emphasized the fact that an engine-driver or sailor had to name a colored light when he saw it, and not to match it. At the same meeting Mr. C. Devereux Marshall remarked that it was most striking to find a person who could pass Holmgren's test with ease, declaring that a dull red light, which was quite visible to a normal-sighted person, did not exist at all, and that the room was quite dark. Persons with a shortened-red vision were, he added, sources of the utmost danger when placed in responsible positions, either at sea or on the railway.

It is, therefore, more than probable that the regrettable fact that 158 passengers were killed and 2,436 injured by train accidents in the United States in 1901, is related in some cases to the general reliance on the Holmgren matching system. It will be desirable to revise the system of examination in accordance with Dr. Edridge-Green's latest experiments. The small sum spent on color examinations by the best-managed companies may be regarded as a cheap form of insurance against loss of rolling-stock and damage suits.

In sailors, color-blindness is an even greater menace than on the railways, and increasingly so with the growing speed of steamers. A seaman must be able to distinguish between red and green at a distance of at least two miles. There is every reason to think that if a list could be made of all the collisions since 1852, and the lives lost in consequence of the color-blindness of sailors, it would be appalling. Since it has been found that about one man in every twenty is color-blind, it follows that wherever tests for color vision are enforced, five out of every hundred applicants must be rejected, although they may in all other respects be the best five of the hundred who apply for the job. For these, and various other reasons, it would be an obvious advantage if color-blindness could be cured or prevented. No great harm is done if an occasional clergyman or venerable Quaker orders bright green or vivid scarlet material for a gown, or if a farmer is unable to tell strawberries from the surrounding leaves except by their shape. Nor is it likely to occur very often that a cashier gives gold thinking it silver, or that a stamp seller cheats himself or others. But it is said that silk dealers have to do with about 2,000 different colors and shades, and it is likely that in this business, and many others in which colored objects are handled, much confusion, error, and loss results daily from the imperfect color sense of some employees. Æsthetically, too, there is certainly a disadvantage in seeing rainbows colorless and in missing the glories of sunsets.

In a lecture delivered before the Royal Institution of Great Britain twelve years ago, Dr. Brudenell Carter declared that the condition of color-blindness is absolutely incurable and incapable of modification by training or exercise in individual cases. This discouraging view has prevailed generally, although the interesting fact that only one or two women in a thousand have a defective color sense was known, and was generally accounted for by the fact that females, from their infancy, pay more attention than boys do to finery—fancy-work, flowers, feathers, ribbons, and gaudy dress in general. It has also been known for some time that, in the case of civilized races, color-blindness is more frequent among the poor than among the wealthy and better educated. This suggests that training has something to do with reducing the number of cases. If it were simply a question of mental evolution in general, we should find the defect specially prevalent among savages and barbarians. As a matter of fact, it is rarer among them than among civilized men. Of the Indians examined by Blake and Franklin of Kansas University, only one in a hundred was color-blind. Even if we agree with those who maintain that Indians are not æsthetically interested in flowers, trees, feathers, and the various ornaments they wear, we can but surmise that their constant ceremonial use of these things, and their need of a fine color sense as an aid in hunting and fighting, gave them their superiority to us in this respect as in regard to acuteness of vision.

Fresh evidence in confirmation of the view that color-blindness is capable of modification, or rather prevention, in individuals, is provided in the *Educational Review* by Alida S. Williams. Holding that this defect is not the result of retinal imperfections, of brain lesions, or of some mysterious freak of inheritance, but simply of insufficient color training in childhood, she recently tested this view by examining, in one of the primary schools of this city, 580 boys whose ages ranged from six to twelve years. These boys had received the careful systematic color-training now given in our public schools to children of both sexes, and the result was that, instead of the twenty-four cases of color-blindness to be expected according to the current belief, there was only one, and that one yielded to special treatment. The boys delighted in the brilliant hues placed before them, and convinced the writer that it is "not only unwise, but unkind, to starve a child's color sense." The result obtained is of value, not only with reference to the marine and railway service of the future, but as suggesting the important educational question whether there may not be other perceptive weaknesses in adults which might be prevented by the proper training of the senses in the impressionable days of childhood.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

PHILADELPHIA, December 30, 1902.

The eighteenth annual meeting of the American Historical Association was held at Philadelphia December 26-30, being the first visit of the Association to that city. The experiment of holding over a Sunday, initiated at the Washington meeting in 1901, was repeated this year. The attendance throughout was the largest yet recorded, though it seems inevitable that but a small percentage of the membership will be represented at any annual meeting. The general arrangement of the programme followed the plan observed for several years past—two joint sessions with the American Economic Association, and a business session, besides the meetings for the reading of papers. The new feature was a special

session devoted to international law, in this instance given up principally to papers concerning the Isthmus of Panama and the interoceanic-canal project. The papers submitted, while without exception interesting and valuable, were as a whole less striking than has sometimes been the case. Perhaps the extreme tardiness with which the annual reports of the Association appear, together with the increased facilities for the publication of historical writing in other directions, tends to make the annual meetings a less inviting forum for the presentation of historical work of the first importance, while the almost entire disappearance of public discussion takes from the proceedings an element of interest formerly much more in evidence.

Of the papers read, three, if one may judge by the discussion of them in social meetings of the members, aroused particular interest. Prof. J. F. Jameson of the University of Chicago, in a paper entitled "Letters from the Federal Convention of 1787," presented one of a series of studies of the Convention, in which the inner history of that remarkable body, as contained in the correspondence of the members, was somewhat more fully revealed. Prof. C. A. Duniway of Leland Stanford, in a paper on "Diplomacy and the Withdrawal of the French from Mexico," went far towards discrediting the idea that it was pressure from the United States that primarily compelled the French withdrawal. The evidence adduced by Professor Duniway seems to show pretty clearly that the withdrawal of the French troops had been already decided upon for other reasons, chiefly European, and that the United States seized the "psychological moment" to cast its own weight into the balance, and win thereby the credit for the abandonment by France of the Mexican enterprise. The paper was an important contribution to the somewhat devious history of later American diplomacy. A paper by Prof. William MacDonald of Brown, on "A Neglected Point of View in American Colonial History," was an earnest protest against the too common isolation of our colonial history, with its excessive attention to local and antiquarian details, and a plea for the study of the period primarily as the history of English colonial policy in America. Such a change of emphasis, it was pointed out, would recall attention to the superior commercial importance, throughout the colonial period, of the West Indian sugar colonies, show the part—practically forgotten now—played by the colonial governor and colonial agent, awaken a new interest in the historical development of American law, and perhaps be not without instructive bearing on our own dangerous colonial experiments.

Of the other papers read, the most noteworthy were: "The American of 1775," by Mr. James Schouler, interesting, among other things, for its light on the late persistence of slavery in the Northern colonies; "The Art of Weaving—a Handmaid of Civilization," by Mr. William B. Weeden, a wholly competent authority; "Municipal Problems in Mediæval Switzerland," by Prof. J. M. Vincent of Johns Hopkins; "American Constitutional Principles in the Constituent Assembly," by Prof. H. E. Bourne of Western Reserve, an instructive study that might well be followed up; "Party Politics in Indiana during the Civil War," by Prof. James A. Woodburn of Indiana University, read in part only; and "American Business Corporations before 1789," by Judge Simeon E. Baldwin of Connecticut, a sound and thoroughgoing piece of work in a rich but little tilled field. Three papers read by title will appear later in the published report. Of the eighteen papers presented, twelve were on subjects in American history. The church-history section appears to have been suspended, but two of the papers read by title were on ecclesiastical topics.

The manifold activities of the Association wax greater and more numerous year by year. With a membership of over 1900, the Association is enabled to carry on a wider range of scholarly work than is attempted by any other scientific body in the country. The *American Historical Review* continues to be an historical as well as a financial success; the editors noting particularly a gratifying increase in the number of articles submitted on subjects in European history. The report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission for the year comprises, among other papers, the letters of Salmon P. Chase during a part of the time in which he was Secretary of the Treasury. The Chairman of the Commission, Prof. E. G. Bourne, expressed the opinion that the Commission would probably find its most appropriate field hereafter in the field of American diplomatic history. The report of the Public Archives Commission contains accounts of the State records of Illinois and Oregon, and of the Bexar archives in the possession of the University of Texas, while reports on the archives of Maryland and California, and on the records of the Revolutionary counties of North Carolina, are in active preparation. Professor MacDonald relinquishes the chairmanship of this commission after three years of service, Dr. Herman V. Ames of the University of Pennsylvania being added to the commission and designated as chairman. The Justin Winsor prize was awarded this year to Mr. Charles McCarthy for a monograph on the Anti-Masonic party. The number of manuscripts offered in competition for this prize shows gratifying increase, but the committee of award has still to plead for manuscripts better put together and more legibly written. The bibliographical committee shows hopeful signs of activity, and proposes not only the publication of such bibliographies as are submitted to it—elaborate ones on Louisiana and Florida are in a forward state—but also the preparation of both general and special bibliographies particularly needed by students. Of new industries the Association proposes this year but one, but that of great importance, namely, the reprint, in carefully edited but inexpensive form, of leading narrative sources of American history. No project yet launched seems likely to contribute more to the spread of historical knowledge, particularly among persons and communities denied access to large libraries and costly editions, than this. The undertaking, to be carried through as a commercial enterprise without cost to the Association, was given into the charge of a committee, who will choose a general editor.

Notwithstanding, however, its wide influence and obvious success, the Association has still to solve problems of some seriousness. The rapid increase of membership, embracing as it does many persons only slightly interested in historical studies, tends unavoidably to obscure somewhat the scientific character of the organization, and to give it something of the character of such great popular bodies as the National Educational Association. The unequal distribution of members over the country, too, raises annually the question how far the Association should be a roving body or act the part of a missionary for those sections, like the South, where its representation is still small. For the moment the missionary star is in the ascendant, as is witnessed by the decision to hold the next meeting in New Orleans. On the other hand, the announced purpose of members on the Pacific Coast to have an affiliated section of their own, together with the unmistakable feeling on the part of students and teachers of political science that their interests are not sufficiently served by the existing organization, point to the possible dismemberment of the Association in the near future, and the formation of separate societies for particular sections or subjects. Where lines of work necessarily cross each other at so many points as do those of history, government, and administration, the formation of separate organizations would seem in every way regrettable, but the remoteness of the Pacific Coast States, where the Association is strong, presents a different problem. The executive administration, too, has hardly kept pace with the growing needs of the Association, and the provision this year for an additional meeting of the council annually hereafter might well have been made some time ago.

Never has the Association been entertained with such lavish hospitality. The University of Pennsylvania, Drexel Institute, the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, and the American Philosophical Society vied with each other in extending welcome to their guests, while the University and New Century Clubs generously offered a much appreciated accommodation. Of social courtesies of a private or personal sort there was literally no end. It seems, perhaps, ungenerous to suggest that the social side of these annual gatherings has been, in recent years, a bit over-emphasized, and that a simpler fare might please better a good many to whom so incessant a social round is, after all, somewhat distracting. On the other hand, no organization which is not believed in and highly regarded is likely to receive, unasked, such a kind reception as was accorded the American Historical Association at Philadelphia; and that the Association is both believed in and highly regarded is, happily, abundantly evidenced at each recurring annual meeting.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT PHILADELPHIA.

PHILADELPHIA, December 29, 1902.

The characteristic features of the fifteenth annual meeting of the American Economic Association, held here during the past four days with the University of Pennsylvania, were a large and representative attendance, a brilliant Presidential address, and a local hospitality so cordial and so unremitting as to leave the recipient gasping.

For the fact of large attendance, the Association's policy, now more or less definitely established, of a common meeting

place and one or more joint sessions with the American Historical Association, is in considerable measure responsible. The relation of the two sciences in personnel and in scientific activity is so intimate that a joint place of meeting, with the practical certainty of reduced railway rates, often becomes a determining consideration in the case of members hesitating as to attendance. But the larger circumstance responsible for a successful meeting of American political economists at this particular time is, of course, the extraordinary development of economic study in the United States. It has become almost a commonplace to prophesy that the scientific leadership in economic inquiry, which two generations have seen pass from Great Britain to Germany, will ultimately reside in the United States. Evidence of this significant aspect of "America's economic supremacy" presses on every side—newly established professorships, larger student bodies, additional courses of instruction, increasing avenues of publication, an enthusiastic body of young investigators forging to the front in keen emulation, and, best of all, a growing influence of expert economic opinion in the formulation of public policies and in the administration of public affairs.

The first session of the meeting, held with the historians on Friday evening in the beautiful auditorium of Drexel Institute, was devoted to the Presidential addresses. Capt. Mahan of the Historical Association spoke on "Subordination in Historical Treatment," and Professor Seligman of the Economic Association discussed "Economics and Social Progress." Mr. Joseph Wharton, Chairman of the Local Reception Committee, welcomed the two bodies. President Seligman's address may be regarded as a sequel to his noteworthy paper on "The Economic Interpretation of History," presented at last year's meeting, and since expanded and published in book form. "Relativity, not absolutism; change, not permanence—is the watchword of all social, political, and ethical progress." This sentence was the keynote of the address. Beginning with emphatic statement of the essential relativity of all economic thought and all political doctrine, a striking interpretation of certain phases of American history was presented. New England democracy was described as the result, not of Puritan ancestry, but of economic conditions, while similarly the individualist theory in America was characterized as the product of definite economic conditions in the nineteenth century, the passing of which is now in turn undermining the theory of extreme individualism. In this sense—

"American history has been the history of national infancy. To predict a future which shall be a necessary development from our early past, would be as childish as to explain the conditions of Roman imperialism from the facts of the pre-republican age. While the stubborn racial characteristics must, indeed, not be overlooked, the American of the future will bear but little resemblance to the American of the past. To forecast the coming social transformation in our country without bearing in mind the fundamental change in the economic conditions, were puerile indeed."

Such recognition of economic forces in our past national development is the surest safeguard against that pessimism which sees in our present unquestioned prosperity the beginning of future decay and final dissolution. Modern industrial society is differentiated from all its predecessors in the practical exhaustion of free land, in the predominance of industrial capital, in the application of scientific methods, in the existence of a competitive régime based on the newer conception of liberty, on the spread of education and the birth of a distinct public opinion, and in a true democratic spirit and the growth of a new idealism. These conditions ensure a continued increase in the productive powers of society and an inevitable tendency to secure to each class in the community its proper share in the national dividend. But this outlook should not encourage fatalism. With the subordination of the individual to the social interest, to the advantage of individual and society alike, there is an ever enlarging field, and ever more pressing need for the wise regulation which will result in a more even, more equable, and more harmonious development. And herein lie the rôle of economic theory and the mission of the economist.

Saturday morning's session was devoted to a discussion of the public regulation of railroads, and gave rise to the liveliest debate of the meeting. Charles A. Prouty of the Interstate Commerce Commission presented the case for a more effective national regulation, taking the ground that the main feature of the railway problem is no longer discriminations, but actual and possible extortions in rates, that effective regulation accordingly demands the establishment of a commission with power to adjust rates, subject to review and enforcement by special tribunal or commerce court. Vigorous dissent from these conclusions was made by Walter D. Hines, Vice-President of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad, who argued that the Interstate Commerce Commission is neither an expert nor an impartial tribunal, as is proved by its decisions and the action of the courts upon them. It is unnecessary, unwise, and unjust, to give such a tribunal practically final power over the private capital invested in railroads. At present the mistakes of the railroads can be adequately corrected in the courts; under the proposed method, the mistakes of the Commission could not be corrected anywhere. Prof. E. R. Johnson of the University of Pennsylvania, Prof. B. H. Meyer of the University of Wisconsin, and J. Shirley Eaton, statistician of the Lehigh Valley Railroad, continued the discussion along stimulating and profitable lines.

A more pacific tone dominated the third session on Saturday afternoon, devoted to economic theory, with principal papers by Prof. J. B. Clark of Columbia University, and C. W. Macfarlane of Philadelphia. Professor Clark presented the first fruit of his eagerly awaited studies on the dynamic theory of distribution in an acute paper on "The Dynamics of the Wages Question." Wages are always tending toward a standard fixed by the productive power of labor, and this standard rises as the productive power of labor increases. The actual pay of labor also rises, but it lags behind the standard by a certain interval. Whenever this interval grows larger in consequence of a change that raises the standard towards which wages are tending, labor is benefited; but whenever the interval is enlarged by an influence that thrusts the pay of labor downward or retards its natural rise, labor is, of course, injured. The latter part of the paper was devoted to a subtle analysis of the influence of monopoly upon the approximation of the actual to the standard wage. Mr. Macfarlane's paper on "Distribution by a Law of Rent" was a closely reasoned examination of the arguments by which Professor Clark has elsewhere endeavored to show that interest and wages may be reduced to a differential or rent form.

The fourth and fifth sessions on Monday morning and afternoon, respectively, were devoted to a discussion of the problems and aims of organized labor, and were on the whole disappointing in quality. This was due in part to the absence of John Mitchell, Dr. Felix Adler, and Prof. George Gunton, who were to have contributed to the debate. But even those papers which were presented and the discussion which they occasioned failed in any degree to satisfy, and possessed at best a "documentary" value. A paper on "The Union Shop," by Henry White of the United Garment Workers, was a calm, forcible presentation of the labor side that contrasted favorably with a remarkable literary production of Frank K. Foster of the Massachusetts Federation of Labor. Altogether, the discussion impressed the thoughtful mind with the utterly inadequate basis upon which current generalizations on the labor question are made, with the urgent need of detailed scientific study of the history, structure, and functions of labor organizations in the United States.

The final session of the meeting on Monday evening was again held with the historians, with "Currency Problems in the Orient" as the principal topic. Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell University reviewed the recent currency experiences of India and the Far East, and concluded that the introduction of the American standard in the Philippines would probably result in a decided cutting in wages and a sudden fall in prices, which would doubtless have a somewhat seriously demoralizing effect. On the other hand, if we were to adopt the plan now proposed in Congress, of using the silver peso—not materially different in weight from the Mexican dollar, to which the natives are accustomed—with a fixed value equal to that of half an American dollar, the chances are that this peso would practically take the place of the Mexican dollar. Under these circumstances, there would probably be a slight increase in wages as well as a slight increase in prices of products, but on the whole the change could be made with practically no shock to business and with the gain rather to the Filipinos than to the larger dealers. G. Bruce Webster, New York agent of the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, inclined to the retention of the silver standard in the Philippines, but, short of that, favored a plan akin to the one outlined above. Charles A. Conant presented anew the arguments for the system of insular currency associated with his name. Horace White sounded a warning note against introducing "the limping standard," with its recognized defects and inconveniences, into new territory.

The officers of the Association reported a gratifying increase in membership, a satisfactory condition of the treasury, and an encouraging growth in scientific effective-

ness and in practical usefulness. The difficult question of publication policy was discussed at length and finally referred to the Executive Committee, with instructions to formulate a plan for presentation at the next annual meeting. Professor Seligman was reëlected to the presidency, and New Orleans and the Christmas recess of 1903 were selected as the place and time of the next annual meeting, to be held again jointly with the American Historical Association. J. H. H.

PALÉOLOGUE'S ROME.

PARIS, December 17, 1902.

I had occasion not long ago to speak of an essay on Alfred de Vigny, by M. Paléologue, one of our most delicate writers, in the series of the "Grands Écrivains de la France," published by Hachette. It is always a pleasure to read M. Paléologue, for he has a sort of refinement which is becoming very rare in our day of newspaper literature; he easily becomes poetical, though he always remains precise and accurate. He has just published a volume on Rome, with the modest sub-title of "Notes on History and Art." Who has not been tempted to write something about Rome after having visited this unique city, which Byron so justly called the "city of the soul"? Goethe wrote, after his visit there: "All that was to me till the present day but vain word and written tradition, becomes here a living conception." Ampère, who remained several years in Rome, where he was detained by the health of a very charming and delicate friend, occupied his leisure hours in writing his 'Promenades dans Rome,' a book which cannot be too highly recommended to those who wish to gain an intimate knowledge of the Eternal City.

The danger in writing a book on Rome is of falling more or less into the dulness of a guide-book. Not that a guide-book is necessarily dull: there are some, especially on Italy and Rome, which can be read with great pleasure; but it is difficult, when you have to mention churches, galleries, pictures, statues, to avoid a certain sort of monotony, M. Paléologue would himself probably confess that he has not entirely freed himself from this inevitable monotony; he has, however, succeeded in writing a very readable book, very attractive to those who have visited the places and admired the works of art which he describes; readable even to those who have not had this privilege, and whom he will undoubtedly inspire with the desire to visit Rome. He tells us very candidly beforehand that his account of Rome is incomplete—he speaks only of what he has seen; his book is a sort of journal of his visits, and has therefore all the freshness and vivacity of an immediate impression.

Whoever has been in Rome will always cherish a mental image of the Forum.

"In no other place," justly says M. Paléologue, "is this effect of resurrection more striking than in the Forum; in no other place have the monuments and their sites kept more intact their regenerative power. Thirteen centuries of history are evoked there in animated images, in speaking figures, in tumultuous pictures. . . . Religious ceremonies, popular assemblies, political trials, popular risings, feasts, funerals, triumphal processions, all the passions and the scenes of old, are formed again before the mind, by a clear and rapid intuition as by a direct view."

For some years the old Forum has been delivered to the archæologists. Its soil has been upturned, and a sort of reconstruction of the monuments of the past has been attempted. I confess regretting the Forum in its abandoned and deserted state, its meadows, its soft profiles, its solitude, which left in the mind a sentiment of profound melancholy. Still, I cannot blame those who have made researches in the strata accumulated by centuries, in order to discover what remained of the past. The last time I saw Rome, the whole surface of the Forum was dotted with broken columns, with ruins which marked the limits of the temples. M. Paléologue connects all these remains with history, and in this way he avoids some of the tedium of a mere guide-book. He makes us enter into the political activity of the Forum; he shows us the plan of the Rostrum, explains how the primitive Rostrum was placed near the patrician Comitium, and was in the time of Cæsar transported to the centre of the Forum. "The political thought which inspired Cæsar in changing the place of the tribune becomes evident when you inspect the site. To transport the Rostrum to the low Forum was to take away from the Comitium; it was a new step towards the *plebs;* it was the consummation of the rupture with aristocratic traditions; it was at the same time the last blow to the memories of liberty." The old Rostrum had heard Scipio, the Gracchi, Marius, Sulla, Cato; Cæsar's Rostrum heard the Philippics; it saw Cæsar's corpse before it was burned, the head of Cicero which was exhibited by his murderers, by order of Antony. Antony's wife, Fulvia, seized the head of the great orator by the hair. "With a truly feminine ferocity," says M. Paléologue, "she spat on it, took a pin out of her hair, and stuck it many times into the eyes and face."

In the Basilica of Constantine, which shows its majestic ruins in the Forum, we find an architectural type quite different from the old Roman. The vault begins to show itself instead of the horizontal roofs. The vaults were supported by gigantic columns. We miss the inner decoration, which was very rich.

"This immense ruin," says M. Paléologue, "one of the most picturesque in Rome, is also one which gives the best idea of Roman greatness. When the Emperor Maxentius laid the foundation of the edifice (in the year 300 A. D.), indescribable disorder reigned in the State. Since the reign of Gallienus, the decadence had made terrible progress. The Barbarians were crossing the frontiers on every side. In the beautiful and prophetic words of Tacitus, 'The Fates pressed the Empire everywhere' (*urgentibus imperii fatis*). Before long the fortunate rival of Maxentius, Constantine, was to transfer the capital to the shores of the Bosphorus. Nevertheless, Rome continued to impress on its monuments an indestructible character of boldness, largeness, and sumptuosity."

Who does not know the harmonious Arch of Titus, with its columns and the curious soffit representing the triumph of Titus and the spoils of the Temple of Jerusalem? The Arch of Constantine marks a critical period in the moral history of Rome. It bears these lines: "To the very great Emperor Cæsar Flavius Constantinus, who, by the inspiration of Divinity [*instinctæ divinitatis*], has avenged the Empire on the tyrant, etc."

"Who," asks M. Paléologue, "was the Divinity? Was it pagan? was it the God of the Christians? The vagueness of the formula betrays embarrassment. Immediately after his victory over Maxentius, Constantine was not wholly won over to Christianity; at most he was inclined to it. The great majority of the populace remained faithful to the ancient faith. The altars of paganism still received the official homage, and, as in the time of the Republic, the images of the gods continued to be borne in front of the legions. On the other hand, the Gospel was making marvellous progress. Surely the future was there. In adopting an ambiguous formula, the new master of Rome did not compromise himself. As he wounded no opinion, he ran the chance of conciliating them all."

Such remarks, which interrupt the mere descriptions, give a peculiar interest to M. Paléologue's volume. It makes us read history in the monuments. We cannot follow him everywhere, to the House of Augustus, to the imperial palaces, to the Palatine, to the Coliseum; all these have an historical as well as an artistic interest. Vespasian built the Coliseum in order to flatter the multitude and efface from its mind the memory of Nero, by an amphitheatre of extraordinary size and luxury. Titus continued his work, and employed the Jewish prisoners whom he had brought from Judæa. The great shows were inaugurated in it only by his successor, Domitian.

The history of Agrippa's Pantheon is very interesting. This monument has excited in all ages the greatest curiosity. It certainly inspired the architect of the Baptistery of Florence, and also Bramante when he conceived the plan of St. Peter's. Raphael worked in it.

"The artist is buried in one of its chapels, restored by himself. A Virgin, of which he had sketched the model and which was made by his pupil Lorenzetto, surmounts the altar. There is such a vivid feeling of antiquity in this statue that one thinks one can recognize under her veil a Venus of Milo. Near the master sleep the disciples, Baldassare Peruzzi, Giovanni da Udine, Perino del Vaga, the flower of the Roman school."

I pass over much which I can but recommend to the reader—the Forum of Trajan and Trajan's Column, the Baths of Caracalla, the Aventine, a number of churches (especially Saint John Lateran, Santa Maria Maggiore), the Castle of St. Angelo—and proceed at once to the Vatican, where Raphael and Michelangelo long detain M. Paléologue.

"When you reach the Piazza of Saint Peter, you have some difficulty in evoking the horrible drama of the year 65, the Christians delivered to the beasts, the women exposed in the arena, . . . and, in the end, to illuminate the nocturnal feast, the martyrs burnt alive in pitch. How can we imagine this horrible spectacle in a square of such pompous majesty, in front of this theatrical façade, between two solemn porticos?"

Michelangelo's "Pietà," which is in Saint Peter's, was begun when the artist was only twenty-three years old, in 1498. "It was at one of the most sombre moments of his life. . . . His master and friend, Savonarola, had been burnt a few weeks before on the scaffold. This probably explains the striking emotion of his work." Michelangelo began in 1508, at the age of thirty-three, the decoration of the Sistine Chapel, which he made world-famous. Many are the books which have been written on this decoration, which is so grand, so enormous

in its size, so varied, that it can hardly be conceived as the work of a single man. Who does not know, if only by engravings, the Creation of the World, the Creation of Man, Adam, Eve, the Sacrifice of Cain, the Deluge, Noah, and all those pages of the Old Testament, in the sublime interpretation of Michelangelo? Who has not meditated before the Precursors of Christ, the Prophets, the Sibyls, superhuman figures of colossal size? And who has not admired the vast composition of the Last Judgment? I can only say that M. Paléologue gives a very correct description of the great work of the Sistine, as well as of Raphael's work in the Stanze of the Vatican. What a time it was when two such men could labor for the glorification of Rome! These two names are immortal, like the name of Rome itself.

Correspondence.

COLOR AND CRIMINALITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In answer to Mr. Du Bois: According to the census of 1890, the illiterate negroes constitute 56.76 per cent. of the whole negro population. If education lessened criminality, the illiterate negro criminals should furnish a much larger percentage of the whole criminal negro population. But they furnish only 54.31 per cent. Educated negroes form 43.24 per cent. of the whole negro population and 45.69 per cent. of negro criminals.—I am, sir, etc. W. H. B.

THE FILIPINO LABORER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of yesterday you refer to a letter from an officer, now in the Philippines, who, as you say, "writes us in opposition to the theory that the Filipinos will not perform manual labor."

Between 1852 and 1888 I spent more than twenty years in the Philippines. During those years all the agricultural labor was done by Filipinos. The crops of rice, tobacco, sugar, and hemp (*abaca*) were all raised by them. The labor in cleaning hemp is still all done by them. From Warner, Barnes & Co.'s circular of November 15, 1902, I see that the receipts of hemp for the year up to that date had amounted to 736,942 bales of eight to the ton weight. The very profitable work on the hemp plantations has induced many natives to neglect rice-growing for the more certain and profitable work on hemp, but, up to 1862, rice was grown in such quantities as to be exported. In my time all the stevedore work on board ship was done by natives, and the hemp presses in the provinces were all worked by Filipinos.

I got once a good lesson in manners from an old Filipino. I was overseeing some work which went slowly and not to my liking. I slung out at the men the word "Brutos!" (brutes). The old fellow approached me politely, and said: "I beg your worship's pardon; we are not 'brutos,' but we do not understand the language your worship uses." I apologized, and I hope never so failed in sense and politeness again.

The admission of Chinese would be a social, moral, and political danger; but this is too large a theme for my letter, which is only to confirm from my own exceptionally long and wide experience what your correspondent has told you.—I am, sir,

Yours faithfully,

Ogden E. Edwards.

1906 H Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.,
January 2, 1903.

Notes.

Dr. Aurel Stein's narrative of his Central Asian explorations in 1900, to which we made reference last week, is to be published in London by T. Fisher Unwin, under the title, 'Sand-Buried Ruins of Khotan.' The photographic illustration will be very copious.

Henry Holt & Co. have concluded to publish Kerner and Oliver's 'Natural History of Plants' in two volumes hereafter, instead of four parts, and at a reduced price, which is effected by leaving out the colored illustrations.

Two very sumptuous volumes from the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons reproduce articles on 'Famous Families of New York,' originally contributed to the *Evening Post* by Margherita A. Hamm; but they have been both revised and extended, and, what is more, they are now accompanied by a great many illustrations, many of which have never been published before. The sub-title, "Historical and Biographical Sketches of Families which, in Successive Generations, have been identified with the Development of the Nation," exhibits the point of view; and as not a little of the information conveyed has been furnished or certified by the existing representatives of the families in question, we get something like a glorified 'Who's Who.' Portraiture from generation to generation is always instructive, and there is plenty of it here. Pedigrees under the conditions of the present work can hardly be interesting reading, and, in fact, Miss Hamm's chapters are rather for reference than for literary delectation. There is an index to this liberally printed and handsomely bound work.

We make a too tardy acknowledgment of the second volume of the new issue of 'Chambers's Cyclopædia of English Literature' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), edited by Dr. David Patrick, with very competent associates. It closes with the Scottish vernacular writers under George III. American literature is reserved for a separate division, and will be considered with that of the British colonies. The up-to-date character of this revision is shown in a reference, under Lady Anne Barnard, to her South African letters published in 1901; and, under Erasmus Darwin, to Santos-Dumont and H. G. Wells as anticipated by that poet's famous prophecy of the steam-driven balloon; but Maxim, with his belligerent aerostat, was equally preindicated:

"Or warrior-bands alarm the gaping crowd,
And armies shrink beneath the shadowy cloud."

May the Hague Tribunal deliver us from this! The space given to E. Darwin, by the way, is considerable—about a third of what Burns gets; for obvious reasons.

R. H. Russell sends us 'Pictures of Romance and Wonder, by Sir Edward Burne-Jones, Bart.,' which contains twelve plates, by some unnamed photographic process, loosely tacked to gray mounts, and about forty half-tone cuts, besides a very weird portrait of the artist. The selection is fairly representative, containing many of Burne-Jones's best things as well as some of his worst. Except for a brief introduction, by Fitzroy Carrington, the text consists entirely of scraps of verse and prose from various authors. Sometimes these are the sources of the artist's inspiration, sometimes they have been written to illustrate the pictures, while now and then the connection seems slight enough. We must regret that there is no indication of the date or whereabouts of the originals, or of their material or purpose. Early work is mingled with late, oil pictures and watercolors are mixed with black-and-white drawings and designs for tapestry and stained glass, so that any one not already well acquainted with the artist's work is likely to be left with considerable confusion of mind as to his style and his ideals.

Mr. Edward S. Farrow, at one time a lieutenant in the army, presents in 'Camping on the Trail' (Philadelphia: Am. Arms Pub. Co.) a small volume, derived from his own experience and the reports of others, excellent for the novice and serviceable for the experienced. For those who read from curiosity, it illustrates a mode of life whose range is narrowing, and to the writers of the wilder Western fiction it yields abundant local color for stories of pursuers and pursued. Had the author's experience not lain entirely in the Northwest, he would have placed the agave (American aloe) of the South at the head of his list of antiscorbutics; and with somewhat better taste there would have been less reference to himself as devising equipage and directing scouts. Were the book indexed, its practical value for reference would be vastly increased.

'Nature and the Camera,' by A. R. Dugmore (Doubleday, Page & Co.), shows how the author secures the excellent photographs that have brought him favorable notice during the last two years. To put to practical use the information given here, one needs, however, considerable previous experience with a camera. In an introductory chapter, Mr. Dugmore gives suggestions about an outfit. For work with birds and other quickly moving animals, he recommends a camera that can be focussed on the subject at the same time that the plate is ready for exposure. The graflex instrument has thus far proved the most satisfactory. For catching animals in rapid motion, when instantaneous exposure is necessary, he advises the use of the focal plane shutter. This works directly in front of the plate, and allows the minimum time of exposure with the maximum illumination. He shows the advantages of a camera with a long focus and of one with a back focus instead of a front focus, and gives some space to the use of telephoto lenses, to the time of exposure, and to developing and printing. He recommends isochromatic plates for subjects that have much color, and explains the use of reflecting screens to soften shadows. The main part of the book gives detailed instruction in photographing birds, mammals, reptiles, batrachians, fish, insects, and flowers. The text is profusely and beautifully illustrated by the author's pictures.

'The Open-Air Boy,' by G. M. A. Hewett (R. F. Fenno & Co.), describes experiences of the English boy who likes camping and all the sports of woods and fields. Mr. Hewett sympathizes with a boy's propensity to capture and collect, and writes with much detail about trapping, bird's-nesting, fishing, "ratting," and "rabbiting." He does not attempt to give much instruction in natural history except in the chapters on collecting moths and butterflies and rearing caterpillars. He writes in a friendly, familiar way, but his style lapses often into carelessness. The book will interest American boys, though much of it cannot directly appeal to their own experience.

The beginnings of a credit-paper currency may be studied in the handsome volume of 'Tracts relating to the Currency of the Massachusetts Bay, 1682-1720,' which Andrew McFarland Davis has published through Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Eighteen very rare tracts, of some of which only a single copy is known, are here reprinted, with title-pages in facsimile, and notes. The arrangement is chronological, and in one case some interesting contemporary comments are printed, found in manuscript in a copy of the pamphlet. The reader is thus able to trace the gradual rise of the suggestion to issue paper money in Massachusetts, and the development of controversy as the demand for more issues became stronger and the evils of depreciation were more felt. The value of this collection lies in the economic as well as in the historical aspect, and no one who possesses Mr. Davis's excellent 'History of Currency and Banking in Massachusetts Bay' can do without this new compilation. No one who would appreciate the insidious growth of a "cheap money" idea, or measure its disastrous moral and economic effects, can find a better example for study than is here unfolded. Typographically, the book is highly to be praised.

Friederike Merck's 'Unser Liederbuch,' though originating on this side of the water, has had such success in Germany as to warrant a sequel with the same title (Mainz: B. Schott's Söhne; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). As before, the children's songs with music are framed in borders of appropriate colored designs, possessing the true German sentiment, and sometimes a whole page is monopolized by the artist. The pictorial portion will please any child of any nationality. Mrs. Merck's selection now leaves the better-known field, and this still further recommends it. The military element could not be wholly wanting (even Blücher is resurrected), but the seasons, bird and flower, slumber and prayer, sports, home-leaving, the pixies, constitute the mass of this interesting set of songs.

The handsome and far from meagre 'List of Bibliographies of Special Subjects,' just issued by the John Crerar Library of Chicago, is confined in its scope to that institution's collections, but will be thankfully received by librarians of high and low degree. The arrangement within the classes is strictly of the library and the shelf, and the key to the maze must be sought in the index. The leading classification is into Social Sciences, Physical Sciences, Natural Sciences, Applied Sciences, Fine Arts, History and Geography. One useful feature is the inclusion of "general indexes to periodicals covering more than two years, whether the periodicals themselves contain bibliographical material or not, and the catalogues of special libraries, which often are valuable as bibliographies." Since the *Nation* Index of the late W. M. Griswold is honored with admission under the former head, we may note that the Supplement (October, 1880-1885) is apparently not in the Library's possession, to say nothing of the complementary 'Political Record, 1865-1882' by the same unwearied friend of this journal. Nearly all the entries are annotated; and occasionally, as in the case of collaboration such as a *Festschrift*, the contents are analyzed. The publication is worthy of high praise.

When one of our distinguished statesmen eulogized the hog as the great American civilizer, his utterance was set down by an unfeeling world to Western bumptiousness. It may comfort us, therefore, to learn that others too can take our quadruped seriously. We read in a very recent number of Hinrichs's weekly catalogue the following announcement: "Andree, L. Das Schwein in poetischer, mitologischer (*sic!*), und sittengeschichtlichen Bedeutung. Paris: Verlag Zürcher Discussionen. (3 francs.)"

While in *Man*, "a monthly record of anthropological science," for December, 1902, the noted scholar in Japanese and Korean, Mr. W. G. Aston, properly points out the worthlessness of Kaempfer, the compiler, as an authority on Shinto, notwithstanding frequent quotations from his book by recent writers, showing that "the only safe rule for the student of anthropology and religion is to disregard everything that has been written before Sir Ernest Satow's accurate and scholarly contributions to the Japan Asiatic Society's Transactions in 1874-1881," the reputation of Von Siebold rises. The Japanese, with justice and appropriate gratitude, have reared on their own soil to this far worthier foreign scholar and genuine investigator no fewer than six memorials in stone. In the Transactions of the German Asiatic Society of Japan, volume ix., part i., Dr. H. ten Kate prints a paper describing these monuments and giving the inscriptions, with the aid of photographic half-tones. In two instances, Thunberg shares with Von Siebold the honors of memorial, the form of which is either an inscribed boulder or partially smoothed upright stone. These are duly inscribed in German, Latin, Chinese, and Japanese. Dr. Miura treats in the same number of Japanese "physiogonomy," adding a table of the Japanese open hand, showing how the palmistry of the Orient compares with that of the Occident. Whereas the topography, elevations, and depressions of the palm in the West take on the old classic mythological names, Oriental palmistry borrows its descriptive terminology for the circle or border of the palm from the eight points of the compass, while the three central valleys or creases are from "heaven, earth, and man." Dr. Krusen has an exhaustive paper on the higher class of Japanese prisons, giving in illustration the ground plans of those at Osaka, Yokohama, and Tokio. Dr. Lehmann writes of the culture and handling of tobacco in Japan. Professor Ishikawa tells of the Japanese salamander and the limits of its range, while Professor Florenz reviews two Japanese grammatical works, thus finishing nearly six-score pages of an unusually rich number of this valuable serial.

The recent death in Tokio, at the age of seventy-five, of Prof. S. Nishimura, one of Japan's most eminent scholars and reformers, recalls the rapidly dwindling numbers of the famous club in Tokio, the Mei Roku Sha, founded, as its name imports, in the sixth year of Meiji (1873). Mr. Nishimura was a student of Dutch in the forties, and ever a fearless Liberal, favoring intercourse with foreigners even before the Perry treaty, and when such opinions made one a target for the assassin. His famous book, 'A View of Western History,' published in 1869, helped materially to sway Japan into the path of progress on Occidental lines. He served in the educational department until 1886, when he was appointed Court Councillor and principal of the Noble Ladies' School. In 1890 the Emperor named him a life member of the House of Peers, but he resigned in 1892, to occupy himself with literary labors, becoming the author of twenty-one original works and the maker of six translations. Besides Nishimura, the Mei Roku Sha included such scholars as Fukuzawa; Mori, Minister of Education and the Mikado's envoy to Washington and London; Nakamura, early translator of Mill on 'Liberty' and founder of a flourishing school and (virtually) of the first party, out of which grew the Progressists; Kato, President of the Imperial University and now of the House of Peers, philosopher and ethical writer; the two Mitsukuri brothers, and many others of national and international renown, whose writings have educated the new generation. For many years the publications of this club formed a rich storehouse of intellectual pabulum and stimulus. The club still holds its monthly meetings in Tokio, though but two of the original members survive.

The Gordon Memorial College at Khartum has received an important addition to its equipment in some chemical and bacteriological research laboratories. The general aim of this department is to promote technical education; its special ends being to advance the study of tropical diseases, to aid criminal investigations in poisoning cases (which are frequent in the Sudan), and to promote the industrial development of the country. The success of the college, which was formally opened by Lord Kitchener a few weeks ago, seems to be assured, for in 1901 there were five elementary schools in or near Khartum, in which 150 boys were preparing for admission to the college. At the farewell dinner given in London to Dr. Andrew Balfour of Edinburgh, who has been appointed Director of the Laboratories, the announcement was made that "the commission sent out by the Foreign Office and the London School of Tropical Medicine to consider the disease called sleeping-sickness in Uganda had already discovered the germ and cause of that disease."

—We commend to our readers an article on the "War against Disease," contributed to the January *Atlantic* by Dr. Winslow, instructor in sanitary bacteriology in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The writer shows not only what exact knowledge can do in making possible the prevention or cure of many of the most deadly diseases, but also the possibility of such effective popular education as will secure to the masses the benefit of this knowledge. In the city of Buffalo, for instance, the

Health Commissioner undertook to reduce the rate of infant mortality by two specific measures—a careful supervision of the milk supply, and the distribution of printed instructions on the care of infants to every family in which a birth was reported. In 1898 the mortality of children under five years was only one-half what it had been in 1890, just before this work began. Particularly encouraging are Dr. Winslow's remarks concerning tuberculosis. He pronounces it emphatically a non-inheritable malady and easily curable in its initial stages. It is to be fought chiefly along the line of general improvement in sanitary conditions, household cleanliness, good ventilation, outdoor air, exercise, and healthful food. The happy feature about all this is that, while securing practical immunity from the germs of tuberculosis, it can but improve the moral and physical well-being of the individual and the community in a dozen other directions at the same time. Harriet Waters Preston performs the traditional office of the critic—"Thou ailest here, and here"—upon the recent novels of Howells and James. Allowing them to be the two most considerable American novelists since Hawthorne, she holds that both belied their native bent by adopting early in their careers the then new fashion of exhaustive study of comparatively mean subjects. Howells holds his reader by his personal charm, not the charm of his story. Take the personal amenity of the author from 'The Kentons,' and there remains a thin and pointless tale, describing with tedious particularity the languid interaction of a half-dozen utterly insignificant puppets, with absolutely nothing in the story itself to commend it. As for Mr. James, "Never, surely, in English drawingrooms or anywhere else, please God! did living beings actually converse after the manner of Mr. James's characters."

—Willis Gibson opens the January *Scribner* with an article on the Mississippi, "The Old Route to Orleans," with eleven full-page drawings by Jules Guérin. On the historical side the paper might have been strengthened by a fuller account of the old flatboating days, before the introduction of the steamer, when the boatmen tramped back northward through the forest with their rifles and their bags of gold. Mr. Gibson is mistaken in his assumption that when oared barges took the place of rafts for transporting produce down the river, these barges were regularly rowed back up again. When the distance was great, it was cheaper to sacrifice the barges and build anew. A fuller description of present-day coal boating would also have added interest, at a time when the transportation of coal by rail has attracted so much attention; and no article on any American river of to-day can be held complete without some consideration of the "shanty-boat" life which has developed to such practically annoying and sociologically interesting proportions during the past quarter-century. The Editor takes up the defence of the American reader against Mr. Howells's recent complaint that he will not be interested in plain types of "every-day Americans," but must have knights and ladies disporting themselves in a make-believe past, or moving in the glamour of a present-day Newport. The defence is, in effect, that the reader wants in his fiction characters that will make an impression upon him. Now the types chosen by Mr. Howells do make impressions upon Mr. Howells, or they would not be chosen; but the average reader is not attuned as Mr. Howells, and will continue to seek the desirable impression where it may be found. In the Field of Art, Mr. Russell Sturgis makes the recent Public Library exhibition of American wood-engravings the text for a discriminating paper on the growth and present condition of the art of engraving in America.

—The group of "artistic photographers," under the leadership of Alfred Stieglitz, who have seceded from *Camera Notes* and started an organ of their own, are thoroughly artistic in the terms of their prospectus. *Camera Work* is to be published quarterly, but that is the only definite statement made. "The management binds itself to no stated size or fixed number of illustrations, though subscribers may feel assured of receiving the full equivalent of their subscriptions"; and "the right to increase the price of subscription without notice is reserved." What you are to get, and what you are to pay for it, must equally be taken on trust. The first number is a thin quarto of sixty-five pages, handsomely printed on heavy paper, and contains eight plates. At least that is the number in our copy, Mrs. Käsebier's "Portrait (Miss N.)" appearing only in the list of illustrations prefixed to the article on her work. Besides her five, there is a plate after Mr. Stieglitz, and another, of young birds, after Mr. A. Radclyffe Dugmore. All these are excellently reproduced by the Photochrome Engraving Company, and are insets, printed on various kinds of paper and placed on mounts of different tints. The eighth plate contains two half-tone reproductions from paintings by D. W. Tryon and Puvis de Chavannes, used to illustrate an article on "Repetition with Slight Variation" as a principle of composition. On the whole, the purchaser of this number will get his money's worth. In the text there is singularly little about lenses or plates or chemicals, and a great deal about art. These gentlemen are trying to make photography into one of the fine arts, or to prove that it is already a fine art, and they take themselves and their effort with becoming seriousness. They do not hesitate to credit each other with "genius," and to speak of "great" works and "masterpieces" and of "idealistic" treatment of the nude. At this rate they should be thought to be not only artists, but far better artists than most of our painters; and one article would seem to prove that they are aware of this, for it is devoted to showing how lamentably the poor painters, who would hardly claim to be geniuses, have failed in "The Pursuit of the Pictorial Ideal."

—The final volume of the 'Letters to Washington,' published by the Colonial Dames of America, under the editorship of S. M. Hamilton (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), includes the correspondence from May, 1774, to July, 1775. The land interests of Washington on the Ohio, and the so-called Dunmore's War, which was little else than a vulgar land speculation, are prominent in the earlier letters. In that connection the agencies of Valentine Crawford and Dr. John Connolly, afterwards of some notoriety, occupy attention. The obstacles to making new settlements on these Western lands are well brought out in Crawford's letters, and the vexatious behavior of the indentured servants sent on these ventures cost Washington a pretty penny, and in the end ruined the attempts. His miller, Simpson, writes entertainingly and in phonetic spelling of his troubles, and all through the volumes glimpses may be had of Washington as farmer, fisherman, miller, and trustee. The beginnings of industry are indicated in Johnson's letter on hemp (p. 83), and Stewart's suggestion for cultivating madder in America (p. 75); while the early effort to construct the Potomac Canal, with Ballendine as contractor, is of more than local interest. Such matters, however, gradually give place to the approaching Revolution, and military matters begin to engage Washington's time, money, and thoughts. He was much in demand in the companies of colonial militia, and he could have been in command of Virginia's troops had not the Continental Congress called him to the head of its army. A very elaborate index atones for whatever errors are to be found in the text, and the undertakers of this patriotic service deserve the gratitude of those desirous to acquaint themselves with the earlier years of Washington's career and the last years of colonial Virginia.

—It is a pleasure to read Dr. Samuel A. Green's latest volume, entitled 'Ten Facsimile Reproductions relating to New England,' and issued in a limited edition. The author has enjoyed special opportunities for acquiring unique examples of the issues of the early presses of New England, and from a fragment he can tell many an interesting story in bibliography and biography. A good example of his method and skill in tracing the history of a hitherto unidentified tract is to be found in the second essay of this volume. A pamphlet without a title-page or imprint, and with only a running-title as a guide, is traced to the earliest American poet, Benjamin Tompson (1642-1714), and the year of publication is approximately determined. An English variant is found which has such curious features as "M. J. Antonomies," intended for the Indian sachem Miantonomo. The study of this production leads up to unique copies of two elegies by Tompson, which are given in facsimile. One of them is entitled "A Neighbour's Tears Sprinkled on the Dust of the Amiable Virgin, Mrs. Rebekah Sewall," and is surrounded by the unnecessarily gruesome border used for such solemn productions. Some facts relating to the subjects of these elegies and some additional matter on John Foster, the printer, complete an essay that is full of careful research and true bibliographical enthusiasm. The facsimiles, being heliotypes, are very distinct and admirable.

—The other reproductions possess a varied value in themselves, enhanced by the comment of Dr. Green. A map of Massachusetts made in 1637, the seat of war near Boston in 1775, an excellent English map by an unknown engraver drawn shortly after the battle of Bunker Hill, and Rufus Putnam's plan of the towns in Worcester County, prepared in 1785, add something to historical geography. Boston is represented in the list of names of its streets, 1708, and the picture of State Street in 1801, while

a reproduction of the stamp issued under the Stamp Act of 1765 enables the writer to correct certain misconceptions as to its real nature. Groton has its share in the volume in Dr. Prescott's plan of the town, 1794, and Harvard University naturally enjoys prominence in connection with the essay on Stephen Daye, the pioneer printer in the American colonies of Great Britain. Daye's career is traced from some legal documents discovered by Dr. Green; and although the issues from his press never bore his name, a list of them is given so far as they are now known. Of these issues, examples of only eight have been traced. The meagre records relating to Daye have been skilfully used, and much is added relating to the early history of printing in Cambridge. The name of Daye's son, Matthew, appears on the title-page of the almanac for 1647, "the single example where a printer's name appears on the title-page before Green took charge of the press in 1649." The present volume is a credit to writer and printer.

—Those who think that the French are still far behind the Germans in solid historical work will find matter for reflection in a report on 'L'État Actuel des Études d'Histoire Moderne en France,' originally prepared by MM. P. Caron and Ph. Sagnac for the International Congress of the Historical Sciences which was to have been held last April at Rome. This report gives a critical estimate of the work of the principal historical societies of France and of the *sociétés savantes* which do some historical work; it also describes the historical reviews and the collections of documents now in course of publication. After characterizing the training for investigation offered in the universities, both at Paris and in the provinces, the authors finally pass in review each field of history since the Renaissance, to note the progress of investigation, the parts still neglected, and the works of synthesis which have sought to bring together the results gained by individuals. On the whole, the review is suggestive and fair. It takes no account of what was done in France prior to 1875, for the authors believe that, save by men like De Tocqueville and Quinet, there was little thorough work. They think that the present school, particularly under the leadership of Professor Aulard, is investigating even the most stormy incidents of the Revolution with the same impartiality that the mediævalist takes to his subject. Unhappily, there is no method which has the magical art of making fair-minded those deeply moved by either political or religious prejudices, and MM. Caron and Sagnac illustrate this fact themselves in their inability to refrain from unnecessarily harsh criticism of such books as those of M. Funck-Brentano on 'L'Affaire du Collier' and 'La Mort de la Reine.' In this case it was not so much a faulty method as the reactionary attitude towards the Revolution that sharpened their pens. But a little spice of prejudice like this furnishes its own corrective and does not impair the value of their general account. Several of their incidental discussions are suggestive. For example, they argue that the time is past when even so able a review as the *Revue Historique* can cover the whole field, and they urge the creation of special reviews which shall not print articles, but shall include simply criticisms, notes on methodology and bibliography, discussions of the value of documents, and descriptions of historical work actually in progress. All this is in the line of a more effective organization of historical studies the world over, which it was the aim of their report to promote.

TOSCANELLI AND COLUMBUS.

La Lettre et la Carte de Toscanelli sur la Route des Indes par l'Ouest : Étude Critique sur l'authenticité et la valeur de ces documents et sur les sources des idées cosmographiques de Colomb. Par Henri Vignaud. Paris, 1901. (Recueil de Voyages et de Documents pour servir à l'histoire de la Géographie, No. XVIII.) 8vo, pp. 319. 2 facsimiles.

Toscanelli and Columbus. The Letter and Chart . . . sent in 1474 to the Portuguese Fernam Martins, and later on to Christopher Columbus. By Henry Vignaud. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 365. Map, facsimiles and tables.

The books about Columbus all tell how he received a letter from a certain Toscanelli, described as an eminent Florentine savant, and state that this letter inspired the Genoese sailor with the determination to make a voyage westward across the Atlantic. In an age as rationalistic as the present, it is inevitable that some one should doubt whether this Toscanelli letter had the preponderant influence ordinarily ascribed to it. It is equally inevitable that some one of the investigators who are striving to find out something new about the period of great discoveries, should suggest that the said letter never was written at all. In his preface, Mr. Vignaud says that this latter idea, which forms the subject of his volumes, was given to him by M. de la Rosa, who, having sown the seed, very cleverly allowed Mr. Vignaud to cultivate it and to reap the credit, and whatever else, that may come from the public presentation of this decidedly novel theory.

The elements of the story of the Toscanelli letter are easily summarized. In 1571 there was printed in Venice the Italian 'Historie' of the life of Columbus, said to have been written by his son Ferdinand, in which the text of the letter appears, with a statement that it inspired the discoverer with the purpose to make his westward voyage. The same statement, given as a personal opinion, was made more than twenty years earlier by Las Casas in his 'Historia,' which was not printed until 1875, although it had repeatedly been used before that date in manuscript by historical writers. A Latin transcript of the letter was found in 1871 by Henry Harrisse in a volume which once belonged to Columbus, who wrote numerous annotations on the margins of its pages. The letter, which has thus been preserved in Italian, Spanish, and Latin versions, all made before 1571, consists of a courteous, undated note, covering a copy of a letter written in 1474 to a hanger-on at the Portuguese court. The note is in answer to a request for information and advice, and states that the writer, Toscanelli, can best answer the queries of Columbus by sending him the enclosed copy of a letter written some time before in reply to similar inquiries from the Portuguese court, regarding the possibility and desirability of reaching the Indian spicelands by a sea route. It would be futile to try to analyze here the ways in which Mr. Vignaud argues that Bartholomew Columbus concocted the whole story of this double correspondence, and forged the letters to maintain his falsehood. The evidence is, of course, entirely circumstantial, and the arguments assume knavery and stupidity on the part of every one connected with the affair, without the basis of a single positive, accepted fact.

On page 309 of his Paris edition, Mr. Vignaud states that when he began the composition of his work he did not expect to do more than show that some things in the accepted story of the Toscanelli correspondence are hard to explain. Every one will agree that the letter contains plenty of inaccuracies and misstatements, but all will not find the same difficulty in understanding how these could occur in a letter written to an unknown correspondent by the Florentine savant, approaching his eightieth year, on a subject about which he had no special knowledge. The more Mr. Vignaud wrote, the more he came to appréciate the force of his own arguments, and, by the time his task was half finished, he had become thoroughly convinced that the letter could never have existed except as a forgery. His opening chapters give the reader a most favorable impression of his fair-mindedness. He is evidently trying to state without prejudice a most puzzling historical problem, regarding which he desires only to find out the truth. Unluckily, he convinces himself that he has attained to a new truth some time before the reader loses track of the course of his argument. Just in proportion as Mr. Vignaud advances in his method of assuming in each new section that he has proved the assertion which the preceding section brought forward as a possibility—not a new method in argumentation—by so much will most of his readers proceed to as confirmed a disagreement with his conclusions.

Mr. Vignaud has failed completely, in the opinion of most students competent to determine the question, to establish the thesis upon which his book is based. Indeed, he explains in his closing paragraph that his conclusions are largely hypothetical, and that even the fundamental matter of the forgery cannot be established absolutely. Criticism is disarmed, but it may be permitted to express the opinion that Mr. Vignaud, having failed of his main purpose, has nevertheless made an important contribution to Columbian literature. Not only does he force historical writers to reconsider carefully their treatment of the ideas which led to the discovery of America, but he suggests a more reasonable explanation of how that discovery came about. Columbus was a man whose mind worked in the usual way, and his discovery, like most others, was more or less of an accident. The Toscanelli letter did not cause the discovery of America, for two very good reasons. In the first place, it was sent in reply to an inquiry which shows that Columbus had previously considered the matter of sailing westward. In the second, as Mr. Vignaud shows, Toscanelli, if one may judge from the very little that is known about him, had no particular knowledge of geographical affairs; further (and this is very skilfully done), nearly all of the statements in the Toscanelli letter might have come from a book

which, after circulating in manuscript, may have been perhaps printed at about the time the letter may have been sent to Columbus. Neither the note to Columbus nor the printed book is dated, and "may have been" is all that any one can say at present. Columbus owned and annotated a copy of that book, so that it is not surprising—despite Mr. Vignaud's hypotheses—that, if he received this letter from Toscanelli a dozen or more years before the achievement of his ambition, he never afterward referred to it as having had a decisive influence upon his thought or actions.

If the Toscanelli letter was forged, there must presumably have been some motive. Mr. Vignaud constructs this out of the well-known story of a nameless pilot from whom Columbus secured death-bed confidences regarding a visit to an island in the western Atlantic. This story was current among the contemporaries of Columbus, some of whom said that it gave him confidence in the success of his venture. It was recorded by Las Casas, as well as by other early chroniclers, with the comment that it probably had no very decisive influence upon the course of Columbus, and that it may not have been true. Most writers about Columbus have agreed with this opinion, but Mr. Vignaud claims, with good reason, that as a matter of fact the story is entirely plausible. There were a hundred tales, in every seaport of western Europe, of ships blown far out to sea where islands frequently were seen. Some of these islands, St. Brandans, Brazilia, and others, had well-established positions on the sea-charts of those days. Mr. Vignaud seems to state that the story told by his pilot was of a different category, and that it described an actual landing upon a real island in the Antilles. Evidently he does not himself believe this, however, for the most useful chapter in his book is probably the one in which he shows that Columbus very likely laid his course in 1492 by a chart whereon was marked the location of the island described to him by the nameless pilot. Columbus looked in vain for this island in mid-Atlantic, but even the greatest of maritime discoverers could not find what did not exist. This does not make it any less possible that the pilot thought he saw land in this part of the ocean, or that he maintained his faith in his eyesight by declaring that he set foot upon the land he saw. Stranger tales have been told and sworn to, and Mr. Vignaud is not the first who has treated the yarns of distant voyagers as material for serious discussion. Such discussion, to be profitable, calls for much scepticism and some intimacy with the vagaries of the ordinary human mind.

There can be no better training for such a discussion than that of a diplomatic position at the centre of culture and learning. That Mr. Vignaud is competent, no one who knows him will doubt, even though he prints in one of his appendices a long letter from Mr. John B. Shipley, containing a promise to supplement Mr. Vignaud's contributions with other more startling discoveries. Another appendix contains a detailed correction of the Latin transcript of the Toscanelli letter, by an authority on classical Latinity, who shows most conclusively that this text sins against all the canons of sound philology. Mr. Vignaud explains the value of this by stating that he has nowhere been able, notwithstanding careful research, to find any letter or work which he is certain was written by the learned Florentine astronomer. The illogical conclusion might as well have been drawn that there never was any Toscanelli. All the arguments against the authenticity of the 1474 letter could be applied just as effectively to prove that the manuscript treatise on comets ascribed to Toscanelli is a modern concoction.

GENERAL SIGEL'S MEMOIRS.

General Franz Sigel's Denkwürdigkeiten aus den Jahren 1848-49. Mannheim: Bensheimer. 1902.

The memoir written by the late Gen. Sigel of the part taken by him in the revolutionary uprisings in southern Germany in the years 1848 and 1849, is a piece of autobiography unpretentious in a literary point of view, but valuable as a contribution to the history of those troublous times. The narrative could hardly be more concise, simple, and sober than it is. Indeed, the reader would now and then wish it to go into more elaborate detail. But, so far as it goes, it produces the impression of absolute candor and truthfulness.

Franz Sigel, born in 1824, was the son of an officer in the civil service of the grand duchy of Baden, visited the gymnasium at Bruchsal for a few years, and then the military school, from which he graduated in 1843, whereupon he was appointed a lieutenant in the regular army of his little State. But in 1847 he resigned his commission, having had trouble on account of his liberal political views, and also of a duel he had fought with the adjutant of his regiment to right the wrongs suffered by a younger comrade. He then prepared himself for the study of the law, and was on the point of going to Heidelberg for that purpose when the news of the proclamation of the Republic in France, in February, 1848, came to unsettle his plans of life. The revolutionary movement swept with the rapidity of a prairie fire all over Germany, Austria, and Italy. As it was the first impulse of the people to arm themselves against the military power of the monarchs, men of military education who sympathized with the popular cause were everywhere in great demand. So it happened that the young ex-lieutenant was promptly called upon to organize a "Freicorps"—an independent battalion—at Mannheim, one of the principal cities of Baden, and a centre of revolutionary agitation in that region. This "free corps" became part of the civic guard of Mannheim, of which Friedrich Hecker, a man already famous as the most advanced of the liberal leaders in the legislative chamber of Baden, was the chief. Thus these two men became warmly attached to each other, and their friendship was destined to play an important part in Sigel's career.

He was not permitted to remain long in Mannheim, for his services were soon urgently demanded in the extreme southern part of the grand duchy, near the Lake of Constance, where the people were particularly alarmed by wild rumors that the Kings of Würtemberg and of Bavaria were preparing to send their soldiers against them and to rob them of their liberties. In point of fact, those monarchs were at that moment only too glad to be suffered by their own subjects to sit still on their thrones. But even the most groundless panics were easily spread in those days, and thus the good people in the lake region were most anxious to be speedily organized in armed array, so as to be prepared for defence, and Sigel obeyed their summons. These excitements, unreasoning as in great part they were, prepared the way for a still more unreasoning attempt soon after made by Hecker, who was a fiery orator and enjoyed an immense popularity among his countrymen, to start in that southwestern corner of Germany a revolutionary uprising for the purpose of making all Germany a republic. Sigel was drawn into the attempt by his attachment to Hecker, although, as he frankly confesses, his own judgment was very much against it. The enterprise resulted in disastrous failure. The new levies of volunteers, hastily called from the plough, the workshop, and the counting-room, were, as Sigel in his memoir describes with great clearness and candor, easily overcome and dispersed by the regular troops sent against them, and the leaders had to quit the country. Hecker went to America, settled down on a farm in Illinois, and subsequently served the Union as a patriotic and brave soldier. Sigel found refuge in Switzerland, where he wrote for German periodicals and waited for further developments.

He had not to wait long. In the spring of 1849, a singularly strange, almost grotesque, situation presented itself. The German Parliament, sprung from the Revolution of 1848 as the representative of the sovereign German people had been sitting in Frankfort since May 18 of that year. It had been openly or tacitly recognized by the German monarchs as a "constituent assembly," that was to make Germany a united empire on a constitutional basis. It had framed such a Constitution, and completed the work in March, 1849. Then it elected an emperor, and the choice fell upon the King of Prussia, Frederick William IV. The imperial crown was formally offered to him through a commission appointed by the Parliament on April 3. It took him until April 21 to form his final decision, and then he declined, his real reason for this momentous step being that the offer was made by the people, not by the princes, some of whom were supposed to have assented to it only under a sort of duress, and that the Constitution made by the Frankfort Parliament was too democratic. The rejection of the work of the National Parliament by the King of Prussia, involving the complete disappointment of the longing of the Germans for national unity, threw the whole country into intense excitement. In various places the people rose in arms to compel the recognition of the new Constitution of the Empire. In every instance it was the King of Prussia who sent his troops to put down the insurrectionary movements as criminal attempts against the legitimate authorities. The whimsical strangeness of the situation, then, was this: the insurgents demanded the enforcement of the Constitution framed by the National Parliament, and of its decree making the King of Prussia the Emperor of Germany, and the same King of Prussia who was thus to be made Emperor of Germany treated the same men who had thus risen as guilty of high treason. That the insurrection soon took a republican turn is true, but this was largely owing to

the attitude of the King of Prussia and other princes, who nullified what had been done to establish national unity on a constitutional basis.

The most serious of the uprisings took place in the Bavarian Palatinate, on the left bank of the Rhine, and in the Grand Duchy of Baden. In the Palatinate a large majority of the people, supported by a considerable number of soldiers who had deserted from the Bavarian garrisons (among them some officers), not only declared themselves for the National Constitution, but appointed a provisional government independent of the Bavarian crown. In Baden not only the people, but the whole regular army, excepting most of the commissioned officers, rose in revolt, and the Grand Duke took to flight—many of the superior functionaries of the administration with him. The provisional government, which was promptly instituted, at once sought to strengthen the regular army—which consisted of about 20,000 men, infantry, cavalry, and artillery, and which occupied also the fortress of Rastatt—with fresh levies of volunteers, and thus to build up a formidable revolutionary force. It was under these circumstances that Sigel was called back from his exile in Switzerland, and attached to the War Department of the provisional government to aid in the work of military organization. He was promptly on hand. In his memoir he vividly describes the deranged state of the administrative machinery—the functionaries of higher grade having left, and those of lower grade not knowing what to do—and the utter confusion of counsel as to the policy to be followed prevailing among the men at the head of affairs.

It should have been evident to every clear-thinking mind that the movement for the National Constitution in the shape of a popular insurrection was absolutely doomed to disastrous failure, unless the regular armies of other German states imitated the example of that of Baden, or unless the popular movement assumed such dimensions all over Germany that the governments must abandon the idea of withstanding it. There seemed to be a possibility of stirring the people of the neighboring kingdom of Würtemberg, who in various ways manifested much enthusiasm for the national cause, into sympathetic action, and, perhaps, even of inducing the whole, or at least a large part, of the Würtemberg army to follow the example of the army of Baden. This might have been brought about by a bold and rapid dash into that country, with a military array sufficient to impress the imagination of the Würtembergers with the strength of the revolutionary movement, to serve as a rallying point for volunteer organizations, and to bring home to the Würtemberg soldiers what could and ought to be done by them. Sigel had the good sense to see this, and accordingly proposed that such an expedition across the Würtemberg frontier be undertaken without delay. But he was overruled in the council of the provisional government, which favored an aggressive movement northward in the direction of Darmstadt and Frankfort. Some persons at headquarters even favored the plan of maintaining a strictly defensive attitude, and of not crossing the boundary of Baden at all. Such ideas prevailing over Sigel's advice, the fate of the insurrection was sealed, for if it did not rapidly spread, it was hopelessly lost. Prussia was gathering a large force on the lower Rhine, of which some Hessian troops with two Würtemberg battalions formed the advance, to invade Baden and the Palatinate from the north, while a so-called "imperial" corps under Gen. Peucker, consisting of troops from various German states, was forming to attack from the east.

Sigel was for a time Minister of War and chief commander of the forces, and as such conducted some operations on the northern frontier against the Prussians, which he elaborately describes. He was much interfered with by others connected with the provisional government, and it soon turned out that some of his regular troops, especially the cavalry, could not be depended upon. There were many breaches of discipline and several attempts at actual mutiny. Not a few soldiers strongly objected to being led "out of their country." The operation failed, and Sigel had to give up the chief command. Soon afterwards Gen. Mieroslawski, who had distinguished himself in Polish insurrections and who had been some time previously engaged by the provisional government to lead its forces, arrived on the scene. His selection was no doubt owing to a sort of superstitious belief then prevailing among laymen, that more than other people the Poles were in possession of the real mysteries of the military art, and wherever there was anything like a revolutionary war to be carried on, Polish officers were called into service. Mieroslawski was a man of recognized ability, and, with a sure eye for Sigel's merits, he made him his chief of staff and second in command. Meanwhile the Prussians under the Prince of Prussia (later Emperor William I.), advancing from the north, possessed themselves of the Palatinate, and crossed the Rhine at Germersheim to take Mieroslawski's army, which was concentrated at Heidelberg, in the rear, and, with the aid of Peucker's corps approaching from the east, to bag the main body of the insurrectionary forces. But Mieroslawski, by a rapid movement, threw himself upon the Prussians who had crossed the Rhine, fought them at Waghäusel, Sigel commanding his left wing, and won some advantages, when again his cavalry took to flight and carried a large part of the army with them. In a general order, published after the engagement at Waghäusel, Mieroslawski said: "Our situation is one of great difficulty; but so long as I have that calm young hero Sigel at my side, I must not despair of anything." Sigel does not mention this testimony in his memoir, but it deserves to be recorded.

By a very cleverly executed flank march, Mieroslawski withdrew his forces from the columns of the enemy converging upon him, but the rest of the hopeless campaign consisted in a retreat towards the Swiss frontier, covered by occasional fighting. One of these engagements, that on the river Murg, in which the poet Kinkel, who served as a private in a volunteer battalion, was captured by the Prussians, lasted nearly two days, and was in part quite creditable. After this action Mieroslawski laid down his command, which then again fell to Sigel. Although the army was a mere wreck, reduced to less than one-half of its original strength, he still planned an attempt to beat Peucker and exhaust the last possibility of relieving the forces besieged by the Prussians in the fortress of Rastatt; but in spite of his efforts to hold them together, one body of troops after another, against orders, worked its way to the Rhine, and crossed that river into Swiss territory. Finally, having only 4,500 men and 40 pieces of artillery left under his command, he had to do the same thing, and thus, he writes, "I bade farewell to my Fatherland forever."

The rest of the memoir contains the sad story of the 28 military executions that followed the surrender of the fortress of Rastatt and a short account of Sigel's wanderings as an exile until he found a new home in this republic, where in our own civil war he served faithfully and well. The book throws much light upon some of the causes of the failure of the revolutionary attempts in Germany in 1848 and 1849, and its modest and ingenuous tone does credit to its author.

Literary Values, and Other Papers. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

We have not recently had a collection of diverse essays more delightful or more pregnant with suggestion than this by Mr. Burroughs. It should be said frankly, however, that they have the savor of "mere literature" rather than the austerer virtues of "mere criticism." In place of the masculine concatenation and ordonnance of ideas which is the all but inseparable quality of sound critical writing, they exhibit a genial, Emersonian effusion of thought which is stimulating and wholly pleasant, but perhaps just a little disappointing to the voracious reader, who, as Arnold would say, "wants criticism."

Mr. Burroughs's most significant remarks are in his dealings with the ever-fruitful subject of style. In his actual stylistic predilections he is surprisingly catholic; he can admire Virgil or Gibbon or De Quincey as well as Walton or Bunyan; but in his theory he is more of a protestant. No one has written better, more illustratively, of the absolute need in good style of liveliness, limpidity, expressiveness, and personality. He adopts the Wordsworthian notion of the word as the body of the thought—only its garment, as the body is the garment of the soul. At times, even, he seems to be writing of Style with a big S; but in this he is not altogether consistent with the meaning of his volume as a whole. More than once his just admiration for the wilding prose which snatches a grace beyond the reach of art, leads him to express an over-emphatic distrust of scholarly prose. We can readily agree as to the dangers of academies and libraries for the writer, but scarcely that "the simple, unbookish man" is the most likely to write good prose. Lucidity and measure, even enthusiasm and humanity, come as frequently to the truly cultured man as to the simple. It is a fair question whether, at this time of day, the man who publicly admires the prose of Whitman deserves better of his country than he who should be all for Newman, or, say, for Jowett.

It is quite in harmony with the bent of the body of Mr. Burroughs's work that he should deplore the stylist. But much that he has to say on his text of "Words, words, words!" is surely grounded upon a half-truth. That "the stylist's main effort is a

verbal one, to find a meaning for words"; that "his thoughts are word-begotten, and are often as unsubstantial as spectres and shadows," is quite true in many cases, but it is, at best, a superficial view. There is a very real sense in which the process of life itself is but finding the meaning of words. Some such sense as this lies at the root of Hobbes's famous remark, that words are a coinage by which we draw upon the accumulated experience of mankind. The true scholarly writer, the stylist even, secures by a kind of elective affinity those words which are the fittest substantial form for his thought. There is a place for the fresh, earthy word; there is also a place for the ink-horn term, and there is a tangible literary ideal of fine and full veracity which can be attained only by contrivance, sometimes even by artifice, of words.

The partiality of Mr. Burroughs's view is evident when he comes to definite judgment. His censure of the manner of Prof. Walter Raleigh's 'Style' is likely to provoke little dissent; but to say that men like Walter Pater "are enamored of style itself and cultivate it for its own sake," or that "Pater studied words; Arnold studied ideas," is to miss the point altogether. The greater wealth of Pater's learning and his excessively qualifying mind, contrasted with Arnold's preoccupation with "the chief and principal things," give some superficial color to such dicta; but it is, nevertheless, quite certain, *pace* Mr. Burroughs, that Pater did study ideas, and that the sole care of his writing was about truth—the perfect mating of word and meaning.

Yet, at the end of the essay on "Style and the Man," Mr. Burroughs swings to a conclusion so humane and sincere that we can do no better than quote from it:

"There are as many styles as there are moods and tempers in men. Words may be used to give us a sense of vigor, a sense of freshness, a sense of the choice and scholarly, or of the dainty and exclusive, or of the polished and elaborate, or of heat or cold, or of any other quality known to life. . . . In treating nature or outdoor themes, let the style have limpidness, sweetness, freshness; in criticism, let it have dignity, lucidity, penetration; in history, let it have mass, sweep, comprehension; in all things let it have vitality, sincerity, genuineness."

We have dealt at such length with the significant matter of style that we can pause but briefly over Mr. Burroughs's theory and practice of criticism proper. Queerly enough, his statement of the business of criticism is almost precisely identical with Pater's: to discriminate in a work of literary art those elements of personality in it which are most individual. To the human personality behind a book Mr. Burroughs strikes cleanly, but his criticism of this sort operates almost altogether by the consideration of details, the vital word, the beautiful line, or of the atmosphere. His criticism is so thoroughly impressionistic that while he can understand the imaginative heat which strikes out the true word or the polished line, he seems neither to experience in himself nor adequately to appreciate in others that shaping, formative heat of the imagination by which a work in any of the arts is created and moulded in symmetrical, living unity. It is for this reason that his general literary judgments are applicable chiefly to lyrical poetry and discursive prose, and prove inadequate when superimposed upon such forms as the drama or the epic. His process of thought in this direction centres around the singular statement that "to be moved to anything but admiration is foreign to pure art"—a notion which can be justified only by making "admiration" cover a variety of emotions reaching from the "sudden glory" of laughter to the disinterested love which we feel toward pure artistic beauty, and the awe which disturbs and subdues us in the presence of the sublime.

Three Years' War. By Christiaan Rudolf De Wet. Frontispiece by John S. Sargent, R.A. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

Sargent's portrait of the burgher commander—a strong, attractive face with resolute mouth—is one of the most striking features of this book. Gen. De Wet's story of the Boer-British struggle of 1899-1902, is told with a grave simplicity, lighted up by touches of humor, and is devoid of the passionate declamation which might not unnaturally be looked for in the account of a war fought with such sacrifices, at such odds, and with so many grounds for bitter criticism of his adversaries. He does devote a few pages to the sufferings of the Boer women, both upon their devastated farms and in the concentration camps, but while his feelings are deep, his expressions are restrained, and more in sorrow than in anger.

As an addition to the mass of facts already at our command with regard to the motives and conduct of the war, the narrative is not important, for the ground has been thoroughly traversed before; its field of description is confined to the active warfare which began in October, 1899, and there is no discussion of the previous South African affairs which led up to the outbreak of hostilities. The weight of the story is derived chiefly from the character and achievements of the author, who, at an early period of the military operations, was advanced from the ranks, as a private, to the leadership of the army, when his fertility of resource and unwearied energy showed him to possess extraordinary fitness for his work. The appendixes are interesting with their detailed reports of the discussions which eventuated in peace. The assemblies of the representatives of the African republic to consider if they were under the necessity of surrender, were every day opened with prayer, sometimes by a clergyman, as often by one of the officers. They show the pathetic deeps of distress to which their people were reduced, and the reluctance of many of the leaders to recognize, even with their utter lack of resources and the likelihood of their country's being made a desert, that independence was hopeless.

From his inside view, Gen. De Wet confirms all that has been elsewhere told of the contemptuous audacity with which these farmers habitually assailed forces many times their numbers, with a sublime disregard of all precedents concerning the resistlessness of entrenched enemies. This assurance that any one of them was equal to three or four of his opponents, which they had contracted in their many combats with Kaffirs and Zulus, was illustrated in the first month of activities, at Nicholson's Neck, where two hundred Boers stormed a kop held by a thousand British, killed and wounded more than two hundred with a loss to themselves of nine, and took prisoners the rest, with their valuable equipments. A little later, at Roodewal, with half their opponents' force, and the latter in a highly defensible position, guarding a railroad storehouse of supplies worth three-quarters of a million of pounds sterling, they did immense damage to the English, capturing the men, carrying off and burying the ammunition, and giving most of the goods which they could not take away to plunder and flame. Among these valuables were large mail collections, full of miscellaneous treasures for the soldiers, which not only the Boer troops, but also the prisoners, were allowed, first, to ransack. "It was a very amusing sight to see the soldiers robbing their own mail. They had such a large choice that they soon became too dainty to consider even a plum pudding worth looking at." As they were reluctantly dragged away, they left a trail of parcels to mark their road.

Concerning the blockhouses, with connecting wire fences, which Gen. Roberts, in the last days of the war, drew as a cordon around the remnants of the republican army, our author speaks with scorn of their efficiency:

"The English have never been able to give an instance of a capture effected by them. On the contrary, when, during the last stages of the war, it happened, as it often did, that they drove some of our men against one or the other of the great blockhouse lines, we generally succeeded in breaking through with fewer casualties than when they concentrated their forces and formed a circle around us."

Something of this ineffectiveness seems to have been due to the disposition of the English soldiers to confine themselves to the blockhouses in apprehension of the deadly aim of their enemies, who, to the end, with all their feebleness of numbers, filled the English rank and file with profound terror.

The volume is dedicated "To my fellow-subjects of the British empire."

An Italian and English Dictionary. With Pronunciation and Brief Etymology. By Hjalmar Edgren, Ph.D., etc., assisted by Giuseppe Bico, D.C.L., and John L. Gerig. Henry Holt & Co. 1902. Two volumes in one, pp. 576, 452.

The need of a good Italian-English dictionary has long been felt, and it may be said at once that the above attempt to supply it is a great advance on its predecessors. The fulness to which it lays claim would be more apparent if resort had not been had to the compression to which the Germans were led by their compounds, and which is indeed a necessity if unwieldy bulk is to be avoided. Nevertheless, one turns regretfully back to the generous quarto page of old Baretti (1778), "improved and augmented with above 10,000 words omitted in the last edition of Altieri," and yet conceding not only a separate rubric to every word, but even a paragraph to each idiomatic illustration; not to speak of cross-references. The tyro in Italian will complain most in using Professor Edgren's Dictionary. Suppose, for example, that he seeks the verb *vivere*; after much patience he finds it embedded in a section led off by *viva*, with sixteen intervening words, all docked of the root *vi*. We cannot think that a happy economy, even if the arrangement be alphabetical. We must add, that out of thirty-three words embraced in this section only three, *viva*, *vivere*, and *vivido*, are exhibited in full; *vivo*, with which it

concludes, and whose exemplification requires nearly a third of the entire space, appears only in the mutilated form *-vo*. The editor plumes himself on this grouping of etymologically related words, as serving "the threefold purpose of both etymological and mnenonic association, of space-saving, and of facilitating the search for words by enabling the student to pass easily from one group to another." We think this a pure delusion. Much time is lost, and the whole image of the word, as we have shown, is seldom presented for the eye to catch and remember.

"Space for idioms," it is frankly admitted, "has been economized in favor of a larger vocabulary." The wisdom of this again may be contested. Baretti, who sought both ends, made his Dictionary highly readable, so racy was his English rendering of the Italian idiom. Nobody can read Edgren for pleasure, and he has minimized his assistance in discriminating among definitions strung one after another. His etymologies, being here, are welcome; but we could have spared them for Baretti's bracketed Italian synonyms (*e. g., miro* [*maraviglioso*]), or definitions (*e. g., ghetto* [*luogo dove abitano li Ebrei nelle città d'Italia*]), followed immediately by the English definition. This, we are well aware, would have exacted more room, but still we grudge a little the space occupied by the etymologies, which might have been granted to a modicum of grammar by way of preface. This is not wholly neglected in the vocabulary—irregular inflections are noted; but we could have wished the plural of substantives, a source of much difficulty, to have been regularly indicated there, as in German dictionaries.

To call in Dr. Johnson's friend once more to help out our criticism, let us quote Baretti on *chi*. He first defines it as a relative pronoun, masculine and feminine, 'who, whom,' with three examples and one (unlabelled) of the interrogative. There follows "*chi* [*quello che*]," 'he that, whomever, whomsoever,' with two examples; "*chi* [*alcuno*]" 'some,' with two; "*chi* [*chiunque*]" 'any man, any one, anybody,' with one—in all, 25 lines. Against this we have Edgren's single line: "*chi* [L., *quis*], pron.: who, whom, whoever." If, now, we turn to *who* in the English-Italian vocabulary, we find *chi* recognized solely as an interrogative pronoun.

In the prefatory page given to Italian pronunciation, we read, under "accent-marks," that, "though usage varies, Italian is ordinarily written without any other accent-sign than the grave for accented final vowels (whether pronounced close or open)." Nothing is said of diacritic marks distinguishing words spelt alike, nor of a practice, which has arisen in recent years, that leaves us *già, là*, etc., but requires *ché, perché, né, sé, sú, giú, piú, virtú*, etc. This change was worth noticing and discriminating. The indication of the pronunciation is one of the admirable features of this Dictionary.

The vocabulary, while rich, is, of course, far from exhaustive, and, in spite of the literary cast deliberately given to it, many words used by the best writers of the present day will be sought in vain. In a volume of classic modern verse republished only a few months ago we encounter *annitrire, arengo, maïnare*, for example, omitted here, as is *rudero*, though the plural, *ruderi*, is given. Under the letter I, the warning to look for a certain class of words under S is very obscurely conveyed thus: "*i-* prothetic sound before *s* + consonant," with no illustration. Even this does not stand at the head of the article, as it should to save a futile search for words like *(i)scambievole, (i)spumeggiare*, etc. Under O, some hint might have been given of the interchange of *o* and *u*, as "lutolento," "lutulento," "incolto," "inculto."

The English-Italian volume appears intended rather for Anglo-Saxon than for Italian consultation. Absent are caucus, golf, polo, monitor (the vessel), as if because the things designated are non-Italian; yet an Italian reader of English would meet constantly with all these words. Absent, too, are trade-union, boycott, strike—in the substantive or verbal sense—(though *sciopero scioperare* occur in the other vocabulary), sleeping-car (*vagone*, by the way, does not occur in its proper place, though it is given as a definition under wagon), job (of the political variety), jobbery, Jingo; and yet all these notions are familiar in the peninsula, as may well be vegetarian and vivisectionist. Prohibitionist occurs, but with no temperance connotation, though this is highly necessary for an Italian reader; and the equivalent given, *proibizionista*, is wanting in the Italian vocabulary. Further omissions are exterritoriality and Trust. Boom, the verb, is credited only with the sense of motion; not of humming, still less of promoting (in slang usage). Automobile and Salvation Army are taken in, along with "interview" and trolley, for neither of which is there an Italian equivalent, it would appear.

Our examination of this work is far from being intended to be censorious; rather to put users on their guard, and to contribute perhaps to some future revision. The spread of knowledge of Italian and enjoyment of its noble, never-flagging literature is much to be desired. Professor Edgren and his colleagues are entitled to hearty thanks for their endeavor to that end, whatever their shortcomings.

Journal of a Tour in the Netherlands in the Autumn of 1815. By Robert Southey. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

Robert Southey wrote a goodly number of works acknowledged to be prose, and many more called poetry by a generation more indulgent even than our own.

> "No eye beheld when William plunged
> Young Edmund in the stream:
> No human ear but William's heard
> Young Edmund's drowning scream."

Even a Poet Laureate nowadays is expected to do better than this. Like many a poet in every generation, Southey was by nature a prose writer. The society of Coleridge and the air of the Lake District thrust upon him a sort of mechanical literary life, and in 1813 he became Poet Laureate. A few weeks after the battle of Waterloo, the sale of 'Roderick' justifying the expenditure, he decided to visit the battlefield and celebrate the victory of British arms. He set out, accordingly, with his wife and daughter and a friend on a month's tour. The poem on Waterloo, which duly appeared in sixty-one stanzas, is merely this journal thrown into verse and entitled "The Poet's Pilgrimage." The prose version, now nearly a century old, is here published for the first time. A publisher's note informs us that the MS. was bought at the Southey sale at Keswick in 1864 "by a well-known North Country banker and antiquarian of the day." Southey, of course, never intended his diary, which he wrote as a rough sketch, to see the light. But it is far more amusing and better worth reading than the version which he regarded as a professional achievement.

Southey had twice visited Lisbon, and is fond of comparing Portuguese and Flemish manners and customs. But his heart was in Keswick, and his appreciation of the scenery of the Netherlands is tempered by memories of Derwentwater. At Ghent the Southeys joined forces with some English acquaintances, and hereafter we read of the adventures of a party of eleven, with natural complications in the matter of posting-carriages and small country inns. There were, of course, no railways, and Southey's descriptions show a knowledge of the life and manners of the people which it would be hard to acquire in three weeks with our less intimate methods of travel. Everywhere he finds the English popular and the French detested. "The Prussians are spoken of with equal bitterness; perhaps with more, because they came in the character of friends, and acted as rapaciously as enemies." Southey devotes some thirty-five pages to his two visits to Waterloo, and as a contemporary account it has an interest for the modern reader. He shares the wish of the inhabitants that the battle should be called Hougomont or La Haye-Sainte or Mont St. Jean—anything rather than Waterloo, since the fighting was never nearer to that place than two and a half miles. The bravery of all who fought had made a deep impression on the people: Southey was told of the "absolute *rabies* of the French; . . . they curst the English while they were fighting, and curst the precision with which their grape-shot were fired, . . . neither too high nor too low, but struck right in the middle." The roads and fields were still covered with caps and shoes and French cards; bullets and weapons were being sold as souvenirs to excursionists; "five or six parties of English arrived while we were here." At Waterloo,

> "Lord Uxbridge's leg, the most remarkable relic of modern times, is deposited in the garden of a house opposite the inn. . . .
> "The owner of the house is as proud of possessing it as a true Catholic would be of an undoubted leg of his patron saint. The figure, manner, and earnest enthusiasm of this leg-worshipper were in the highest degree comic. He led us to a little mound in his garden, about three or four feet in diameter, and of proportionate elevation (sounding words should be used on great occasions), and in the centre of it is a tuft of Michaelmas daisies. The leg, he told us, had been at first interred behind the house. But the wife of my lord has requested him to plant a tree which should mark the spot; and he had removed the leg into his own garden, and there deposited it in a proper box or coffin. . . . In November he should plant the tree; it was to be 'un saule—English willow.' " 'Oui, monsieur,' I replied, 'j'entends—l'arbre larmoyant; the weeping willow. It will be very picturesque and pathetic.' "

Then follows a long French epitaph on "La Jambe de l'illustré, brave et vaillant Comte Uxbridge."

From Waterloo the travellers went to Na-

mur Spa and Aix, returning to Brussels by Maestricht and Louvain; then across the frontier to Calais, and so to Dover by a fourteen hours' crossing in the Post-office packet. Wherever he stayed, Southey bought books. In the village of St. Nicholas he picked up the 'Lives of the Admirals,' which one may suppose he found useful for his own work published a few years later under the same title. Of Antwerp Cathedral, which had been stripped by the French, he says: "The great picture of Rubens is expected to-morrow; others have already arrived from Paris (for which honor and praise to the name of old Blücher); and when they are replaced there is to be an illumination and a day of public rejoicing." Southey must have had a poor memory for anecdotes; he tells hardly any, and we meet with one of an Irishman repeated as new on page 237, within a few days of its appearance on page 38. His style is genial, and his interest in every detail of the tour makes him interesting to read.

There are a few misprints in the book, which is one of a limited edition and admirably got up. On page 114, for "more siro," read "more suo"; on page 147, for "L'ouvre," read "J'ouvre"; on page 34, the spelling of "Appelles" for "Apelles," and "Polycretus" for "Polycletus" in the Latin epitaph of Van Eyck at Bruges may be Southey's error.

Timber: A Comprehensive Study of Wood In All Its Aspects, Commercial and Botanical, Showing the Different Applications and Uses of Timber in Different Trades, etc. Translated from the French of Paul Charpentier, Expert Chemical Engineer, Assayer of the French Mint, etc., by Joseph Kennell. London: Scott, Greenwood & Co. 1902.

A treatise on timber, covering the ground marked out in the title above given, would meet with a hearty welcome from botanists, foresters, and engineers. Unfortunately, the promise of the title is not kept. The study is not comprehensive; it does not consider wood in all of its aspects, either commercial or botanical; it does not treat of some of the most important applications and uses of timber in the different trades. Hence it is distinctly disappointing.

The systematic portion, which sets out to describe the timber trees of the world, is characterized throughout by a lack of proportion, and by a greater lack of familiarity with the subject. To the timbers of Europe the author devotes twenty-two pages; to those of Africa thirty-two; to Asiatic timber, five; to the timber of North America, including Mexico, three pages; while that of South America has six or seven. This woful disproportion would not strike the reader as unpardonable, perhaps, were it not that there is an absolute carelessness in the selection of the species studied, and a still greater negligence in their treatment. Why should the basket willows demand in a work on Timber more space than is given to the white pine or to some of the great trees of France? Why should about two pages be devoted to an examination of the chemical behavior of the juice of the banana plant, a plant which possesses no true stem save a soft cone hidden in the bases of the leaf stalks, and which does not suggest Timber even in the remotest degree?

The work begins with an account of the classical researches of Payen and Frémy on cellulose, but it does not refer to the recent investigations in England and in Germany, which have practically revolutionized the subject. Next follows a chapter on Vegetable Histology, which the translator has made worse than it really is: he speaks of "Utricular" tissues, "Suberic" cells, "Streaky" ducts, and the like, wholly ignoring the general usage of English-speaking botanists. The discussion of the chemical and physical properties of wood is much behind the times, even with regard to the results of investigations by the French.

The author's method of treating individual species of timber trees can be best understood by a half-page taken from the study of the conifers:

"*Australian Pine* (*Pinus australis*). This valuable tree is seen uninterruptedly in the lower portions of Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, upon a wide stretch of ground. The average height of it is about 80 feet. Its leaves, which are of a beautiful brilliant green color, are very long."

Of course the translator is responsible for the blunder of making this southern pine *Australian*, but the author is responsible for the inadequacy of the description. Let us take a species nearer home:

"*Pitch Pine* (*Pinus rigida*). This variety is met with upon the littoral of the Atlantic. Light, tractable, and sandy soil is especially suited to its growth. Upon gravelly and sandy soils the timber of this tree is compact, heavy, and contains a large amount of resin. It is employed for a variety of purposes, and has been for some time in demand for the building of Swiss cottages and light furniture."

"*'Lord Weymouth' Pine* (*Pinus strobus*). This is a very beautiful tree, but is very sensitive to cold and heat. It accommodates itself to all descriptions of soil. Its timber, suitable for numerous purposes, is largely employed in shipbuilding."

This is the description of the noble White Pine!

The spruces are called "Firs." The following unnecessary confusion is introduced respecting our common spruces:

"Outside of the different species of pine, the most important varieties found in the forests of the State [of Maine] are the elm, platane, maple, beech, then, in decreasing proportion, the oak, birch, lime, and ash. Among the smaller trees, the larch, cedar, fir, poplar, and wild-cherry trees are especially found. . . . The best timber actually obtained upon the banks of the Penobscot, Kennebec, and other large rivers is that from the fir-tree. Planks about 100 feet long and 6½ broad without a single knot are the current merchandise. These planks are obtained from gigantic fir trees."

It does not seem at all necessary to italicise the many errors and inconsistencies in these statements. They serve as fair illustrations of the work.

The author is said to be an engineer, and in the part of the book devoted to the exploitation of forests and that sort of thing, belonging mostly to engineering, he is at his best. But he does not write concerning these matters as a forester would and as an authority on timber should. He is a chemist, too, and we naturally look for a clear and accurate treatment of chemical phases presented by timber and by wood in general. But the following extract shows that the author and the translator, between them, have made rather a mess of it:

"In manufacture made with violet-ebony sawdust a rather interesting phenomenon is produced. The air is expulsed, and the mixture of sawdust and blood albumen undergoes fusion. A new matter is formed resembling woody tissue, and a hard and dense wood is obtained capable of undergoing all cabinet-making work."

In a volume professing to treat of the different applications and uses of timber, and of all the commercial aspects of wood, the subject of wood-pulp, a very important product of our forests in the Old World and the New, ought to receive at least a few pages, even to the exclusion of such topics as the extracts from orange flowers. In short, a work on Timber should treat of Timber. The present volume would find its chief usefulness as affording exercises for correction in the forest schools, provided the students could be made to regard the task seriously.

The Story of the Trapper. By A. C. Laut. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. 1900. Pp. xi., 284.

The story that a boy when told, after he had first read 'Robinson Crusoe,' that it was not true, burst into tears, could not repeat itself in regard to the present Story. The internal harmony forms a kind of internal and circumstantial evidence which will not let readers believe it false in any important point. The writer conceals her sex not only by initials on the title-page, but throughout, while she has reason to be proud of it. Countless particulars, each adding its little utmost of glowworm light to the perfection and charm of her pictures, would have escaped masculine eyes and pens. Her experience of fifteen years in the broadest trapperdom on the globe brought her into touch with those who rule and who serve there from lowest to highest. The revelation thus unveiled to her at once was so fascinating that she sought it again and again, with "a gypsy yearning for the wilds." Her book is a new proof that lookers-on at a game may see more than the players themselves, and will tell its story better.

About one-third of the volume consists in a sketch of the American fur field in the trans-Mississippi—extending at first up to the sources of that river, and thereafter broadening from ocean to ocean, and boundlessly north. We are told of chronic conflicts, corporate, national, and international, for this richest spoil; that while other companies have proved bubbles which the earth as well as the water hath, the Hudson's Bay remains a pyramid; that its sway is undisputed, that its business is, and will continue, as large as ever throughout a region vaster than our settled area. It is claimed that these "Lords of the North" have saved the game and the aborigines, while the United States have destroyed both.

The remaining two-thirds of the volume affords a more detailed account than we know where to seek elsewhere of life and labor in trapperdom. The trapper, isolated like Robinson Crusoe, has a far more scanty kit of tools. How he exists and achieves success in perpetual snow, cold, and want of all things, is a mystery which piqued the curiosity of Miss Laut. The results of her plucking out the heart of it will be welcome news not only to inquisitive children, but to the most thoroughgoing votaries of outing among us. They will here read secrets, gleaned from men who can-

not read, about the ways of beasts in the great lone land which are not written in professional treatises. Some questions here answered are: How does the trapper make his canoe, his moccasins, and skin clothing; how can he contrive snow-shoes that will also serve for snow shovels, and such that he can also "sit on their rear ends and coast as on a toboggan" (p. 120); how does he shoot or "leap" a rapid; how do signs unnoticed by others or unmeaning to them point him to his prey in their hidden lairs; how does he hide his traps so that they are neither seen nor suspected by the ever suspicious; how does he keep warm while a stranger in the same dress is freezing beside him? We learn with wonder that not only a man's track, but the faintest trace of human odor at a trap, means failure. Among tricks for purging away the "man-smell" about traps we read: "The first thing a trapper does who has had a long spell of ill luck is to get a sweating-bath and make himself clean" (p. 152). Usually his main use of fire is to keep wolves off rather than to keep himself warm. Wolves dogging behind a sled are checked by throwing among them a fish which has been specially poisoned. A tree is meaningless to a newcomer, but its moss, branches, their slope and number, are telltales of all the points of the compass to a veteran. But the occult science of the American Siberia must be sought in the disclosures of Miss Laut, which lack nothing but an index and cannot be summarized.

The last word which space allows us must be regarding the expansion of trapperdom forever more and more northward. The farther north the finer the fur, and the finest is to be found only on the white wastes of the polar zone. The fox is said in a proverb to grow gray before he grows good, and in low latitudes his color is such that trappers scorn to take him. Above the Arctic circle, however, and in the dead of winter, the fox blooms into his highest beauty—the silver fox, a nonesuch both for a glory and a covering. He is so hard to catch, and above all to reach in his habitat, that in the palmiest days of the fur-trade half a dozen of the best was the output, and now a single one is the yield of half a dozen years. Yet whoso traps that one, makes his fortune.

Cecilia: A Story of Modern Rome. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

There is a certain fascination in placing very modern frivolous people in surroundings known to all by the traditions of history. The antithesis is very striking, and adds interest to a meagre tale. Mr. Marion Crawford knows Rome well, and has the grip of any amount of local color in things Italian, but his personages remain puppets, and we cannot help seeing the strings that keep them in motion and knowing from the first how it will all end. Cecilia, the heroine of this latest romance of modern Rome, is described as bearing a striking resemblance to the Naples Psyche. She has an immense fortune, is deeply interested in archæology, especially the latest discoveries in the Forum, and has the pretension to divert her life by her desultory studies in philosophy. Notwithstanding the categorical imperative and the sibyllic utterances of Zarathustra, Cecilia Palladio behaves with the want of purpose and frivolity of a mere butterfly of fashion. She is supposed to lead a double life through autosuggestion, and to imagine herself in the past the last of the Vestal Virgins. In her dream state she meets a man whose irresistible power over her is one of the cherished experiences of her existence. The living embodiment of this dream lover she meets by chance at the house of a foreign ex-princess, who is anxious to marry the heiress, for her own purposes, to her nephew, Guido d'Este, whom she introduces to her at the same time with Lamberti. Both Cecilia and Lamberti feel that they must have met before, though it is shown to be impossible. The night after the meeting, they both dream the same dream of a love scene between them in the House of the Vestal Virgins, and in the morning they visit in the Forum the scene of their dream and meet. The girl, terrified at the coincidence, rushes away, and Lamberti can account for her strange behavior only by feeling convinced she has dreamed the same dream which led him thither. Notwithstanding these telepathic experiences, Cecilia accepts Guido d'Este as her affianced husband, and Lamberti honorably avoids her presence. The situation becomes intolerable to Cecilia, who breaks off with Guido d'Este, telling him frankly that she loves another. Malaria and disappointment in love, besides a false imputation on the young man's honor in a foreign newspaper, bring about brain fever, through which he is nursed with devotion by Lamberti, who in the end marries Cecilia, having satisfied all the exigencies which the complications of the case presented. The lack of literary style and the general diffusiveness make the book fall into the category of railway reading.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ball, A. P. The Satire of Seneca on the Apotheosis of Claudius. The Columbia University Press (Macmillan). $1.25.
Ballou, Hosea. A Treatise on Atonement. New ed. Boston: The Universalist Printing House. $1.50.
Bingham, N. W. Rollicking Rhymes of Old and New Times. Henry A. Dickerman & Son.
Black, B. N. First Reader. (Black's Graded Readers.) Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Brandl, Leopold. Erasmus Darwin's Temple of Nature. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller.
Buck, C. W. Under the Sun; or, The Passing of the Incas. Louisville: Sheltman & Co.
Catterall, R. H. The Second Bank of the United States. (Chicago University Decennial Publications.) Chicago: The University Press.
Everett-Green, Evelyn. Short Tales from Storyland. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Gudeman, Alfred. The Sources of Plutarch's Life of Cicero. (Publications of the University of Pennsylvania.) Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Haggard, H. R. Rural England. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $15.
Hale, Anne G. Seedlings from my Wild Garden. Abbey Press.
Hall, C. C. The Lords Baltimore and the Maryland Palatinate. Baltimore: John Murphy Co.
Heimburg, W. Lette Oldenroths Liebe. Leipzig: Ernst Keil. 3 marks.
Holmes, Edmond. The Triumph of Love. John Lane. 3s. 6d.
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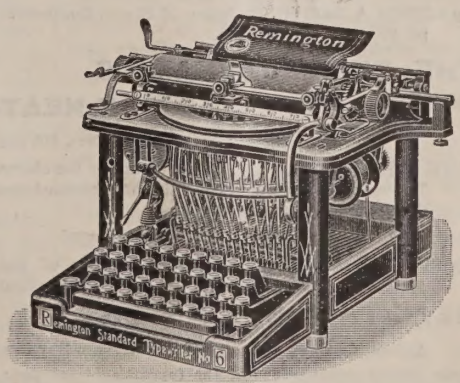

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The poor man replies by introducing a bill for the removal of coal duties for *ninety days.*

Secretary Root learns "with regret" that the Beet-Sugar Association will not permit tariff relief for the Filipinos. Regret is proper enough, but when the Secretary goes on to assert that Oxnard's opposition is unintelligent and "preposterous," and to maintain that the bill should be passed nevertheless, he displays something very like insubordination. Of course, the Constitution makes the President and Secretary of War nominally higher authorities than Oxnard, but the Constitution does not run in the Philippines, and it is only beet-sugar that follows the flag. That Oxnard is fully aware of his own prerogatives, and means boldly to assert them, he makes plain in the little memorandum which he has filed along with his reluctant approval of the Cuban treaty. That act, he explains, must not be taken as an endorsement of reciprocity in general; and all the other reciprocity treaties, he declares, must be beaten. That settles it. Oxnard has exercised the veto power. *Bos locutus est.*

President Roosevelt, finally realizing the true condition of our Filipino subjects, has turned to the Congress which rejected his pleas for the Cubans, to beg $3,000,000 to keep our wards from dying of starvation in the fifth year of the American reign. The Philippine Commission has already spent $15,000,000 for the same purpose out of the insular revenues. Now it asks further aid lest the Filipinos die by thousands for lack of food, and under the flag that has been forced upon them against their will. The President, who now declares that the enactment of relief measures for the betterment of the Philippine Islands is "imperatively demanded by the situation in those islands," and who solemnly asserts that "serious calamity may come from failure to enact them," is the same Theodore Roosevelt who, on December 2, doubted whether the modern world had seen a "better example of real constructive statesmanship than our people have given in the Philippine Islands." In his entire reference to the unfortunate archipelago there were only words of praise and gratulation—of rejoicing, that is, over a situation which did not exist. The least that Congress can do is to vote the Filipinos, without loss of time, the sums necessary to keep them from dying of starvation. To end a similar horror in Cuba, the nation rushed into war in 1898. To relieve destitution in Armenia and India, our generous people put their hands deep down in their pockets and gave freely of their means. Chambers of commerce, churches, and philanthropic organizations vied with each other in this work of humanity. To give less freely now would be to notify the world that our own subjects are held less dear by us than those of other nations.

We are at a loss to understand the President's action in interfering to prevent, if possible, the choice of a Mormon Apostle as Republican Senator from Utah. In the first place, it looks like unfair discrimination. Mr. Roosevelt has disclaimed the right to interpose in Delaware to block the pure ambition of Addicks. Even in his own State, where it is proposed to return a notorious political corruptionist to the Senate, the President makes no sign of disapproval. Quay made his fight for reëlection in Pennsylvania, and the White House was dumb. What has Utah done, thus to lose among sovereign States her equal right to disgrace herself? Then, why object to an Apostle? The candidate in question, Apostle Smoot, is not a polygamist. He has made himself the head of the Republican party in Utah—"redeemed" the State, in fact, from Democratic control—and why should he not have the reward that goes with that position? Addicks has no clearer title, yet the President respects his; why draw the line at Smoot? It cannot be said that the latter, as an Apostle, would be out of place in the Senate. A certain apostolic succession already obtains in the Senate, if we may accept a witticism current in high circles in Washington. The common way there of discriminating between the two Senators named Platt is to refer to Senator Platt of Connecticut as "Judas *not* Iscariot." Apostle Smoot would be perfectly at home with his New York brother who carries the bag. If the House of Lords has its bishops, why should not the Senate have its Apostle? It was said by Dickinson in the debates in the Constitutional Convention that the true aim was, by "a refining process," to make the Senate as much like the English House of Lords as possible. It seems to us that the refining process which has given us hereditary legislators like Quay and Platt, and promises to furnish us a knight of gas and bribery like Addicks, might easily justify the introduction of a Mormon Apostle into the Senate, as the nearest approach to a lord spiritual that we have.

Time and the Supreme Court have vindicated the decision made by Mr. Gage as Secretary of the Treasury on the Russian sugar bounty question. He held that an export bounty was paid by Russia, although the Russian Government denied it. Accordingly, he ordered the imposition of a countervailing duty un-

der the Dingley Act. The Russian Government replied by levying extra duties on a large number of articles of export from the United States, by which means a very promising trade was crippled. This condition of affairs still exists. It is much to be regretted that our exporters of iron and steel and machinery of various kinds should be deprived of a market which they had fairly won, since somebody else has done something else somewhere else; but the facts show that Secretary Gage had no option.

The passage of the Army Staff Bill by the House gives fresh ground for the belief that it will speedily become a law. While it is not a perfect measure, as Secretary Root has frankly admitted, it is a long step in the right direction. One by one the arguments against it have been met and shown to be without foundation. The cry that this was a foreign innovation was effectively answered by Gen. Corbin recently, who explained that it was the Americanization of a good European idea. The United States is certainly as much entitled to profit by a foreign advance in military organization as the Germans were by our riflepits and mounted infantry, as developed in the civil war. Gen. Miles's denunciation of the general staff plan was so plainly inspired by ill-will and was so completely answered by Gens. Schofield and Davis as to have been already forgotten. As for the Representative who declared that the bill merely created a fancy corps of officers to loaf in Washington without anything to do, he apparently had not even read the bill, and had certainly not studied its provisions. The army as a whole will heartily welcome this vital and far-reaching change, the attainment of which seemed quite hopeless five years ago. The only doubt expressed by army officers is whether the general staff will not be used by a certain ring of War Department officers for the continuance of the great influence they now possess, and even to increase it. The answer to this is that any army organization can be perverted if the executive authorities are bent upon having political influences control. If some future President awards the general staff places for purely political reasons, the desirability of the general staff itself will not be affected thereby. Fortunately, President Roosevelt has pledged himself to keep politics out of the army during his administration.

Answers filed on Monday by the railways to the Interstate Commission's inquiry regarding the rate advances, follow closely the line of President Ramsey's statement of last November. The Norfolk and Western replies that, since 1899, the company's annual bill for coal has increased 53 per cent., gasolene 100 per cent., nails 116 per cent., pig iron 124 per cent., coke 300 per cent., freight axles 70 per cent., and other materials in proportion. The Baltimore and Ohio, speaking more generally, declares that rise in cost of materials, during the two past years, has ranged from 39 per cent. for cotton waste to 164 per cent. for linseed oil. Mr. Ramsey's comparison, it will be recalled, was with 1897; since when, according to his company's figures, total annual cost of material and supplies had risen 237 per cent. Within the same time, average freight rates per ton per mile, and average passenger rates per mile, had decreased 10 per cent. In view of the fact that a very considerable increase in wages, even above the high rate already prevalent, has just been granted, the companies maintain that the raising of rates is fair and just. We fully agree with their position in this regard, and we are confident that the Commission will similarly endorse it. The proposed advance in rates is so far from a radical or extortionate measure, that it does little if anything more than restore the tariffs in force a year or two ago. If the railways were merely arguing that they ought to have a larger share in the profits of "good times," their position would be open to criticism. The more puzzling part of the question is, whether increased revenue, due to higher rates, will or will not offset increased expenses.

Gov. Odell's declaration, on Saturday, that he was in favor of Platt's reëlection, and that he would do "all in his power" to bring it about, was instantly branded as tricky and insincere in the columns of the *Sun*. But is it not degradation enough to have been compelled to come out for Platt? By so doing, Mr. Odell has made it evident that, to carry out his own plans, he is willing to consent to an act which he knows to be both harmful to the State and repugnant to the moral sense of his party. He is ready to sacrifice party morality to party regularity, and to follow a boss instead of convictions. There is, of course, nothing surprising in this to those who have watched Gov. Odell's recent course. His former readiness to appeal to the best elements of his party and of the State, he has shown increasing signs of intending to abandon, and to make himself simply a politician in office, prepared to stoop to any alliance to further his ends. This is bad enough, but we will not assume with the Platt organ that he means secretly to work against the man whose election he professes to desire.

We observe that the revolt of the three Republican Senators is proving a serious blow to our esteemed brethren of the up-State Republican press. Editors who have long been accustomed to receive ready-made editorials from the party boss along with their orders for county printing, were quite unable to realize at first that their mentor and benefactor was no longer supreme. They generally viewed with contempt the *Evening Post's* efforts to present to the public the truth about Platt, simply replying that he would be reëlected without Republican opposition. Doubtless they were instructed to this effect. A few grew suspicious even before the revolt, but when that came, panicky conditions developed rapidly, as they say in the market reports. Ready-made editorials were hastily removed from the forms, and innocuous discussions of such topics as "The National Debt of Turkey," "Arbitration in Germany," etc., were substituted. Editors who were bold enough to comment on the revolt at all, exhibited diplomatic tendencies. While deprecating any interference with the carrying out of Republican politics, they hastened to draw attention to the fact that the three Senators were still Republicans, having refused to join with the Democrats in electing the President *pro tem.* The attitude was one of mild rebuke which, if need be, could be shaded off later into acquiescence. Meanwhile, between every two lines could be read the question: Who is behind it all? They are still asking the same question.

Gen. Greene's conception of the duties of a Police Commissioner is certainly an original one, as Commissioners go in this city. He actually sees for himself whether the laws are enforced on Sunday, and has no hesitation in suspending without pay a captain in whose district he found an open violation of the liquor law. Moreover, he suspended the offender in his own station-house, where the latter was caught performing police duty in street clothes. If this official is promptly tried and punished, the effect upon his brother officers should be electrical. While Gen. Greene has as yet made no statement of the Administration's present intention in regard to the enforcement of the Excise Law, his actions are beginning to speak louder than words. He stated on Sunday, moreover, that New York would still be far from a "dry" city on Sunday if the law should be rigidly enforced. By this, we take it, he meant that the Raines Law hotels would still give abundant opportunities to those who must indulge in spirituous liquors every day in the week. This is a point the public constantly overlooks when mention is made of a general Sunday closing.

To be sought at once by District Attorney Jerome and by the greatest living painter must be counted a distinction, and Mr. Richard A. Canfield, as he sits for Whistler in London, may have a certain satisfaction in the thought that the District Attorney is "laying for" him in New York. A man hardly changes his heart with his residence; but Mr. Canfield abroad gives simply an impression of intelligent connoisseurship; at home

he looks like a rather common proprietor of a great gambling establishment. It is fair to say that he has never played the collector against the croupier. His patrons are not of a kind to be attracted by his Chippendale furniture or his impressionist landscapes. His patronage of art is at least disinterested, if he does keep roulette wheels and the like behind his arras. There need be no confusion of mind in distinguishing between the accomplished amateur and the proprietor of various gaming "clubs." Mr. Canfield has never confused the two characters. We do not know where Mr. Canfield's pictures and porcelain are going, or what will be the end of Mr. Canfield the collector. If it were certain that his art treasures were going to the Metropolitan Museum, and he himself to heaven, we presume that the District Attorney still would exert every effort to send him meanwhile to State's prison. Stone walls may not a prison make, nor iron bars a cage for the art patron; for the gambling-house proprietor they will do very well indeed.

A report made to Mayor Low by the Municipal Art Society recommends the appointment of a commission to consider broadly the judicious development of the city. The need of a comprehensive plan of public improvements becomes greater as the growth of the city becomes more rapid. Already lack of foresight in providing for parks and public-building sites alone has cost New York millions of dollars, and the preliminary project of the Municipal Art Society, though it certainly calls for vast sums jauntily enough, might easily prove an economy in the long run. The commission which the Mayor is asked to appoint would not be in any exclusive sense an art committee. It would study all matters that affect primarily the appearance and, next, the convenience of this city. Thus it would not only deal with parks, public buildings, and monuments, but would also coöperate with the bodies which have the control of the rapid-transit system and of the river front, to the end that all public improvements be carried out with an eye to the sightliness of the city as a whole. It will be felt that the usefulness of such a commission will depend upon the sagacity with which it keeps clear of fads and remembers the present condition of the city treasury. On the artistic side, such a commission could give the Mayor valuable suggestions; on the business side, it would do well to work upon lines of expenditure laid down by him. Otherwise there will be no check upon planning costly castles in the air.

The Statute-Revision Commission of Minnesota has discovered a way to remedy a defect in the direct-nomination law. When it was first applied in Hennepin County, the Australian ballot provisions were adhered to strictly, each voter at the primary receiving a ticket which bore the names of the candidates of all the parties. This furnished the opportunity for unscrupulous voters in one party to foist on the other party the weakest of its candidates—a trick which the Minneapolis Democrats are said to have played on their political opponents. It was a game at which two could play, and it was apparent that a law framed to secure the best nominees might be perverted to choose the worst. Even the most strenuous of ballot reformers had to consent to a division of the primary tickets by parties, the limitation of each voter to one ticket, and a declaration by him of party affiliation. Abandonment of the secrecy of the ballot was a smaller evil than the other. Now, by a simple device, both evils can be cured. The commission is to recommend that all the tickets be printed on one ballot, but that a voter be restricted to "checking" the candidates of one party only, any attempt to "split" the ticket making it void. Adoption by the Legislature of such an amendment would meet a general criticism, and increase the interest in the Minnesota experiment.

A time-honored vicious circle appears in rejuvenated guise in the first annual message of Gov. Bates of Massachusetts. Speaking of State contracts, he declares that to award them outside the State reduces prosperity, which reduces taxable resources and, consequently, revenue. On that theory, the more you save money by accepting bids from foreign contractors, the more you impoverish the State and impair its ability to meet its contracts. *Vice versa*, by spending enough money at home you can increase your revenues indefinitely. Such, in its crudest form, is the familiar doctrine of keeping the money, or the trade, at home. But Gov. Bates has worked out a calculus by which State boards may be guided in concrete instances.

> "Boards and commissions should make certain, when work is awarded by them to contractors outside because their bids are less than the bids of those within the State, that the saving to the Commonwealth is sufficiently great not only to pay the extra cost of inspection of the product thus manufactured at a distance, but also adequately to compensate the Commonwealth for its indirect loss through the loss to its own wage-earners by reason of the work being done elsewhere."

It might be objected that the calculation of the "indirect loss" on a given contract is a difficult one. Should this be said, Gov. Bates has still another reason for keeping the contracts at home. Bids by contractors from States which have other labor laws (permitting longer hours of labor, for example) than those of Massachusetts, are in the nature of the case suspect:

> "In other words, it is unjust to our own manufacturers to require them, while conforming to the laws of our Commonwealth in regard to the employment of labor, to compete with outside manufacturers who do not conform to such laws, and who, for that reason alone, are able to underbid our own manufacturers in the competition."

Here again is a calculation which it would baffle a trained statistician to make with accuracy. Massachusetts contractors are not likely to suffer under the test either of "indirect loss" or unfair competition. This economic know-nothingism of Gov. Bates comes with singular ill grace from the chief executive of Massachusetts.

The *National Geographic Magazine*, Washington, for January, appears to be in a mood of sardonic humor akin to that of the ancient Sphynx. It propounds, on a postal card, a series of riddles that nobody can possibly answer. The first one is embraced in the title of a so-called note: "Is Germany the cause of Denmark's refusal to sell her West Indian possessions?" Of course, nobody who knows the damning facts is going to reveal them, and nobody else can. Assuming, however, that Germany has been guilty in this particular, the next question comes: "Why?" What was her motive for thus interfering with *our* purchase of those islands? To this question the national geographer gives his own answer, thus:

> "It is well known that Germany has always wanted Denmark, and if, by some peaceable means, the kingdom of Denmark should become a state of the German Empire, the Danish West Indies would not have changed sovereigns, but yet the German fleet could have its station there."

Which would, of course, make us all shake in our shoes. For, although England has had us hemmed in by naval stations at Halifax, Bermuda, Nassau, and various other neighboring places for more than a hundred years, and we have never considered ourselves in any danger therefrom, yet if Germany should have one station in West Indian waters what would become of the universal Yankee nation? But the last geographical query is the one which stumps us, namely: "Would the Monroe Doctrine interfere with this arrangement?" More than usual gloom attaches to this problem because, in order to answer it, one must know what the Monroe Doctrine is. As we do not know, and as we consider the question put to us at our peril by virtue of the postal card on which it comes, we answer it by asking a few others, viz.:

> "If England and France should have a war, and England should capture all the French West Indies, would the Monroe Doctrine interfere?
>
> "If France should capture all the English islands, would the Doctrine interfere?
>
> "If each of the belligerents should lose its own islands and capture the other's, would the Doctrine have anything to say about that?"

There are Swedish and Dutch islands in Caribbean waters also, but we shall not put any more cross-interrogations to the Sphynx till the foregoing are answered.

THE PRESIDENT'S MINIMUM.

We could barely mention last week the authorized statement from the White House of the least that the President will accept from Congress in the matter of anti-Trust legislation. It must be, to his confident Western admirers, a disappointing minimum. Is the whole valiant programme of last summer to be whittled down to this? All that the President now urges is such an amendment of the law as will prevent common carriers from giving rebates or making discriminations. This, and a commission of inquiry, is the sum of his asking. The Republicans in Congress will, no doubt, give him his commission. Inquire till the crack of doom, provided you do nothing. Commissions mean salaries, and as for salaries, Congressmen have a vested right to place them where they will do the most good. Whether the President will obtain his desired legislation to prevent "discriminatory practices affecting interstate trade," is much more doubtful. He will not if the Republican leaders think that thereby the interests of their clients, the Trusts, will be at all threatened.

This is the great truth which Mr. Roosevelt is in the painful way of finding out. He is in the hands of his enemies. The managers of his party have not the slightest idea of accepting his plan of campaign against the Trusts. They will listen to him, they will humor him, they will praise him; but they will do nothing. This is the ugly fact which, in Huxley's phrase, is killing the beautiful theory of President Roosevelt. His announcement of what he will take to cry quits, is necessarily written *diminuendo*. It threatens him with classification in his own category of contempt—"men who mean well but cannot do things." At best, and on his own showing, he is but a half-way doer, and cannot blame us if his Trust thunderings in the index, compared with his final pleas, remind us of the lines in the *Anti-Jacobin:*

> "That ardent soul
> Who went on half a mission to the frozen pole,
> And then returning from th' half-finished work,
> Wrote half a letter to demolish Burke."

If it be said that the President has, in the end, discovered the immense difficulty of drafting a law to reach the evils of Trusts, the proper comment is (1) that he should have thought of that at the beginning, and (2) that he should not have put away the one definite remedy which lay at his hand, and which could have been enacted into law by a bill of three lines. We mean, of course, the shearing away of the tariff privileges of Trusts. But that did not enter into the President's soaring thoughts. His mind was filled with the idea of regulation, and publicity, and the prevention of over-capitalization, and discrimination between good monopolies and bad ones. But all of that he has now thrown by the board, and calls upon Congress to prevent Trusts from enjoying railway rebates. On these, he says, they "fatten." Possibly, but we know that some of them fatten on tariff duties, so why not ask Congress to apply the Banting method to them at that point, too?

The reason given by the President in his message—repeating the cry first raised, we believe, by that sworn enemy of monopoly, Senator Aldrich—was that "the small producer" would suffer if the tariff advantages of Trusts were cut off. But observe how his more recent statement utterly refutes this former argument of his own. "Small enterprises," he now says, "have certain advantages over large combinations, and will *live and thrive if assured of an open and fair field.*" Not a word about the tariff as the parent of their prosperity! The Attorney-General is even more explicit on this point. "Small individual enterprises not uncommonly spring up and thrive within the shadow of the larger ones, . . . realizing large profits because of the close economies possible through direct, personal, interested management." At one blow the boasted superior economies of Trusts knocked on the head, and the last vestige of brains dashed out of the "small producer"! It is time this defunct fraud were decently buried.

"I can easily," said Senator Hoar last week, "understand the impatience and indignation" of men who see "an artificial being, with an artificial capital and an artificial stock, crushing out all domestic competition by an adroit and illegal artifice, and getting control of the home market." We should think so, if he reads the Massachusetts papers! And the venerable Senator said that he did not "wonder" that the remedy of removing the tariff had "occurred to some good men." He said it was even "worth thinking of," which is a great concession from so stiff a protectionist. But he thought he could find a "better" remedy—namely, in that anti-Trust bill of his own, of which he presently said that it was "exceedingly imperfect," might need to be modified in "all of its provisions," but was "all I have to offer to-day"! This is to make the whole anti-Trust movement ridiculous. President Roosevelt, after frank abandonment of his original grandiose programme, and his humble request for one crumb of comfort in the shape of legislation against rebates, cannot shut his ears to the rising cry for relief by the route of tariff legislation, without bringing his own sincerity under grave suspicion.

EFFECTIVE PUBLIC SPEAKING.

Senator Vest, whose mind burns clear in the midst of his failing bodily powers, has just shown, in his running debate on the coal tax with the Republican all-comers, what degree of truth there is in the current laments about the decline of oratory. An orator in the traditional sense Mr. Vest never was, even in his prime. He had neither the physical presence, nor the voice, nor the personal magnetism—nor even the finished rhetorical art—which we associate with great public speaking. But he was always a formidable debater; and the ready way in which he bowled over one Republican Senator after another, and the eager attention with which this feeble old man was listened to by both floor and gallery, bore witness to the fact that decay had not yet touched his nimble intellect.

What are the qualities which make his antagonists dread him? First—and especially in tariff questions, where he has ever been masterly—sound information. He knows whereof he affirms. Many a glib protectionist, like Senator Hale on one occasion, has had reason to regret challenging Senator Vest's accuracy. He goes documented as a cowboy goes armed, and the result of an encounter is as dangerous in one case as in the other. Then he is perfectly fearless and honest. He is willing to tell the truth and shame, not merely the devil (many a man is ready to do that), but, what is much rarer, shame his own party. Otherwise, he could not have made so overwhelming a retort as that with which he silenced Senator Aldrich. That gentleman took occasion to sneer at Mr. Vest's free-trade opinions, as held "only when they did not count." Why had not the Democratic party, when in power, done what it now rebuked the Republican party for not doing? "We wanted to," was the Missouri Senator's response, as swift as lightning, "but the same interests which you now represent 'held up' the Senate then as they are doing to-day." What are you going to do with a man who thus speaks the thing he will, whether girt by friend or foe? In biting description, too, Senator Vest has a tongue to make corruption wince—as witness this condensed and truthful account of a protective tariff:

> "I have had occasion to say, and I repeat it deliberately, the tariff is an interdependent mutuality of greed. When you once establish it, it is established for all time to come, never to be reduced if it is possible to prevent reduction. The protected industries are like a brood of English sparrows. When one gives a cry of distress, the air is darkened with the whole brood rushing to its rescue."

By an instructive coincidence, we find Justin McCarthy writing in last week's *Outlook* of a speaker who has the ear of the House of Commons in as remarkable a degree as Senator Vest has that of the Senate, yet who is also no orator, in the conventional meaning of the word. It is Mr. Bryce of whom he is speaking. This scholar, this professor, who uses a conversational tone and discards all oratorical graces, fills the House with interested listeners as can few men not members of the Government and speaking with the weight of official authority.

Let the word go round the library or smoking-room, "Bryce is up," and there is a rush into the House. Everybody knows that he is speaking because he has something to say. Mr. McCarthy reports hearing Conservative members grumble a little at being compelled to drop book or letter or cigar and hear a man whom they could not afford to disregard. "Bryce is on his legs—I must go in and hear what he has to say."

Here again we see the power of solid information and intellectual honesty to command a hearing. It has been said of Lord Brougham's highly wrought and prolix oratory that the listener was sure he was being bored, and was not sure he was being instructed. But the man who is saturated in matter, as Mr. Bryce is, leaves no doubt on the latter point. The speaker who knows, who can condense and still be lucid—avoiding that chief sin of "putting a plain thing so as to perplex and mislead a plain man"—need complain of no decline in the effectiveness of public oratory, whatever be his audience.

If there be, indeed, any real decline in Congressional or Parliamentary speaking, we think it is more the fault of the hearer than the speaker. As party tyranny and the caucus control the voting on more and more subjects, the main nerve of oratory—the desire to persuade—is more and more cut through. "You have changed my convictions, but not my vote," is a compliment which may provoke a smile on the face of the powerful debater, but it certainly will not encourage him to renewed effort. Gladstone's oratorical impulse was brilliantly analyzed by Bagehot; he believed he could convince his audience; "he knows an argument which will be effective, one for one and another for another; he has an enthusiasm which he feels will rouse the most apathetic, an illustration which he hopes will drive his meaning into the heads of the stolid." But suppose the orator knows that the weight of voting is absolutely determined in advance, no matter what the weight of argument be? His only remedy is to speak over the heads of his immediate hearers to the country at large. That, in truth, is the resource to which Congressional debaters are more and more driven. They turn from Senators whose intellects are chained to party, and address the people still possessed of open minds. Otherwise they could not speak at all, except with the metallic iteration of a phonograph. And, as we say, with the persuadable, with those who do not require the orator to furnish them an intellect as well as reasons, there is no real ground for thinking that pungent and informed public speaking has lost its power.

GOV. ODELL'S MESSAGE.

By his message, Gov. Odell has practically washed his hands of canal improvement. He has thrown the entire responsibility on the Legislature, where, indeed, it properly belongs, carefully refraining from specific recommendations of his own. He does say that he favors the 1,000-ton barge canal, and that he has become convinced that the only feasible route is along the more costly interior line; but while affirming these conclusions, he presents to the Legislature the most serious arguments against any large expenditures for canal improvements. He gives also the details of a plan for increasing the speed of canal boats through a nine-foot waterway, by the use of electric motors served by water power supplied by the State. He computes the cost of the proposed barge canal, adding together the original estimates and the interest charge for fifty years, with an allowance of 20 per cent. for contingencies, and arrives at the somewhat startling sum of $255,000,000, from which, however, he states that the interest on the sinking fund should be deducted.

These figures are certain to have a very chilling effect upon rural members who might be inclined to support the canal bill. On the other hand, it should be remembered that nothing could more seriously menace the ultimate success of canal enlargement than another attempt to belittle its cost. The blow at the canals dealt by those who, in 1895, carried through a $9,000,000 appropriation, knowing that the amount was hopelessly inadequate to accomplish the work proposed, was well-nigh fatal. The Governor evidently intends that no such mistake shall be made again. It seems hardly fair, however, to lump the principal and interest together and call the result the total cost of the canal, without making any account of the benefits derived from the work concurrently with the payments of interest. Engineer Bond estimates the cost of the interior barge canal by the present route modified, at about $80,000,000. It is true that this sum, with the aggregate of the interest for fifty years added, would amount to $200,000,000, but only the $80,000,000 would represent bonded indebtedness. The interest during the entire fifty years might or might not be a charge which the people would have to pay. If tolls were reimposed on the completed canal, or if some other system were devised for collecting the interest and maintenance cost from the canal traffic, it would not be a charge upon the State, and it is therefore clearly misleading to embrace the original cost and the interest as a single item.

There is a touch of unconscious humor in the Governor's warning against hasty conclusions as to the proper remedy to be applied. The canals are to-day substantially as they were in 1862, with the exception of a few improvements in locks and the worthless construction under the $9,000,000 appropriation of 1895. The subject has been considered in one form or another almost every year since 1862. This does not indicate any great danger of drawing hasty conclusions. The fact is, moreover, that every possible excuse for delay has now been exhausted, and all further attempts at postponement must be recognized as hostile to any canal improvement whatever. An expensive survey of all possible routes has been made, a well-equipped commission has reported, all possible data are now available. The question is presented to the Legislature without the embarrassment of specific recommendations from the Governor, such as those of 1901 and 1902. But one thing now remains, and that is definite, final action by the Legislature, submitting some canal project to the people.

Gov. Odell's recommendation of the repeal of the Special Franchise Tax with substitution in its place of a tax on gross earnings, has started a fresh discussion of a subject which had fallen into comparative neglect. Everybody knew that the matter was before the courts on questions of Constitutionality, and everybody had confidence that these would be decided rightly in the course of time. There was no disposition in any disinterested quarter to abandon the principle of the franchise tax merely because the machinery for carrying it into effect might be pronounced obnoxious to the Constitution. On the contrary, the settled opinion of the State was in substantial agreement with that of Gov. Roosevelt, as declared by himself in an interview at Rochester shortly after the present litigation began: "The franchise tax has come to stay." Now Gov. Odell says that the franchise tax seems to him, through the few years that it has been in operation, to be "inequitable and a source of annoyance and constant litigation." A tax is usually an annoyance to those who are called upon to pay it. There is constant litigation on the subject of taxes of all kinds. The litigation referred to by the Governor was not instigated by the public authorities. It was not of their seeking. If blame is to be cast on anybody, it must fall upon those who procured the amendment of the law and then attacked it on the ground that the amendments were unconstitutional.

But if we concede that the Special Franchise Tax is a source of annoyance and litigation, is it also inequitable? That question was very fully debated at the time of its enactment, and the contrary opinion prevailed. It prevailed against lobby influences of great strength and skill, backed by all the force of the Republican machine. The bill was passed because public opinion demanded it. It might have been inequitable for all that, but all the presumptions were in favor of its fairness and justice. If anybody affirms that it was inequitable, the burden of proof is on him. The law provides simply that

the franchise, or right to use public highways for certain purposes, such as street railways, pipe lines, conduits, etc., shall be included in the assessments of real estate for purposes of taxation. In other words, this kind of property is required to pay, according to its value, just the same rate of tax as the lots, houses, stores, and factories alongside. Provision is made for deducting any other tax paid by the corporation, and there is not a doubt that all such taxes will be marshalled in fullest magnitude by the corporations before the assessment is confirmed. Nor is there any doubt that full and fair consideration will be given by the taxing authorities and the courts to all such payments. Where, then, do we find the inequitable features of the Franchise Tax Law?

There is a maxim of fiscal science that we ought not to tax the things that can run away or hide themselves. Personal property of this sort does generally escape taxation, either with or without law, and the better opinion of publicists is that no attempt should be made to tax such things, since in the few cases where the tax is enforceable, it falls upon the few citizens who are too honest to dodge their taxes, or upon widows and orphans and the more helpless classes of the community. So the practice in most of the cities of New York is to put five-sixths of the taxes on real estate, simply because real estate cannot depart from the jurisdiction or hide itself, or otherwise escape payment. There is no other reason in the world why real estate should be thus overtaxed, as compared with personal property. The common belief is that the personal property in Greater New York exceeds in value the real estate therein; yet the assessment rolls of the latter foot up $3,330,647,579, while the former stands at only $526,400,139. Now, the franchises to use streets for railway and other purposes stand upon exactly the footing of real estate as regards the reasons for including them in the assessment rolls at their true value: if they are so included, they cannot escape the jurisdiction, they cannot hide, they cannot dodge. This is the very reason why the owners of these franchises fought the tax so desperately. This is the reason why they now want to try some other plan. They want to put themselves back into some category where they will have opportunity to avoid paying a fair price for the privileges which they enjoy. They complain of the great increase of taxation as though they were the only ones thus mulcted. Have the owners of real estate suffered nothing in that way since Greater New York came into being?

SUCCESS OF THE TENEMENT LAW.

It is already evident that the annual battle for tenement-house reform will have to be fought over again during the present session of the New York Legislature. No radical improvement in tenement conditions can fail to excite antagonism. There are the builders, whose profits are in direct ratio to the poor quality of the houses put up; the loan operators, who do a thriving business in financing the builders; the property owners, who sell them lots; the material men, who supply the lumber, brick, mortar, and paint. All these interests are now preparing for another onslaught upon the building-law passed in 1901. In Brooklyn the law was made an issue in the recent election, and in one Senatorial district the successful candidate was avowedly for its repeal. Gov. Odell recommends its amendment, as it was understood he would do, and a bill for that purpose has already been introduced.

Yet opponents of the new law have surely chosen their time badly for a campaign against it. A year ago its success was not clearly demonstrated. At present, however, all that the advocates of the reform have to do is to point to the actual results already achieved. In their light, no reasonable opposition can stand. Despite adverse circumstances, more than three hundred new tenement-houses are now under way in Manhattan and the Bronx. Their aggregate cost is more than $17,000,000. Just now, it must be remembered, the cost of building and of building materials is abnormally high. Slow delivery of structural steel is a constant bar to building operations, and, owing to the condition of the money market, there is considerable difficulty in placing building loans. Moreover, the additional supply of tenement-houses last year was out of all proportion to the immediate demand. When it became known that the new law would be signed by Gov. Odell, there was a scramble among architects and builders to get in plans under the less stringent statute. From January 1 to April 12, 1901, plans for nearly 1,000 new houses of the old type were filed. Of these more than 700 were actually built and thrown upon the market. Yet, in spite of all this, there was a certain amount of tenement construction on new lines last year, though nothing comparable to the marked activity of the past few months.

The new building movement is not confined to any one section. Scores of houses are going up alike for the accommodation of the Hebrews of the lower East Side, the denizens of Little Italy, the negro population west of Seventh Avenue, and the high-class apartment dwellers bordering on Central Park, to say nothing of the constant growth of Harlem. The effect is visible in the real-estate market, where the demand for tenement-house sites is now the most notable factor. The truth is, the builders have discovered that there is a great demand for houses built under the new law. These tenements rent far better than the old type, and there is an active investment demand for them. Last fall the first batch of the new houses—about thirty—was ready for occupancy, and the tenement public was not slow in finding out the difference between them and the old ones. Especially was this true in the congested East Side. There the jerry-builder had been most rampant. On the one hand, the old-time houses of a former prosperous generation have been altered to furnish accommodations for ten or twelve families instead of one; while, on the other, there have been reared, by the hundred, six and seven-story tenements, in which three and four families have been huddled on each floor. Practically no provision for ventilation was made in these houses, and the occupants had to struggle for light and air, as well as for food and shelter. All the new houses, however, contain air courts of a minimum width of six feet, and there is not a window in one of them that does not open directly upon the outer air. The meagre airshafts and dark rooms of the familiar "dumb-bell" type are abolished; the narrow passageways have given place to lighted private halls; the plumbing and the sanitary arrangements are up-to-date.

The eagerness with which the tenement population take advantage of the new opportunities disposes of the stock argument against tenement reform. Its opponents have repeatedly asserted that the tenement population gets as good as it deserves; that it prefers to live in filth; that the ordinary decencies of life, to say nothing of its refinements, do not attract it in the least. Certain mythical bathtubs, installed in model tenements by misguided philanthropists, and utilized as coal bins by the occupants, have always figured in discussions of housing reform. The fact is, however, that there has been little less than a rush for the new houses, and this in spite of the fact that the rentals are considerably higher than in the old type of building. The evidence is conclusive that the tenement sections have been more than ready for these light and airy houses. Nor is there complaint that the renters do not utilize and care for their every convenience and comfort.

What argument there can be for repealing or amending the new law it is very difficult to see. It is one of the greatest steps forward in civilization that we have taken for years. The best class of builders do not ask that it be retraced. They are perfectly satisfied with the new régime. But there is always a certain faction, more noisy than numerous, who object to the slightest official interference with their operations. All improvement in housing conditions has been made, little by little, in the teeth of opposition from this selfish source. Enlightened public sentiment, however, has always routed them before,

and we do not doubt that it will be able to repel their latest attack.

A YEAR'S PROGRESS IN SOUTHERN EDUCATION.

"Unofficial statesmanship" was the name given by Dr. Felix Adler on Thursday evening to the efforts of the General Education and Southern Education Boards to uplift the South; and he added that unofficial statesmanship in various fields is doing more to advance the nation than all the legislators in the Union. Every one who has looked into the activities of these two Boards, or who heard their work described at the meeting in Carnegie Hall on Friday evening, must be deeply impressed with the value of the patriotic and unselfish work being done in their name. They have been still further defined as organized philanthropy working on business lines, and taking advantage of the corporate spirit which is characteristic of the hour in our industrial development.

The field of activity into which these Boards have entered lay ready for tilling when they began their work. The South had already developed leaders who recognized its educational needs, like Dr. Alderman, President of Tulane University; Dr. McIver, head of one of the leading Southern colleges for women; and Dr. Dabney of the University of Tennessee—all among the speakers at Carnegie Hall. They had perceived, moreover, that in this question of education is involved the moral, social, and industrial development of both races which populate the South. Sparsely inhabited in stretches, and with more than 90 per cent. of its people leading a rural life, for the most part wholly out of touch with the outside world, it became evident to those leaders and to the Northerners like Mr. Robert C. Ogden and Mr. W. H. Baldwin, jr., who became interested, that the South needed an educational revival before all else. It is characteristic of the wisdom with which the movement has been launched that it began at once to work through the Southerners whose eyes could not bear to look upon the ignorance, illiteracy, and backwardness so notable in their section. These men are now the active field agents of the new movement. They are on the firing line in a battle for civilization, the echoes of which are to be heard far beyond the shores of our own country. "It is a work," declared Mr. Michael Sadler, a well-known English educational authority, after returning from the South last summer, "which is not merely national, but international, in character."

The General Education Board, which took shape a year ago, but whose home office in this city was not organized until April last, has made the rural school its objective. It supplies the moneys it receives from individuals to the furtherance of this cause; while the Southern Educational Board strives to create a thirst for education throughout the Southland. The General Board early decided that its best way of approaching the public schools was through the State and county superintendents and departments of education. It began at once to arrange for State conferences with these officials in order to explain its objects, to get information as to local needs, and to insist upon the necessity of local taxation for school purposes. Three of these conferences have been held, in Georgia, North Carolina, and Louisiana; those in Virginia, Alabama, and Florida are arranged for. They have already excited remarkable enthusiasm and much valuable discussion, particularly on the subjects of taxation, the education of the negro, the consolidation of school districts, the transportation of pupils, and the beautifying of schoolhouses and grounds. In North Carolina the work of consolidation has progressed so rapidly that the Board's agent is able to report the abolition of one school district for every other day in the year 1902, and the building of a schoolhouse every day in the year.

Each State has its separate and individual problems, every one of which must be carefully considered. In North Carolina, for instance, there is a liberal statutory provision for local taxation. The task here is to induce the districts to vote it. In Guilford County the Board offered to duplicate all private subscriptions up to $4,000 in each district where a special local tax was levied for free public schools. A steady campaign on behalf of local taxation has been made by Gov. Aycock and leading politicians and educators. In Georgia, there being practically no Constitutional permission to levy local taxes for schools, the movement naturally takes on a different aspect. Here the Board has lent its means and influence to the lengthening of the term and to consolidating schools in order to show how little taxation would be required to improve and enlarge them. In this case it has given money only where the citizens have done their share in raising funds.

But the Board has been active in many other directions. It is establishing a model school for negroes near Athens, Ga. Contributions aggregating $60,000 have been made to fourteen schools for colored people, with the special object of educating teachers. Summer schools for colored teachers have been established at Hampton and Tuskegee, and the Board is coöperating with six summer schools for white teachers. It has given varying sums to schools for the training of white teachers, for example, at Athens, Ga., Knoxville, Tenn., Greensboro, N. C., and Troy and Montevallo, Ala. Meanwhile, its New York office is becoming a storehouse of information about every school district and every college or normal school in the South. And this is merely part of the astonishing record of nine months of activity. Hitherto the Board has appealed publicly to no one for financial aid. With its machinery and plans perfected, it will probably call upon every friend of the cause to make it the responsible clearing-house for all forms of education that it ought to be.

Perhaps most important of all is the fact that this undertaking is giving the men and women of the South a chance to aid in the uplifting of their States which is being heartily welcomed by the best elements in every community. It has already inspired many deeds of genuine patriotism. Of this the act of the superintendent of schools who declined a college professorship carrying two and one-half times the salary he was receiving rather than lay down his county work and the agency of the General Board, is merely a type, but a noble one. This readiness to serve the State and one's fellow-men unselfishly is the most encouraging sign of a growing recognition that the educational path is the only one out of the South's overwhelmingly difficult social and industrial problems.

COUNTESS CESARESCO.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 1, 1903.

Why, when women take so easily to novel-writing, in which the fortunes and psychology of imaginary persons are their subject, have they so little desire or power to portray the characters, motives, and acts of real men and women? This question recurred to me again and again in reading the recent volume of 'Lombard Studies,' by Countess Evelyn Martinengo Cesaresco, the only living English woman of letters who has signally succeeded both as a writer of biography and of essays. So little has been made public about the career of this remarkable woman, whose position among her literary contemporaries is now assured, that an outline of it may be welcome.

Evelyn Carrington was born about 1860, her father being the Very Rev. Henry Carrington, Dean of Bocking, Braintree, and her mother, Juanita, daughter of Capt. Haseldene Lyall, of the Royal Navy. The Carringtons are an old English family, tracing back to Norman beginnings; the Lyalls are Scotch—the Red Comyn, Bruce's rival, being among their historic forerunners. More important than this remote inheritance is the fact that Dean Carrington's mother, the grandmother of Countess Cesaresco, was Pauline Belli, an Italian. Pauline's father, Giovanni Belli, served as secretary to Warren Hastings in India, where he became acquainted with Sir Edmund Carrington, first Chief Justice of Ceylon. Pauline Belli and her two sisters, one of whom married Dr. Howley, subsequently Archbishop of Canterbury, were among the great London beauties of their day, and Pauline's portrait by Lawrence, now in the South Kensington Gallery, certainly justifies her reputation. We should add that the Belli had intermarried with the Spanish Bivar. Believers in heredity will find no difficulty in proving that Evelyn Carrington, with such

a mixture of ancestry, was predestined to be a cosmopolite.

An accident in childhood, however, seems to have been more directly responsible for her development. When she was seven years old she suffered from a sunstroke, which fortunately saved her from being put through the conventional education of English gentlemen's daughters. Consecutive study was forbidden; she spent much time out of doors, and had many and strange pets—her fondness for animals, as appears in many places in her works, being almost as strong as her love of the chief human concerns. She had a nook to herself in her father's study, and there she browsed at will—no doubt more under his direction than she imagined. Shakspere she spelled out for herself. This training, prolonged through childhood and youth, seems shockingly desultory to the devotees of routine pedagogy; but in her case it was marvellously successful. By the time she grew up, she knew far more of English literature than most young women, and she had, besides, command of French, German, Italian, Latin, and Greek, using them with the true scholar's ease. Her best teaching came from her father, a man of wide learning, who has made, but not printed, a metrical version of the Greek dramatists, and whose published translations—Victor Hugo's 'Poems,' and 'An Anthology of French Poetry'—show a perfect knowledge of French and unusual metrical facility. But besides book learning, the daughter got from her father an intense enthusiasm for the ideals of liberty—those ideals which thrilled every generous heart in the fifties and sixties, but which have been temporarily eclipsed through the dominance of Germany, with its inveterate love of despotism, its worship of force and of bureaucracy. From infancy she had heard especially of the Italian struggle for independence, a struggle then nearly achieved, which glowed with romance and heroism, and was the work of a wonderfully picturesque group of statesmen and soldiers leading millions of their responsive countrymen to national life. Cavour had but lately died. Garibaldi, a world-hero fresh from the glorious redemption of Sicily, was the idol of the multitude and the terror of ministries. Victor Emanuel, Mazzini, Ricasoli, Minghetti, and the great throng of patriots of the second magnitude, were in full vigor.

> "Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,
> But to be young was very heaven!"

For Evelyn Carrington, with her Italian antecedents and liberty-loving spirit, the Italian cause and its heroes had an irresistible fascination. It is said that with her first pin-money she bought a photograph of Garibaldi, and it is certain that her earliest printed work, written while she was still a girl, was 'La Famiglia Cairoli,' an account in Italian of the Cairoli brothers, of whom all fought for Italy, several died in battle, and one, Benedetto, survived to be Prime Minister and to receive the dagger thrust which the assassin Passanante aimed at King Humbert in November, 1878. Of this first venture, Countess Cesaresco wrote in the *Academy* (of June 11, 1898), shortly after Gladstone's death:

"My mother and I were at Venice . . . and Mr. Gladstone was staying at the Grand Hotel at the same. My mother had often met him in her youth, when both were the guests of Mrs. Gaskell at Thornes House, and it thus came about that she presented him with a copy of 'La Famiglia Cairoli.' I shall always remember how, with the particular art of giving pleasure which he possessed in so eminent a degree, he seated himself afterwards in the middle of the *salle de lecture*, where the young author could not help seeing him, and spent about an hour in reading the little work, apparently with extreme attention. It was a trait which exactly revealed the man."

In 1882, at Rome, Miss Carrington married Count Eugenio Martinengo Cesaresco, a Lombard noble, whose family for a thousand years has been eminent among the Lombard nobility. "Wherever there was fighting going on, you might be sure to meet a Martinengo. The Lombard plains were not more familiar with the name than were the isles of Greece. Again and again it appears in the struggle of Europe with Asia, which was gallantly sustained from rock to rock by small handfuls of men to whom Christendom gave prayer, tears, and abandonment." One of these Martinenghi, Luigi, commanded the artillery in the siege of Famagosta against the Turks, and was hacked to death when, after a resistance of two years and five months, the Muslim took the city. The Count's father headed the insurrection of the Brescians when in 1848 they threw off the Austrian yoke; and in the following year, when they made their magnificent ten days' stand against overwhelming odds, he was the last to sheathe his sword.

The Count and Countess settled in one of the old Martinengo palaces at Salò, which has ever since been their home. The town of Salò nestles on the western bank of Lake Garda, where the lake is broadest and the last spurs of the Alps begin to melt into the Lombard plain. The palace itself, a large, rambling brick structure, comes by right by its fortress-like air, as it has withstood more than one bombardment; but when it was built, and for more than two centuries thereafter, it was the most famous pleasure palace in northern Italy. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu said of it that even in her time the King of France had nothing so fine, and that it was much larger than the royal palaces of Naples, Germany, or England. The view from it on all sides is superb. The hills among which the battle of Solferino was fought bound the southern horizon. From a little height one sees the promontory of Sermione, "Catullus's all but island," castle-crowned, jutting into the lake. And not far above Salò, as you go northward, the banks become precipitous, and for many miles your steamer skirts a succession of Gibraltars, each higher and more massive than Gib itself. Of the beauty and grandeur of Lake Garda, no one has written so well as Countess Cesaresco in her essay 'Benacus, the Poet's Lake.' and she has told the story of the old palace, and of some of the most striking of the Martinenghi, in her 'Memorials of a Lombard House.' To one of the occupants of the palace—Vittoria Accoramboni, the maligned heroine of John Webster's 'The White Devil'—she has devoted a special article. I say "maligned," because, from the best evidence now obtainable, it seems improbable that the beautiful Vittoria was guilty of those crimes which Webster made the substance of his tremendous tragedy.

It is evident that Countess Cesaresco plunged heart and soul into her new life. She sought eagerly to know the condition of all classes of the people among whom she was thrown, and she found, as others have found, an inexhaustible charm in the Italian nature. She travelled much, visiting every part of the peninsula, with trips to Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, and longer tours to the Levant and Western Europe. Her intercourse with England was uninterrupted, her journeys home frequent. Thus she kept abreast of the contemporary history and literature, not only of her adopted country, but of England, and the larger interests there; and she studied with insatiable curiosity in many fields.

It was in 1886 that she issued her first mature book, 'Essays in the Study of Folk-Songs,' a model of the way in which a vast store of various information can be presented with unfailing vivacity. The Countess speaks as a specialist, but with so much charm that she can hardly fail to attract any cultivated reader. As her book was printed by an obscure London publisher, it had, I suppose, no wide circulation; but more than one copy fell into the hands of discriminating readers. Among these was the late Prof. Francis J. Child, who praised it highly, both for its excellence as a contribution to the study in which he was master and for its literary merits. His praise makes others' superfluous.

In 1890 appeared her 'Italian Characters in the Epoch of Unification,' in which, as Mr. Gladstone remarked, she wrote like a "practised biographer." The book contains sketches of Ricasoli, Settembrini, Giuseppe Martinengo, Manin, the Poerios, Constance d'Azeglio, Mameli, Ugo Bassi, Nino Bixio, and the Cairolis—a group of sufficiently dissimilar persons to test the skill of any painter. Several of these personages she introduced for the first time to English readers; into all of them she breathed the breath of life. Her portraits of Ricasoli, the Tuscan Puritan, with his passion for integrity and his beautiful devotion to his daughter; of Marchioness d'Azeglio, the Piedmontese *grande dame*, witty, far-seeing, full of sense, patriotic; of Mameli, the boy poet, dying in defending Rome; of Bassi, the patriot priest, whom the Austrians shot like a malefactor; of the wise and unselfish and enduring Manin—these are some of the faces in her gallery which one does not forget.

In her method the Countess reminds you of Plutarch; for, instead of a chronological narrative, she picks and chooses, giving you the vital facts, letting you see her subject at a critical moment or in his characteristic actions, preferring an anecdote to a date, leaving on you such an impression of genuineness as the high creations of the artist leave. The essays disclose their writer's very wide sympathy; they abound also in keen criticism of men and politics. She has at her command an unusual reserve of irony. She is enthusiastic, partisan if you will, because she would not condescend to waste her time describing characters for whom she felt no enthusiasm. The book is almost invaluable for the student of the Italian Regeneration, because, while only Count Martinengo's features were drawn from life, the writer had access to many unprinted sources, and, above all, she had the unwrit-

ten recollections of many of the companions of her heroes, with which to vivify or chasten her own impression.

Her next book, 'The Liberation of Italy, 1815-1870,' printed in 1894, is a popular account of the unification of Italy, and it is still the best short history of the period. Had its author produced nothing else, this would have distinguished her as possessing a rare combination of literary charm and historical insight. It would also have placed her in the company of two other English women who have done Italy a great service in interpreting Italy to English readers. One of these, Jessie White, wife of Garibaldi's lieutenant Alberto Mario, took part in the events of forty years ago, has written the lives of Bertani, Garibaldi, and Mazzini, and has long served as correspondent of the *Nation* and of English journals. The other, Linda White, wife of Pasquale Villari, the dean of Italian historians, has translated her husband's principal works. It would seem that in some English natures there is an affinity which lets them into the secret of Italy.

Countess Cesaresco's 'Liberation of Italy' lacks the highest constructive historical qualities, but it has the highest moral quality in a history—justice. To each of the great factors in the result—to Victor Emanuel and Cavour, to Mazzini and Garibaldi—it allots fair praise. And there are in it divinations like this, which outvalue many pages of ordinary historical writing: "The Italians are not a mystical people, but they have always followed mystical leaders."

But her short history proved to be the stepping-stone to a book of far higher excellence—to her life of Cavour in the Foreign Statesmen Series, which has not, to my knowledge, a superior in English. How good it is will be apparent to any one who cares to compare it with Freeman's 'William the Conqueror,' or Creighton's 'Wolsey,' or Mr. Frederic Harrison's 'William the Silent,' all of which have a similar range. Countess Cesaresco, in her 'Cavour,' has mastered the art of presentation, and attained to a symmetry, rather French than English, beyond the reach of any of these. And although her little book is all pith, it has that ease, that absence of laboriousness, by which real achievements in art are recognized. Countess Cesaresco has not only created literature, she has made a fine portrait of the great statesman who ranks with Napoleon and Bismarck in European history in the nineteenth century. She has succeeded in unfolding Cavour the man and Cavour the statesman, and in defining the scope of his influence in the political evolution of his time. Those best acquainted with the subject will best understand how many books went to the distilling of this short biography. Every sentence in it tells. It is the best brief life in English of a *dynamic* statesman, as Mr. John Morley's 'Burke' is the best brief life of a *philosophical* statesman.

The 'Cavour' was published four years ago, and now, in the late autumn of 1902 comes Countess Cesaresco's fifth volume, 'Lombard Studies,' a collection of essays, on many themes (Scribners). She describes Lake Garda, the Franciacorta, Rimini, and Lake Iseo; she tells the story of the Martinenghi; she reviews Arthur Young's 'North Italian Journey'; she brings together in a single paper all the known facts about Vittoria Accoramboni; she treats of Lombard agriculture; she criticises the popular stage, and gives in epitome the annals of La Scala Theatre. A varied programme, surely; but it is the method, and not the variety, that counts. One perceives that many of these are essays of high literary quality, not written to order, but for the love of it—in which experience, travel, observation, culture overflow for our delight. At their best they resemble, as literary essays should, the best conversation. They are now sprightly, now serious; they do not insist too brusquely even in enforcing an argument; in them a bit of landscape, a reminiscence, a literary or historical allusion, is introduced naturally, by the way, and then dismissed. If you have caught the point, good—for there is no stopping to explain; the conversation moves swiftly on into other channels. Take a single example: Speaking of the many modern plays based on the story of Francesca and Paolo, Countess Cesaresco says:

"Of the first in the field, Silvio Pellico, Foscolo said severely that the young man would have done better to leave Dante alone. It is very likely that from his classical standpoint he would have passed the same judgment on Leigh Hunt, Stephen Phillips, Gabriele d'Annunzio, and Marion Crawford. But, perhaps, Dante himself would not have complained. At any rate, his is the triumph, for there is one moment in the five plays at which the audience is lifted into an emotional seventh heaven nowhere else approached; the moment when each author introduces Dante's words and Dante's scene of the reading of the fatal book! Whatever else fails, that never does."

The artist's touch, unmistakable in this passage, characterizes the entire volume. The essays have, moreover, a very strong personal coloring. They are not abstract, or theoretical, but the concrete opinions, emotions, preferences of precisely the Countess Cesaresco, and no other. The 'Cavour' was objective, almost classic in its terseness; but these essays are subjective, as they should be, and reveal to us a strong and rare personality. The keen and inquisitive mind, hungry for knowledge of every kind, has its counterpart in capacity for high emotion. The revelation of individuality delights us; we are drawn from the book to its author.

Such, told very briefly, has been Countess Cesaresco's achievement. Although it is too soon to pass a final judgment on it, we already mark its versatility, its vitality, its charm, and its excellence, in fields where women have too seldom competed successfully with men. As the Countess is just in her prime, we may hope for other fruits of her extraordinary talents.

WILLIAM ROSCOE THAYER.

A MODERN MIRACLE PLAY.

LONDON, December 19, 1902.

Few plays have been more talked about and looked forward to with greater interest than Mr. Lawrence Housman's "Bethlehem." In the late summer, announcements of its coming production in London were issued. In the autumn, just as rumors were spreading that rehearsals had begun, the censor refused a license on religious grounds, and his refusal really was an excellent advertisement, for he could not stop the performance, and, by closing the regular theatre to the "Nativity Play," called special attention to it. For months beforehand, reports that American managers were in keen competition for American rights were circulated. Then there was the curiosity to see the author of 'An Englishwoman's Love Letters' in his new rôle of religious poet, while the fact that a supposed rising genius was to produce the scenery and pictorial effects was considered by some people to be a matter of almost national importance. It is only a few years since the Art Workers at the Guildhall revived the old Masque, and showed what a body of artists, working together, could do to give new life to a forgotten dramatic form. The Elizabethan Stage Society had also shown what could be accomplished by following tradition without any scenery at all. A wall for them was a wall, and nothing more; a camel was a camel. But the Masque allowed free scope for spectacular as well as dramatic splendor, and the efforts of the Art Workers were not without results. Even such an exploiter of the footlights as Mr. Beerbohm Tree called in one or two of their number to help him in the production of "Herod"—with indifferent success, because he could not entirely renounce the professional traditions he loves and suppress himself, as an artist would, for the sake of the picture; as a consequence, he and his methods predominated the play, and, pictorially, it was a failure. Other Art Workers were commissioned to design the costumes in the conventional spectacle, but all the surroundings were so inartistic that their work did not tell. Mr. Gordon Craig, on the other hand, endeavored to carry out their ideas in the staging of Purcell's operas, and it was to Mr. Gordon Craig that Mr. Housman entrusted the scenic arrangement of his "Bethlehem." What was expected then was a modern adaptation of an old Miracle Play, made into a series of beautiful pictures for the benefit of a modern audience whom the old religious theme might or might not have the power to thrill.

The first of a short series of representations was given in the large hall of the Imperial Institute (now the University of London) on Wednesday evening, the 17th. The play itself has been published by Macmillan, and its argument can be briefly put. In the first scene, the shepherds see the star, and the Angel Gabriel brings them the glad tidings; in the second, the three Wise Men come from the East, following the star, and Gabriel sets them on their way; in the third, Mary and the Child, with Joseph, in the stable, receive the homage and gifts of shepherds and Wise Men. It is the old story that, since it was first told in stern reality under the skies of Palestine, has been retold again and again in verse and in paint; and the penalty Mr. Housman pays for choosing such a theme is that his version cannot escape comparison with the many that have been, more or less, his inspiration. He has kept close enough to the original Miracle Plays not to attempt the local color and exact detail now too often thought indispensable in poetry and art. His shepherds might watch their flocks anywhere, though it is true that, out under the stars, they talk a dialect said to be Shropshire, though not easily identified, and not worth identifying, as it is quickly dropped for Irvingese when they really have anything to

say; his Magi and Holy Family belong to no special country or period. The whole is supposed to be treated symbolically. Nor should this be a drawback. Nowadays, art is too often sacrificed to archæology. But if Mr. Housman has avoided one pit, he has fallen headlong into another still deeper. For in trying to imitate the naïve simplicity of the old Miracle Play, he succeeds only in producing an affected, artificial, and self-conscious travesty. His lines are seldom musical, never impressive, and frequently, if not absolutely profane, they almost verge upon the farcical, as when, in a chant of the angels, the line "Ding dong bell" recalls the old nursery rhyme. At times, indeed, the verse suggests a jingle from 'Alice in Wonderland' into which Biblical expressions have been woven. I am writing of the play, however, as seen on the stage, not read in the book. But there can be no question that Mr. Housman's chief concern was with its dramatic representation, and it may be that much of the verse was written simply for adaptation to the music.

To come, then, to the performance. A little theatre had been made, as it were, within the great hall, and the seats were arranged in a canvas enclosure, evidently a marquee that had seen much service before. The first impression on entering was that one had come into a badly arranged circus tent. The stage was like a large box with an oblong opening, the walls and curtains of some dark material, more or less translucent. Outside the curtain, on either side, were minor stage entrances. I describe all this because it prepared one for a simple imitation of the early crude and miniature methods. The scene of the Shepherds, after "Chorus" had explained the action to the audience, might, in the description, seem as faithful and simple a copy, for above the group, huddled in a very out-of-place British sheepfold, with most real British hurdles, was a blue curtain, with six little holes in it, through which lights glared and flickered. If, in the manner approved by Bottom, the curtain had been labelled "This is a curtain," and the holes "These are stars," and the folds "These are not folds," one would have thought no more about it, and accepted the convention willingly as a protest against the exaggerated stage realism of the day. But this was by no means the simple effect desired. There was an only too obvious play of the electric light upon the curtain, a too obvious seeking, by means of shadows and a suggestion of mystery, to create effects so essentially modern that already one critic has described the background as a "miraculous blue nocturne"—though another, less respectful, has seen in it nothing but a bit of Liberty, up-to-date, iridescent portrait-painter's costume, out of which most of the spangles have dropped. And with the posing and grouping of the shepherds, dressed in brand-new meal sacks; in the tripping angels, fresh from the ballet, led by Gabriel, and all clad in draperies that seemed to have come out of the rag-bag; in the sudden radiance falling upon Gabriel's head and killing everything else; in the entrance of the Wise Men, the first of the three blacked like a negro minstrel, and all dressed in patchwork quilts—there was the same pretence of primitive simplicity with the same self-conscious straining after anything but primitive effects. One felt that, had a competent artist directed the stage management, beautiful pictures might have been obtained by the massing of colors, the lines of the different groupings, the play of light and shadow. As it was, the electric light constantly destroyed the illusion and revealed but the cheap and yet ambitious design, and lines and color were left to take care of themselves.

After a grand march round, recalling inevitably the Wild West, the first act and second scene came to an end. In the second act, one was first shown a view of Bethlehem and its gates, through which "Chorus" could barely squeeze, reminding one of the struggles of the man in the old Swiss weather-house, while the architecture was a mixture of "l'Art Nouveau" and Burne-Jones at his worst, and the lightning suggested the spectre of the Brocken; the shadows being far more important than the buildings that cast them. And then came the climax—the manger in the stable of Bethlehem. Here, again, it was unnecessary to produce a strictly Oriental scene. But it is difficult to understand why, if the traditional stable, with the ox and ass, were not to be represented, such pains were taken to give a Greek or Roman amphitheatre, in which the actors, mistaking themselves for the audience, came and went and posed upon the steps around the Virgin as she knelt upon the floor, bending over the invisible Child. For this Virgin one cannot readily forgive Mr. Gordon Craig. Though from innumerable Old Masters he might have borrowed models of beauty and simplicity and reverence, he could conceive of nothing nobler than a figure arrayed in the garments of Loie Fuller; and, from the moment she appeared until the end, the play was but a succession of tricolored limelight effects, apparently based on the methods of that famous American in her music-hall dance. To the devout, nothing could well have seemed more profane, unless it were the dismissal of the audience by "Chorus," an amateur mummer, with the benediction of the Church. In the old Miracle Play, organized and sanctioned by the Church, as still at Ober-Ammergau—or so I am told—the sincerity of everybody concerned makes all the difference. But in the modern imitation or deliberate adaptation, where nothing is quite genuine, from the attitude of the author to the interest of the audience, it is another matter, and I confess that the music-hall Madonna and final benediction came to me with something of a shock.

In this sort of imitation, if the old feeling as well as the old form cannot be revived or suggested, one is conscious only of the imitation. The old Morality, "Everyman," is as entirely out of harmony with the religious and dramatic ideals of to-day, but even on the modern stage one could not mistake the earnestness and complete sincerity of the author, and the result was impressive. But in "Bethlehem" it was impossible for me to lose sight of Mr. Housman and Mr. Craig—impossible not to hear the creaking of the machinery, not to see the dangling of the wires. It was as artificial, and therefore as tedious, as the sham primitive pictures and woodcuts, the sham mediæval furniture and decoration, that the followers of William Morris have made the debased fashion, with a note of irreverence added. After all, the real Miracle Play meant more to the people for whom it was written than an amusing or even serious drama. N. N.

GERHART HAUPTMANN'S "VITA NUOVA."

CAMBRIDGE, December 29, 1902.

The friends of Gerhart Hauptmann have had a rather arduous task during the last few years in trying to reconcile their admiration of his genius with the erratic and often far from agreeable paths which he latterly chose to follow. With every new production of his, it appeared less likely that he would succeed in attaining the high ideals of art held out in his "Versunkene Glocke"; and more and more the fear seemed justified that his creative power would finally succumb under the laborious effort to copy the whimsical appearances and outward paraphernalia rather than the essence of life. These doubts and misgivings have now happily been silenced; for at last the poet has given us a work of art which appeals to the eternally human, which touches the deepest chords of the heart, and which seems destined to live—the dramatic poem, "Der Arme Heinrich."

The legend of "Poor Henry," as everybody knows, was first treated by Hartman von Aue in an epic poem which is among the few real masterpieces of mediæval literature. Hartman tells us of a rich and powerful lord, Heinrich von Aue, who, like Job, in the midst of worldly affluence and splendor, is visited by a terrible affliction, being infected with leprosy; who, unlike Job, abandons himself—for a time at least—to grief and hatred and rebelliousness against God; but is finally healed, both bodily and mentally, through the pure faith and self-surrender of a simple peasant girl. The various stages of this inner conflict and its reconciliation Hartman brings before us with a charming simplicity and artistic grace. We see the unfortunate man despairing of all help because he has been told that he can be saved only by the blood of a pure maiden who, of her own free will, shall die for him. We see him retiring from the world, and seeking refuge in the lonely farmhouse of one of his tenants. We see him here attended and cared for by the farmer's little daughter, who, although a mere child, seems to divine the sick man's thoughts and wishes, and is so inseparable from him that he playfully calls her "my little wife." We see the child lying awake at night—for she has heard of the fatal condition of his recovery—weeping and grieving for the poor sufferer, until she suddenly is overjoyed and transfigured by the thought that it is *her* mission to save him. And we see this salvation finally brought about through a change of heart in Heinrich himself. Through his unwillingness to accept her sacrificial offering, through his decision to submit henceforth trustfully to the mysterious ways of God—in other words, through his inner transformation and renewal—his bodily recovery also is achieved. It is a poem, naïve, childlike, and mediæval in its tone, surrounded by an atmosphere of the miraculous and the wonderful; at the same time, however, breathing a spirit of unconditional trust in the power of goodness and in the promptings

of the inner voice, and in so far essentially modern.

Among the poets of our own time, Longfellow, if I am not mistaken, is the only one who has attempted, previous to Hauptmann, to revive this mediæval tale. But the sweet and graceful singer of "Hiawatha" was not at his best when he turned to this subject, and it can hardly be said that his "Golden Legend" reproduces anything but the outward show of mediæval life. Of religious machinery and spectacular by-play there is plenty: Lucifer and his host, angelic chants, itinerant preachers, Minnesingers, revelling friars, devout pilgrims, pretty bits of romantic landscape after the manner of Tieck, even a whole Nativity Play, introducing the Wise Men of the East, the Angels of the Seven Planets, allegories of Virtues, Mary, Jesus, and God the Father himself. But there is no life in all these picturesque scenes and happenings, and the principal figures, Prince Henry and Elsie, are no human characters, and entirely fail to appeal to our deeper emotions. It is just here that the supreme merit of Hauptmann's drama lies. Hauptmann has gone to the root of the subject. He has stripped the mediæval tale of what is merely superficial and temporary; he has made it a poetic vessel of universal human suffering and sympathy; he has made it a perfect symbol of inner regeneration; and thus he has produced a work of art which will stand by the side of Goethe's "Iphigenie," and tell future generations of the heartburnings, the bitter struggles, and the exultant joys of a man who, perhaps more ardently than any living poet, is striving to express what moves, inspires, and presses upon our age.

It would be a futile task to relate in detail by what means Hauptmann has accomplished this feat; for the play is so much a drama of the inner life that it is well-nigh impossible to reproduce its movement by paraphrasing it—as impossible as it is to describe a symphony. A few remarks, however, about the leading motive of the whole may be helpful to the understanding.

Heinrich himself is conceived by Hauptmann as a strong, heroic nature, overflowing with life, burning for action. In years gone by, when a mere youth, he would often be a-hunting in the Black Forest, and then he would spend many a day on the farm of his old tenant Gottfried, whom he loved like a father, and with whose little daughter Ottegebe, then hardly out of her leading-strings, he would play and sport, taking her with him on his horse and caressing her as "his little wife." Since then nine years have passed. In these years he has seen and experienced much. He has taken part in the conflict between Pope Innocent and Emperor Frederick II.; has, for his allegiance to the Emperor, been inflicted with the Papal ban; has, under this ban, undertaken a crusade; and, at the Emperor's court in Palermo, as well as in the land of the Saracens, he has led a life of worldly joy, has revelled in the voluptuous beauty of the Orient and imbibed the teachings of the Koran. Now he returns to the scenes of his youth—the same and yet another. He is still impulsive; he still harbors strong desires and aspirations; but his hope of fulfilment is gone; he carries the worm within him; he has been marked by God; he is unclean, a leper. Thus far, he imagines, he has guarded the terrible secret—perhaps he hopes to guard it forever; for the present, he craves nothing but solitude, peace; and for this he has turned to the house of his old tenant. That, in reality, his disease has already been whispered about, at least among the common folk, becomes clear in the very first scene of the drama, when one of Heinrich's servants, terrorized by superstitious imaginings, takes precipitous flight.

While Heinrich for the time seems to have forgotten the little playmate of his youth, Ottegebe, who now is on the threshold of womanhood, has preserved his memory well. She is a sensitive, shy, visionary being. With the peasant lads and lasses she mingles little; her favorite stay is with Father Benedict in his forest hermitage, and what effect the child produces upon the old monk is seen from his words:

"Kommt sie, wird meine dumpfe Klause helle,
Mein enges Waldkapellchen weit und gross,
Der Heiland atmet und Maria lacht,
Und ich, von meiner Sünden Ueberlast
Sonst fast erdrückt, kann mich vom Boden heben
Und Gott, entsühnt, ins gütige Antlitz sehn."

Through the friar, she has been filled with mystic forebodings of the approaching Judgment Day; she revels in depicting to herself the sinfulness of the world; the Black Death and the scourge of leprosy are, to her, visible signs of God's wrath, and every leper's body a mirrored image of poisoned Christendom. But she also revels in the Christian mystery of atonement, in the saving power of innocent blood voluntarily shed, and in its cleansing effect upon sin and disease. What wonder that when she comes to know what frightful secret has brought Heinrich to her father's house, she should be possessed by the idea of redeeming him by her own death?

These, then, are the two characters between whom there arises a tragic conflict—a conflict of compassion and despair; of woman's desire for self-sacrifice and man's determination to struggle alone—until finally love, unconditional, all-embracing, divine love, subdues both man and woman, and dissolves the conflict into joyful harmony. That Ottegebe from the very first feels something more than compassion for Heinrich—that, unknown to herself, she loves him—we divine from the outset. Why else should she tremble whenever he speaks to her? Why should she tear the ribbon, which she had put on in his honor, from her hair as soon as attention is drawn to it? But as yet her love is slumbering; it is overshadowed by the Christian desire to atone, to rescue, and by the Christian longing for the crown of spiritual reward. Heinrich, on his part, has no other feeling for her except that of curious wonder at her devoted service; he is too much absorbed with himself and his frightful fate to have thoughts of anything else. It is wonderful to see how it is just this frightful fate of his, the gradual unfolding of his terrible doom, which draws this man and this woman together, which opens their hearts to each other, and thus brings salvation and life to both.

The climax of the drama is reached in the third and fourth acts, when Heinrich, after having made known the nature of his disease, has fled to the woods and is hiding there like a hunted beast, pursued by the execrations and curses of the populace. He now seems to have risen to colossal proportions. Misery has stripped him of everything that is weak and small. He has now penetrated to the bottom of things; he has become knowing; he has found out that life is a dungeon, that death is freedom; he scorns as folly the report, brought to him by old Gottfried, that his daughter is determined to die for him at the hands of the physician of Salerno; he chases herself away with cursing and stones when she ventures into his wilderness; and in grim frenzy he diverts himself by digging his own grave. These moments, however, are followed by others in which the mere craving for existence gets the better of him. In such moments he will prowl about, like a beast of prey, in the vicinity of Gottfried's house, or wherever he imagines Ottegebe to be, crouch on the ground, creep through the thicket, only to get a glimpse of her and to feed on the thought of being saved by her. And at last, in one such moment of highest transport of despair, when exhausted and fainting he has sunk to the ground, Ottegebe is at his side, and in rapturous delight presses a fervent kiss upon his forehead.

Inexpressibly sweet is the contrast formed by the last act with these wild and frenzied happenings. Heinrich has returned with Ottegebe to his castle. Instinctively, even against his will, had he followed her to Salerno. Travelling by the side of his little saint, he had for the first time felt his heart secure from the pursuit of the demons; a new life had been born within him, joy and hope had returned; and at last, at the height of the catastrophe, when the sacrificial act was about to be performed, Love had descended upon him and bidden him prevent the execution—and he was healed!

"Da traf der dritte Strahl der Gnade mich:
Das Wunder war vollbracht, ich war genesen!
Hartmann, gleichwie ein Körper ohne Herz,
Ein Golem, eines Zauberer's Gebilde,
Doch keines Gottes—thönern oder auch
Aus Stein, oder aus Erz—bist du, solange nicht
Der reine, grade, ungebrochne Strom
Der Gottheit eine Bahn sich hat gebrochen
In die geheimnisvolle Kapsel, die
Das echte Schöpfungs-Wunder uns verschliesst:
Dann erst durchdringt dich Leben. Schrankenlos
Dehnt sich das Himmlische aus deiner Brust,
Mit Glanz durchschlagend deines Kerkers Wände,
Erlösend und auflösend—dich! die Welt!
In das urewige Liebes-Element."

While Heinrich from this moment on is in the full possession of his powers, joyful, daring, active as of old, Ottegebe has remained as in a stupor. She has not fulfilled her mission, she has not won the heavenly crown! She, too, has through suffering become knowing. She knows now that she loves Heinrich, but it seems to her an unholy love, an earthly desire. She, the bride of Heaven, has fallen a victim to the powers of darkness. What is there left to her but death? So, as in Goethe's "Iphigenie," there seems to arise a new conflict after the rounding out of the main theme. But, happily, this conflict is only a transient clouding of the radiance that is spread over these closing scenes. For human love proves its divineness, in spite of these ecclesiastical scruples; and when Heinrich, at the wedding ceremony, presses Ottegebe passionately to his breast, she whispers joyfully:

"Heinrich!—Nun sterb' ich doch den süssen Tod!"

There are few works in the world's literature that aim higher than this sweet and noble poem. In depth of feeling, in simplicity of structure, in beauty of language, in strength of character drawing, in

spiritual import, it surpasses to my mind everything that has come from the hand of living dramatists. Hail to the poet who, disdaining ephemeral effects or the applause of the crowd, has clung to that which is for the few of all ages, and has thus added a new treasure to the spiritual possessions of mankind.

KUNO FRANCKE.

Correspondence.

GALLATIN ON BANKING AND CURRENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following letter from Albert Gallatin to Nathaniel Macon of North Carolina on the all-important subject of finance may be of interest to many readers of the *Nation*. Macon was one of the more influential Southern politicians of the Jefferson type; he was an inveterate opponent of paper currency in all forms, and consequently an enemy of banks of issue, both State and national. He was a lifelong friend of Gallatin; in 1808 he had openly preferred him for the Presidency in place of Madison.

This letter, here published for the first time, is taken from a small collection of papers now in the possession of Mrs. Walter K. Martin of Richmond, Virginia—a collection hitherto unknown to students. It explains itself, and casts some light on the earlier phase of the great Bank quarrel. Macon's letter eliciting it has not been discovered, but its contents may be guessed from what we know of the character of its author and from what Gallatin says in reply.

Very truly yours, WM. E. DODD.

RANDOLPH-MACON COLLEGE, VA.,
January 3, 1903.

NEW YORK, 3d Decr. 1830.

DEAR SIR: I duly received your letter of the 19 June last and was a little startled by the request to aid you in your intended attack on the Bank of the United States, as I thought you could not have been unacquainted with the fact, that I had openly and officially advocated the renewal of the charter of the former bank, and that, although there were many opponents on constitutional grounds, the question would not have then been lost had it not been for the hostility of a portion of the Republican party either to Mr. Madison or to myself. Mr. Crawford was our principal support in defence of the renewal; and without entering into details, it is known to all that the Clinton party was extremely dissatisfied with the preference given to Mr. Madison to the exclusion of Gov. Clinton, and that De Witt was in 1812 the candidate of the opposition. This has nothing to do with the present question, but may explain why the tenor of your letter surprised me. But it was not the cause of the delay in answering your queries; and, although I was not ready to do it before this time, I ought to have acknowledged the receipt of your letter and pray you to excuse the omission.

I had been engaged in researches respecting the metallic currency of the United States, which led to a conviction that the circulation of gold coins ought not to be prevented as it now is by our mint regulations, and that they ought to be rated according to their real market value as compared with silver. I could hardly avoid in the discussion some allusion to our paper currency, but had properly investigated a subject of which I had lost sight since 1816, when I went to France. I received simultaneously your letter and one from Mr. Walsh requesting that I would prepare an article for his Review, in relation to the Reports of the Committee of the last session of Congress. It was impossible to answer you without writing a book, and having some leisure and no sufficient conception of the labor the scattered materials would require in order to an analysis and condensed form, I unwittingly promised to furnish the article. It has cost me three months of tedious labour, and, as it would not have been written but for your letter, I must ask your permission to inflict on you the task of reading it, and have accordingly written the Editor to send you a copy. I had not time to revise all the calculations myself; and the person I employed made several mistakes. Although there is none that can affect the argument, I have always felt conscientious with respect to facts and particularly statements of numbers which readers have no means to verify, and I am now employed in revising and correcting those myself with a view to publication in pamphlet form, which I will transmit to you when published.

You are quite right in believing that I would feel very averse to any interference or connection with the party politics of the day; and you will easily perceive from the general tenor of my reply, that I am no friend either to *our* Banking system generally or to a paper currency of any kind. Had I my choice, I would prefer a pure metallic currency and private Banking houses, as in London and on the continent of Europe, who might with perfect freedom receive money on deposit, discount notes and deal in exchange, but not issue bank notes or in any respect interfere with the currency; and I would wish that government should neither restrain them in other respects nor grant them any privilege whatever. But I am equally averse to any issue of paper money by government, and still more so to its converting the Treasury into a Banking, trading company. This I think the very worst plan, in every view of the subject, that could possibly be devised, and the remedy worse than any evils, great as they are, that may flow, not only from the existing system, but from letting again the State Banks run wild and suspend their payments. I have viewed the subject with a single eye to a sound currency, which to provide for appears to me a constitutional and a moral duty. Independent of every temporary party consideration, there are questions of right and wrong, of what is just or unjust, which must be settled on that principle alone. Such is the question of currency. With a debased coinage or a fluctuating, depreciated paper, you subvert every private and public engagement, impair the performance of every contract, make invariably the ignorant and the weak dupes of the shrewd and wary, and demoralize the whole community. What are the means to prevent this under existing circumstances? Can Congress subvert the whole of the deep-rooted Banking system, sustained, as it is, by almost every State in the Union, and revert at this day to a metallic currency? I have no doubt of the constitutional power in that respect and have suggested the means; but I feel equally certain that the power will not be exercised. And in that case I will congratulate you and the country if you can discover any safe means of attaining the object, otherwise than through a bank of the U. S. organized on principles in substance similar to those of the existing institution. Certain it is that none has as yet been suggested, and perceiving no other myself, my conclusions are in favor of the renewal of the Charter. For my arguments in support of the constitutionality of the measure I must refer you to the article in the Review. With me they are conclusive, and I have no doubt on the subject; but of that all are competent to judge, and, provided I shall have succeeded in bringing the *facts* fairly and correctly before the public, I will be satisfied that it has been a useful task. It may be allowed to add that I am no otherwise connected in the Bank of the U. S. than as owner of ten shares, and that from it or from any other Bank I have never asked or received any favor whatever, not having ever had a single note discounted in the whole course of my life.

I am, Sir, very respectfully your obedt. Servant. ALBERT GALLATIN.

NATHANIEL MACON, Esq.

LYNCH LAW AND SOUTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue No. 1953 (December 4, 1902) appears an article by Mr. Albert Matthews on the subject of "Lynch Law," in which he states that it has been asserted that lynch law derived its name from Lynch's Creek, S. C., because at that place the practice of lynching began. This derivation of the term, Mr. Matthews admits, has yet to be proved, but he gives extracts from Boston papers of 1768 giving accounts of a lynching by Regulators that occurred on Lynch's Creek, which show, he says, that there were at that period instances of lynch law "in its original meaning of whipping," and that Regulators held a meeting at Lynch's Creek. Obviously, says Mr. Matthews, we have here the thing itself, though not our now familiar term.

We cannot concur with Mr. Matthews in his apparent inclination to find in the action of the Regulators on Lynch's Creek the origin of the term lynch law. This inclination on his part appears to be based on two assumptions, both of which are erroneous, viz., (1) that lynch law, in its original meaning, meant whipping, and (2) that the Regulators began their course at Lynch's Creek.

The original meaning of the term lynch law was not confined to whipping. The instances Mr. Matthews himself presents show that other punishments, such as tarring and feathering, and banishments, were adjudged and administered as well as whipping; and indeed, as we shall see, the Regulators began their course by the infliction of the death penalty. The accepted definition of the term is the infliction of punishment without a legal trial, as by a mob or by any unauthorized persons.

The Regulators in the Carolinas did not begin their course on Lynch's Creek, S. C. The organization which in 1768 became known as "Regulation," began in Granville, Anson, and Orange Counties, in North Carolina, as early as 1766, and was instituted in South Carolina, as Judge O'Neall, in his 'Annals of Newberry,' tells us, by Thomas Woodward, Joseph Kirkland, and Barnaby Pope, who resided in the region between the Catawba and Saluda Rivers, and not on the Pee Dee or Lynch's Creek. The earliest account we have of the operations of this body is in the South Carolina *Gazette* of May 26, 1767, in an extract from a letter from Pine Tree Hill (Camden), dated May 14, 1767, and is as follows:

"On the 6 inst. a number of armed men, being in search of Horse stealers, robbers, etc., discovered a parcel of them in camp on Broad River [Broad River was between the Catawba and the Saluda], where an engagement soon ensued, and the thieves were put to flight; and though none of them were taken, it is reasonable to suppose, from the quantity of blood on the ground, that some of them were killed. They left behind ten horses, thirteen saddles, some guns," etc.

The next notice is in the *Gazette* for the week of July 27 to August 3 of the same year, to wit:

"The gang of villians from Virginia and North Carolina who have for some years past in small parties under particular leaders infested the back part of the Southern provinces, stealing

from one and selling them in the next, notwithstanding the late public examples made of several of them, we hear are more formidable than ever as to numbers, and more audacious and cruel in their thefts and outrages. 'Tis reported that they consist of more than 200, form a chain of communication with each other and have places of general meeting; when (in immitation of councils of war) they form plans of operation and defence and (alluding to their secresy and fidelity to each other) call their places Free Mason Lodges. Instances of their cruelty to the people in the back settlements where they rob or otherwise abuse, are so numerous and shocking that a naration of them would fill a whole *Gazette*, and every reader with horror. They at present range in the Forks between Broad, Saluda, and Savannah Rivers. Two of the gang were hanged last week at Savannah, viz., Lundy Hart and Obadiah Greenage. Two others, James Ferguson and Jesse Hambersham, were killed when these men were taken."

Until 1768 the settlers who organized in defence of their property, their homes, and their lives against this banditti were designated, says Gregg in his 'History of the Old Cheraws,' by the appellation of the "Mob," and seem to have adopted it themselves; but on the 4th of April, 1768, they changed it to that of "Regulators." Until this time the "Regulation," as then called, had been endeavoring themselves to break up the band of outlaws which infested the back country, but now they took the wiser course of demanding from the Royal Government on the coast protection and the establishment of courts in the interior; and the organization, which had at first for its object the administration of justice and the infliction of punishment for the suppression of outlaws, now began to assume a political and revolutionary character as well. It was this occasion which gave rise to the proceedings at Lynch's Creek, accounts of which Mr. Matthews has found in the Boston papers. On the 25th of July, 1768, the South Carolina *Gazette* gives the account of the same.

"The last accounts from the back settlements say that the people called Regulators were to have a meeting at Lynch's Creek on last Friday, when it was expected 1200 would be assembled. The occasion of this meeting is said to be a party of them lately being roughly used by a gang of Banditti consisting of Mulattoes, Free negroes, &c., Harbourers of runaway slaves, at a place called Thompson's Creek, whom they ordered to remove. It is added they anxiously wait to hear the fate of the act for establishing Circuit Courts in this province sent home for the Royal approbation, which, if it obtains, will restore good order in those parts."

To recapitulate: Regulation did not begin at Lynch's Creek, S. C., but began in North Carolina, two years before the meeting at that place, and had spread throughout the farther back parts of the province from the Catawba to the Savannah before it reached the Pee Dee, nearer the coast; and upon reaching the Pee Dee section assumed in South Carolina a political phase, thus returning to its original purpose, as Professor Bassett of Trinity College, North Carolina, in a paper published in the Annual Report of the American Historical Association of 1894, has shown was that of the organization in that State. What, moreover, is decisive of the point is the fact that, before the organization reached the Pee Dee section, to wit, Lynch's Creek, it had assumed a name—the name of "Regulation," and not the name of "Lynch Law"—and was known by that name or by the name of "Schofelites," from the name of a leader, and not by the name of "Lynch Law." If the conduct of the Regulators in South Carolina was to give the name to the practice of illegal punishment, it would have been called, not Lynch Law, but "Broad River Justice," or "Savannah Law." It is not until 1841, as appears by Mr. Matthews's collection, that the two terms are found together, and then they are used in regard to affairs in Texas and Arkansas. I feel quite sure that nothing to connect the term "Lynch Law" with that of "Regulation" or "Regulators" in Carolina will ever be found.

The Lynch family in South Carolina, from whose possessions in that part of the province the name of Lynch's Creek was doubtless derived, bore a conspicuous part in the Revolution—two members of it, father and son, taking part in the Declaration of Independence; for though that celebrated instrument (now, however, somewhat at a discount) is signed by but one of them, to wit, by Thomas Lynch, jr., the father, Thomas Lynch, sr., was also a delegate to the Congress from South Carolina and present in Philadelphia at the time, and would have signed it had he been able to attend the Congress. Thomas Lynch, jr., had been sent as an additional delegate because of his father's illness, and thus became a signer, but with his father's concurrence. Is it not rather hard, then, that at this late time, more than a century after their deaths, the suggestion should be made to associate the name of these men (whose philanthropy, too, was as great as their patriotism) with a lawless and cruel practice which both of them would utterly have condemned, rather than with the struggle for liberty in the inauguration of which they took so prominent a part?

EDWARD McCRADY.

CHARLESTON, S. C., January 6, 1903.

Notes.

A "National Edition" of the Works of Daniel Webster in eighteen volumes is announced by Little, Brown & Co., Boston. It will be bound in crushed Levant morocco, and accompanied by a special set of India proofs of the portraits and views.

R. H. Russell has made a pretty quarto of 'The History of Over Sea, Done into [so-called] English by William Morris,' with some Morris affectations in the print, and two pen drawings and other decorations by Louis Rhead, in harmony with the typography though the frontispiece does not truly represent the text in the costume of the lady.

'Who's Who' for 1903 comes to us promptly from Macmillan, still swelling against its bounds, which causes some standing tables to be omitted, for separate republication, maybe. This register has acquired an institutional value among books of reference, and can ill be spared by any one. In the American entries, some discrimination is noticed among our millionaires, the families of Gould and Vanderbilt being unrepresented. All the great political bosses, we believe, except Croker, are likewise in the vocative. Neither Platt nor Quay nor Addicks is "anybody." President Roosevelt is in plain view, but where is his fellow-sovereign John Mitchell? We observe that Mr. Griggs is still described as Attorney-General, for the same reason that his successor Mr. Knox goes unrecognized.

Millionaires pay the penalty of caricature along with other consequences of their prominence, and the 'Millionaires of America' have been thus treated by two artists of foreign name, Max Cramer de Pourtalès and C. de Fornaro (New York: Medusa Publishing Co.). The portfolio of twelve tinted portraits betrays shades of personal estimation. Mr. Carnegie, for instance, has nothing to complain of, in likeness or in attributes, while others who figure in this gallery seem malevolently regarded. The draughtsman's skill is uneven, and there are some flat failures at characterization.

Two librarians, Frank Pierce Hill and Varnum Lansing Collins, have collaborated in a privately printed list of (English) 'Books, Pamphlets and Newspapers Printed at Newark, N. J., 1776-1900.' If we ask why they start in with the beginning of the second century of that city's existence, they answer that not till then was a printing-press known to have been set up within its limits. This might imply an intellectual falling off in the theocratic seceders of 1666 from Connecticut and Long Island. The first imprint, indeed, antedated the first printer, thanks to a press lent from New York for several (Whig) issues of the New York *Gazette;* and 1791 is the date of John Woods's permanent appearance on the scene as the printer of the Newark *Gazette.* The list is confessedly incomplete, but it is a very laudable and useful undertaking. The arrangement is chronological, and there is a full index. The edition is limited.

Students of the military side of the American Revolution will remember that Greene, after the battle of Hobkirk's Hill, attributed his defeat to Col. Gunby, under whose orders the famous First Maryland Regiment, at a critical juncture, fell back instead of holding their ground. Mr. A. A. Gunby, in a small volume entitled 'Colonel John Gunby of the Maryland Line' (Cincinnati: R. Clarke Co.), undertakes to clear Col. Gunby of the charge of blundering—a charge sustained by the court of inquiry after the battle. As the author's method is comparison of secondary accounts rather than study of first-hand authorities, his results are not conclusive; but his examination, so far as it goes, confirms the judgment already formed by others, that the trouble began with the death of Capt. Beatty, and that the confusion of the Marylanders was as much the result of panic as of Col. Gunby s order. The other incidents of this unfortunate officer's life seem not to have been of much general importance.

Cyrus C. Adams's 'Textbook of Commercial Geography' (Appleton) is one of the most eminently satisfactory textbooks of the year just elapsed, and meets a distinctly recognized need. The only available English work in the field had been that of Chisholm, and this is a handbook rather than a textbook, and hardly practicable, because of size, cost and construction, for regular classroom use. It is likewise thirteen years old—an unpardonable, if inevitable, blemish in a work on this subject. The new treatise is, first of all, thoroughly

up to date; it is of convenient size and of small cost; and it is constructed upon a system which one would like to call psychologic. "Each product is treated," says the author in his introduction, "in the chapter relating to the commerce of that country in which the production or manufacture of the commodity is specially prominent. This plan is regarded as preferable to grouping products under the heads of animal, vegetable, and mineral commodities, which would involve some weeks of rather tedious labor, of an encyclopædic nature, on the part of the student." In other words, information is presented in categories which possess the maximum mnemonic value without sacrificing system. Doubtless for the broad view of the scientific treatise this would be a mistake, but for the purpose of this book it is admirable, as is the resolute omission of unessential detail. The point of view is plainly American; 130 pages are devoted to the United States, its external possessions, and Cuba. In comparison, the United Kingdom receives nineteen pages, Germany fourteen, etc. Of course the volume and diversification of our industries explain this in part. The general view of commerce that emerges is, however, a comprehensive one. An enormous number of facts and figures is introduced, and the essential points are seldom missed. Not only are the statistics and character of a nation's commerce exhibited, but some idea is likewise given of the conditions of government, commercial security, etc., as well as a most convenient list of English equivalents for foreign weights, measures, and money. The numerous maps are of excellent quality, but necessarily small, to conform to the size of the pages. An English trade-atlas such as Scobel's is the next desideratum for classroom study, if the lantern-slide system is not available. The index is what it should be.

'Mammalia,' by Frank Evers Beddard, M.A., F.R.S., is the tenth volume of the Cambridge Natural History (Macmillan). Works like this are built upon predecessors of similar import and inclusiveness. Consequently, it is expected that the later published will copy the excellences and avoid the defects of the earlier, at the same time adding the more recent discoveries and other advances in the science. Dr. Beddard's volume is not at all disappointing. It is closely brought up to date, contains the results of the most modern researches in respect to genera and species and in anatomy and habits, and either has turned the criticisms of forerunners to good account, or has been so carefully wrought out as to eliminate their blemishes to a most gratifying extent. In various respects the work is a model: its illustrations are good and abundant, its explanations, descriptions, and comparisons are clear and sufficiently concise; and, as all forms could not be treated in a work of its size, its selections are made with excellent judgment. The extinct forms are arranged by their affinities among the living; together, they outline the history of the changes effected by time, of the conditions in the more or less distant past, and of the phenomena that have been unearthed in the career of the mammalia from the earliest to the still living. The work will attract the geologist and anatomist as well as the student of existing species. Palæontology, comparative anatomy, and the more limited fields of distribution and habits are all brought under consideration. Naturally, there are topics which appear too much restricted. Lack of space is the excuse offered; yet, while it must be accepted as valid, one cannot refrain from wishing there was more in cases like that of the egg-laying of Echidna or Ornithorhynchus, or the flight and feeding of Galeopithecus.

The plan of Dr. Harris Hawthorne Wilder's 'A Synopsis of Animal Classification' (Henry Holt & Co.) will be appreciated by all who have to deal with zoölogical classification. The book expresses Dr. Wilder's opinions in regard to a proper characterization and arrangement of the animals. It is to be considered a temporary arrangement or a summary of the author's present knowledge. A considerable amount of labor has been expended upon it, a great deal of it on classifications by others rather than on studies of the animals classified. Original matter is more apparent in the diagnoses, and the latter will probably have most weight in determining the value of the whole. Passing the superstructure for the underpinning, it needs but a glance among the definitions and descriptions to bring to light errors, where they should be least expected, in matter pertaining to the best-known groups. Evidently it was the intention to include the chimæras in the Selachii, but the diagnosis "5—7 separate gill openings" excludes them. All the Myxinidæ and all but one or two other species of the Marsipobranchs are excluded from the division to which they belong by assigning it "6—7 pairs of circular gill openings." "Scales cycloid or ctenoid" are used to characterize the Teleostei, but this excludes such teleosts as have no scales, and many others the scales of which are neither cycloid nor ctenoid. The Ophidia are characterized in part by "A single lung developed (right)"; this is particularly inaccurate, since many of the snakes have two well-developed lungs, and in many others the right lung is rudimentary or absent. The volume is in need of a thorough revision. A glossary giving the etymology of all the names used would be a most desirable addition to a work of such purpose as this one; it would explain so much, and aid so much in memorizing.

Kathlamet Texts, told by Charles Cultee, recorded and translated by Franz Boas, is the title of Bulletin 26 of the Bureau of Ethnology. The Kathlamet is an Indian dialect of the Columbia River region; and since Professor Boas has found it spoken by three persons only, his record probably saves to linguistic science this peculiar form of Chinook speech. Unfortunately, scientists are not always thus timely; the opportuneness of the present work emphasizes anew the need of haste in the collection of the ephemeral data bearing on Indian life. These myths and tales are predominantly about animals; they are given in a connected English narrative, which is accompanied lower on the page by the actual (phonetic) text, and a literal interlinear translation. Keys to pronunciation are afforded, and abstracts of the myths and tales close a notable and scholarly work. It is true, of course, that the phonetic system, expressed, for example, in such characters as "X!" is of little value as an aid to pronunciation to any one but the author; anthropological science waits eagerly for the perfection of the phonogram.

For twenty years the Danish historian C. T. Sörensen has made a special study of Bernadotte, the results of which have appeared in valuable monographs on various points. Notice now comes through the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen of the publication of the first part of an extended biography entitled 'Bernadotte in the North, or the Separation of Norway from Denmark, and its Union with Sweden.' It is probably not generally known that the Danish archives contain richer material for the study of Bernadotte during the period preceding 1814 than even the Swedish collections. The reason for this apparent anomaly is the suspicion entertained of Bernadotte by the Danish Crown Prince Frederick, and the consequent voluminous reports of the former's movements made by spies and others to the Danish Government. The present author has made full use of this too long neglected material, which, it is believed, will correct many erroneous impressions received from the less objective Swedish authorities of earlier investigators. Sörensen has also had access to the Dépôt de la Guerre in Paris. None of Napoleon's other marshals can compare in interest and complexity of character with the founder of the present royal house of Sweden and Norway, and a new and serious presentation of him must be welcomed by the student of history.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for January opens with an account of the origin, present organization, and work of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey by its Superintendent, O. H. Tittmann. In the seventy years of its active existence it has mapped 30,000 miles of topography, "sounded out minutely nearly 300,000 square miles of water, while its deep-sea soundings cover a little less than a million square miles," the results of the whole work being shown on about 500 charts. Two of the force, who have been engaged in a reconnaissance survey in Alaska, report plans for the ascent of Mt. McKinley, which in their opinion would require a carefully organized expedition with a year's supplies. An article on jade, by S. E. Easter, gives many interesting facts in respect to this stone, which the Chinese regard "as the most beautiful substance in which human thought can embody itself." Confucius says that "it symbolizes virtue, and the price at which all the world values it symbolizes truth."

Adalbert Roquette, head librarian of the University of Goettingen, has just published an interesting brochure based on official reports, and entitled 'Die Finanzlage der Deutschen Bibliotheken,' in which he offers data on the poor financial backing which the German libraries must contend with. In general the condition of affairs is worse in this regard than it was in 1870. Only the Royal Library in Berlin proves an exception, as its annual donation has been increased from 90,000 to 150,000 marks. On an average, the German libraries fail to meet one out of every six requests for books because they do not possess them and have not the money to buy them. Roquette finds, however, that one of the chief causes for this inability is the phenomenal increase

in the literary output of Germany. In 1870, the sum of 37,000 marks would have sufficed to buy a copy of every book published in the country; in 1880 the sum needed was 65,000, and now it is 105,000 marks. Moreover, the average price of German books has materially increased during this period. Some of the larger libraries can buy only 5 per cent. of German publications, and the highest, outside of the Berlin library, is about 30 per cent.

A new educational departure at Oxford is the establishment of a training college for women teachers in secondary schools for girls. Its objects are to prepare students to pass the University examinations for the teacher's diploma; to give opportunity for an extra year of University life and study; and to provide a theological course (if desired) for those who will become divinity lecturers in colleges and girls' schools, or who will have to give religious instruction in the form of the school to which they may be appointed. At the opening of Cherwell Hall, as it is styled, on October 27, the Bishop of Liverpool emphasized the fact as of national importance that in secondary education "they were lagging in the race behind their Continental rivals. If at the present moment they were called upon to supply the secondary schools and the scholars who were capable of being educated in them, they would not have a hundredth part of the number of required teachers." The fees will be £65 a year; there is a scheme of scholarships and bursaries, and also a loan fund.

An agricultural college for women who have had an intermediate education is to be opened in Russia under the direction of the Ministry of Agriculture. While the main object is to give a general training, students will also be permitted to restrict their attention to special branches of agriculture, such as dairy farming, gardening, bee culture, poultry keeping, and cattle and sheep breeding. At the end of the three years' course the students will have the right to fill various posts under the Ministry of Agriculture, and will be further entitled to hold the position of administrators of the Crown domains and of teachers in the intermediate agricultural schools. 325 young ladies have announced their intention to enter the college, which will be, it is said, the first institution of the kind in Europe.

There can be no doubt that the woman question, as far as the German universities are concerned, has entered upon a second stage, and that is reactionary. The restrictions in Berlin have cut down the attendance, which a year and a half ago amounted to over six hundred, to something like four hundred at present. Munich, Leipzig, Halle, and other universities have also made it more difficult for women to get even the permission to attend lectures. The latest to decide upon these restrictions is Würzburg, whose Rector announces that only a card from himself will open the lecture rooms to women. These restrictions are, at least professedly, directed chiefly against Russian women, especially the graduates of the girls' gymnasia of that country; but it is evident that the German university authorities are convinced that they have not been making haste slowly enough in this matter during the last half-dozen years. No other government shows the least inclination to follow the example of Baden, which, at its two territorial universities, Heidelberg and Freiburg, admits women to matriculation and examinations on equal footing with men.

The novel experiment of establishing a Russian university in Paris is evidently proving a success. The Russians, unlike most Europeans and Americans, prefer Paris to Germany as a seat of high learning, and the colony of educated Russians in the French capital is accordingly large. One year ago a movement was inaugurated to have courses of university lectures delivered in Russian and French for this colony, and fully a dozen courses have been successfully given, mostly on literary, historical, and philosophical subjects. Among the lecturers were Brandes, Reclus, Nordau, and others. For the academic year 1902-1903 a full programme has been prepared, and the enterprise has evidently come to stay. It differs from the Russian historico-philosophical seminaries that were maintained some years ago by Alexander II. in both Leipzig and Berlin. Those two institutions, where Russian students were compelled to listen to lectures by German professors, turned out the majority of the law professors who are now active in the universities of Russia. The Paris institution is entirely a private project, and nearly all the teaching is done by Russian savants, many of whom are known to be antagonistic to the state of affairs in their mother country.

The general Occidental interest in Japanese art is believed by those most competent to judge to date from its first exhibition on a large scale at Vienna in 1873. The collection then so intelligently made was by Count Sano, who died in Tokio on December 7, 1902, at the age of eighty. His history illustrates the possibilities of the modern Japanese man. A medical student, he was sent to Holland in 1862 to oversee the building of a man-of-war. He visited also the Paris Exhibition, and there and then, it seems, resolved to begin what proved to be his remarkable career of healing and educating. He was active in giving the empire a lighthouse system, and then organized the Fine Arts Society, and began the formation of museums and the improvement of public parks and gardens. In Vienna he studied the methods of the Red Cross Society, and in Japan, on the breaking out of the insurrection of Saigo in Satsuma, in 1877, organized the Humane Society which later became the Red Cross of Japan. This society has now seven hundred thousand members, and an annual income of over a million yen. Besides complete equipment on land, it possesses two hospital ships named *Saviour* and *Mercy*. With Sano, ex-Minister of Finance and counsellor to the Emperor, art was a passion and charity a fine-art. For many years he was president of the Fine Arts Society and of the Red Cross.

—It is hard to believe that the more memorable sayings of Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius, or of our own Emerson and Thoreau, stimulate only the intellect. As these sayings grew out of singularly consistent and purposeful living, it seems that they should be convertible into terms of life. One gains some confidence that they are in reading the newly published 'Matthew Arnold's Notebooks'—a little volume (Macmillan) which curiously resembles in its contents the calendars we give away at Christmas time, or the little booklets entitled (say) 'Daily Food.' Arnold was accustomed to jot down in the narrow spaces of his diary, among notes of his engagements and family happenings, passages that struck him in his reading. In this way he had every day before his eyes a thought for that day. Greek, Latin, French, Italian, German, English extracts, all lie harmoniously together, preserving a certain unity. What is remarkable, however, is not the diversity of his reading, but the character of the passages he chose. He was, perhaps, the wittiest writer in England, but none of these maxims are chosen for their wit; he was the apostle of the "grand style," but his notebooks contain few extracts notable for stylistic elegance. His diaries resemble in no respect the commonplace books of a littérateur; they are more like the enchiridion of a devotee, or the "golden texts" of a Sunday-school lesson book. Nothing could more clearly bring out the essentially serious nature of the man than this attempt to discipline his spirit through daily contact with some high thought. There can be no question that he endeavored to find the maxims appropriate to his case and to live by them.

—Certain maxims are repeated many times in the year, and year by year. Thus, in the years from 1857 on, the resolve, "Let your aim be always definite" (*Semper aliquid certi proponendum est*), was a standing order. It represents very well the critic's constant struggle against loose thinking and random living. In his later years, when his own temperament and the pressure of society made the pleasures of the table a temptation, Franklin's "Eat and drink such an exact quantity as suits the constitution of thy body, in reference to the services of thy mind" reappears with suggestive frequency. In another way these notebooks show the complete consistency of Arnold's public and private life. Was it not he who told us to have always in our minds "lines and expressions of the great masters, and to apply them as a touchstone to other poetry"? These thoughts from the great moralists which he set down day by day were evidently touchstones to be applied to his private conduct.

—The Bell-Macmillan "Miniature Series of Painters" is now issued in another form, with limp leather covers and a photogravure frontispiece, as well as in the cheaper, cloth-covered, edition. Two numbers have been sent to us—the 'Burne-Jones,' which we reviewed on its first appearance, and 'Correggio,' by Leader Scott. This, which follows in its arrangement the type of all the other volumes of the series, is a dry little book, and has not, unfortunately, that virtue of accuracy which one expects as an accompaniment of dryness. On page 36 Correggio's "Leda" is said to be "now in Madrid," though it is correctly given in the list of "Chief Works" as at Berlin. On page 37 there is a description of the "Danaë," which says, "The body of Danaë is in the shade"; "a hind drinks in a stream behind her"; and "two beautiful little Loves are sharpening their arrows at the foot of the couch." In fact, the body of Danaë is not in shadow, but that of Cupid, described as "in a full light," is: the scene is in an interior, and, if there is any such incident as that of the drinking hind in the bit of landscape seen through the

window behind Cupid, it is too small to show in any ordinary reproduction, while the infant Loves are at the *head* of the couch. On page 55 it is said that the lunettes of the Abbess's room in the Convent of San Paolo "contain classic figures in monochrome, gray, on a gray ground, giving the effect of bas-reliefs in a sort light." On the contrary, these lunettes simulate statuettes and groups in the round, standing before semi-circular niches on which their cast shadows are clearly defined. The account of the "Marriage of St. Catherine," in the Louvre, says that "the figures are half life-size," though, in reality, they are rather over life-size but half-length, and the whole account of the three "Marriages" of St. Catherine is confused in the extreme, and leaves one wondering which one is reproduced. The List of Illustrations gives it, probably correctly, as the Naples version; the text, after the description of the Louvre version, goes on: "The painting at Naples is very much smaller, and there is no St. Sebastian in the design. Either the figure never was there, which proves that it is not a copy of the Louvre one, or it has been painted out, which does not appear likely. In the picture which forms our illustration, the attitudes, expressions, and draperies are quite different from the other." This last statement is certainly true, but if this picture is the Naples version, what does the former sentence mean? Many of these errors are trivial enough in themselves. A more serious one is the antedating by fifteen years of the "Madonna della Scodella"; an error which makes any rational theory of Correggio's development impossible. On the whole Leader Scott seems, like some other writers on art, to be constitutionally unable to describe anything correctly or state anything accurately and clearly, and we should advise no one to accept anything on her authority.

—The methods of private publishing societies, though they have undoubted value in reproducing old books, find limitations to their worth when it comes to printing new books about old ones. Here, for instance, is the Rowfant Club of Cleveland, which has just reprinted the old *Dial*, the landmark of the ever-interesting Transcendental period—a book whose original issue has grown rare and very costly. So far, so good; but the Club has also printed two volumes of "Historical and Biographical Introduction," the unique and almost exhaustive bibliographical work of Mr. George Willis Cooke, the one man who has wholly mastered the history of that early enterprise. His book unfolds the development and authorship of the whole *Dial*, identifying the writers of articles in almost every instance, and giving a chapter of biographical and literary sketching to each. Here we may not only read of Emerson, Parker, and Margaret Fuller; but of the Brook Farm Ripleys and Curtises, of Thoreau as sub-editor and Lowell as contributor, of Charles Newcomb who wrote "Dolon," of Ellen Sturgis who contributed the lines, to be found in so many albums and books of selections, beginning,

> "I slept and dreamed that life was Beauty."
> I woke and found that life was Duty."

We are informed for the first time that James Freeman Clarke wrote the passionate verses "To Nydia," and that Christopher P. Cranch, whom Poe called "one of the least intolerable of the school of Boston Transcendentalists," wrote the fine lines beginning,

> "Thought is deeper than all speech,
> Feeling deeper than all thought."

Here we see Charles A. Dana, afterwards of the New York *Tribune*, in his early chivalrous strain; and William Batchelder Greene as an abstruse thinker, not a soldier. We learn also of the criticisms and caricatures called forth by the *Dial;* and, in short, all the traits and sidelights of the one strongly marked original movement in American literature. And, finally, we learn—for here comes in the tantalizing part—that all this wealth of gossip and genius is shut up in two privately printed volumes, with the exasperating preliminary notice that only one hundred and twenty-seven copies have been printed for the Society, and no more are to be had, so that the wealthiest public library in the country cannot buy a copy in the market. From the point of view of literary history, such an enterprise is, to say the least, tantalizing.

—The eighth annual meeting of the Central Division of the Modern Language Association, held at the University of Chicago on the first three days of the new year, was (writes a correspondent) in every respect a success. This implies that the papers presented had something of interest for all, that the attendance was good, and that the social side was well looked after by the local committee and heartily enjoyed by the visiting members. The first session was held at Haskell Hall on Thursday evening, the exercises consisting of an address of welcome, delivered by Dean Judson of the Graduate School in the absence of President Harper, and the President's address by Prof. W. Starr Cutting, of the University of Chicago. In a charming manner, Dean Judson gave his impressions, from his student days, of the instruction in English and the modern languages at Williams College, concluding with a description of the immense change for the better at all our colleges and universities of the present day. Professor Cutting's address, without being in the least pessimistic, dwelt upon some of the faults of our modern-language instruction. It was in the main a plea, not for the natural method, so called, but for natural methods. The evening closed with a reception at the Quadrangle Club by the Faculty. The other social features were a luncheon on Friday, given by President Harper, a "Commers" in the evening, and a dinner at the club on Saturday for all the men who stayed until then. The papers read were about evenly divided among the three main departments. The only marked departure from earlier procedure was the holding of a set of three sectional meetings for the discussion of pedagogical questions. The success of this change was felt to be so great that it was adopted as a permanent feature. It was also decided to refer to the sectional meetings some of the more technical papers, which appeal to only a limited number of students. It was decided to hold the next meeting at Ann Arbor in conjunction with the Eastern Association, and Professor Hempl was elected president. This is the first time in its history that the Association has had the same head for its two divisions.

—The Royal Museum at Amsterdam, Holland, has just acquired, by purchase, a second one of the pictures of Marie Bashkirtseff, author of the renowned 'Journal.' It is hung on the line, among the treasures of the modern period, and will figure in the new catalogue in the spring. This may suitably draw a moment's attention to the wonderful success of the small collection of art works left behind her by this talented writer on her early death in 1884. It may fairly be said to justify her passionate aspirations for their merit and fame as expressed in the 'Journal'; and it was furthermore the expression of these aspirations that chiefly gave her her literary reputation. A first exhibition of the paintings, drawings and bits of sculpture at the Palais de l'Industrie, the year following her death, called forth very favorable mention from the press of the civilized world. Almost at once the French Government acquired three of the pictures for the Luxembourg. These were "The Meeting" (widely popularized by reproductions), and two pastel portraits, one of the model "Armandine," and the other of the Countess de Toulouse, a cousin of the artist's. Not long after, the Grand Duke Constantine carried off the graceful landscape, "April," to embellish his marble palace at St. Petersburg. The Museum of Nérac, France, secured a study of a female head; the Museum of Paris another, called "La Parisienne"; the Museum of Amsterdam the portrait of Madame Paul Bashkirtseff; and a Russian collector, at the Exposition of Munich, a portrait head, which is destined for the Museum of Moscow. Two of the pictures have come to America—"Jean et Jacques" (school urchins returning home), in the Museum of Chicago, and a study of a female figure, in the Museum of Cincinnati. The works, gradually decimated as above, used to be shown to the public at times in the former studio of the painter, kept intact in the hôtel owned by the family in the Rue de Prony, Paris. Later they have been moved to the Rue Hégésippe Moreau (No. 15), where, still under the charge of an old family servant, "Rosalie," something of a character in the 'Journal,' now grown a stout and rather imposing dame, they can be seen on Thursday afternoons.

SAINTSBURY'S HISTORY OF CRITICISM.

A History of Criticism and Literary Taste in Europe from the Earliest Texts to the Present Day. By George Saintsbury. In three volumes. Vol. II. From the Renaissance to the Decline of Eighteenth Century Orthodoxy. Dodd, Mead & Co. 8vo, pp. xviii., 593.

With the publication of Professor Saintsbury's second volume, that "History of Criticism" which Dr. Johnson projected a century ago, and which has hitherto deterred the boldest of scholars, is one step nearer completion. The general plan of the work calls for no comment here, and yet it is impossible to consider the details of the second volume without reminding the reader of the scope which the author set for himself in the first. There (vol. i., ch. i.) Professor Saintsbury, after excluding from his province "the more transcendental Aesthetic, with those ambitious theories of Beauty, and of artistic Pleasure in general, which, fascinating and noble as they

appear, have too often proved cloud-Junos," defines criticism as "the reasoned exercise of literary taste." But here at the outset there is a confusion of thought. The title of the work, 'A History of Criticism and Literary Taste,' becomes, by the author's own definition, "A History of Literary Taste and of the Reasoned Exercise of Taste"; and if we are to comprehend his purpose, it is essential that we should have some adequate conceptions of the meaning of "taste." Yet nowhere is a definition or general exposition of it attempted, for, by the nature of taste, such a discussion belongs to the very province of "theories of Beauty and of artistic Pleasure in general" which the author has at the outset excluded from his scope. In other words, Professor Saintsbury has written two volumes on a subject with which, on the very first page, he specifically refuses to "meddle."

But supposing that a definition of taste can be given without reference to the "ambitious theories" which he is to ignore, what can be meant by the "reasoned exercise" of taste? Professor Saintsbury, in an only too brief discussion of the first great critical theorist (vol. i., p. 20), regrets that Plato has not told us "what his real literary preferences in the way of poetry were," instead of putting us off with mere generalizations about beauty in the abstract. But what are the latter if not "reasoned exercises" of taste, since reasoning is an intellectual process and deals with general concepts? If criticism be merely "the most agreeable of all amusements," as our author seems to agree with Kames in thinking it (p. 469), then, and only then, can his impatience with general ideas be justified. For while taste is the intuitive process by which men apprehend the beauty of a work of art, criticism is the intellectual process by which they derive the principles for its explanation or justification.

It is with no intention of discrediting a dignified and monumental work, or of underrating the merits and difficulties of a pioneer achievement, that attention is called to what seem initial discrepancies of thought. The tradition of the higher English criticism since the days of Coleridge demands a training somewhat lacking in one whom an Italian critic has described as *per quanto valente letterato per tanto digiuno di filosofia*. A great task, without a determinate goal or an exact delimitation of its scope, is in danger of ending in confusion. That this is not the case is due to practised literary craftsmanship, and to the external aid of such devices as the characteristic "interchapters." But no extraneous device can give internal unity, and a philosophic conception of literary criticism is essential to the architectonic of such a history.

The volume before us carries on the history of criticism through the three centuries and more that separate the end of the mediæval from the beginning of the romantic period. Of the three books into which the volume is divided, the first is devoted to "Renaissance Criticism," the second to the "Crystallizing of the Neo-Classic Creed," and the third to "Eighteenth-Century Orthodoxy." After an introductory chapter on Erasmus, replete with excellent *dicta* and *aperçus*, Professor Saintsbury plunges into the stream of Italian criticism, discussing with great wealth of detail the works of theorists and historians from Politian and Savonarola to Summo and Denores. It were idle to attempt a summary of so exhaustive a treatment, but special attention may be called to the interesting discussions of Giraldi Cintio, Scaliger, Castelvetro, and Patrizzi. The 'Defence of Poetry' of Augustinus Olmucensis is a "find" upon which both Professor Saintsbury and Mr. Gregory Smith (p. 27) are to be congratulated. Yet it is to be regretted that want of acquaintance with Dr. Vossler's 'Poetische Theorien in der Italienischen Frührenaissance' has made the treatment of the earlier humanists lacking in critical detail, and that throughout this section critics like Aretino and Gelli, among the most important of the sixteenth century, are omitted because they did not write formal treatises on the subject. Castelvetro's exposition of Dante has not been lost (p. 80, n.), but was printed for the first time at Modena in 1886 under the editorship of Giovanni Franciosi. Muzio's 'Arte Poetica' was not the first vernacular poem on criticism (p. 46), but was preceded by an 'Arte Poetica' (Piacenza, 1549), which is attributed to Costanzo Landi, whose namesake, Ortensio, wrote, beside the famous 'Paradossi,' a 'Scourge of Ancient and Modern Authors,' with a supplementary 'Exhortation to the Study of Letters,' which Professor Saintsbury has not included. Professor Cook did not reprint Vida "with his two great disciples" (p. 30), but with Horace and Boileau. Trissino died in 1550, and therefore the whole of his book and not merely a part (p. 38, n.), must have been written before that date. The Baconian "idols" are not "ideals" (p. 87), and "Rote" (p. 51) should be "Rota." The mysterious "Pacius," mentioned among non-Italian writers on page 263, is no other than the Alessandro de' Pazzi of page 41, whose name appears in the Latin form of Paccius on his title-page. Nor do we understand why a manuscript note in Professor Saintsbury's copy of Minturno is relied on for the origin of that critic's name (p. 51), when a simple reference to Tiraboschi would give the real facts, and would show, too (p. 129, n.), that Minturno was a poet as well as theorist. Several of the names in the classified list of Italian critics at the end of Crescimbeni's 'Storia della Volgar Poesia' do not appear here, but on the whole the treatment of Italian criticism is exhaustive, and in a sense definitive.

The same neglect of the humanists noted above is to be found in the French and English chapters. To begin the former with Sibilet and Du Bellay is to ignore the preparation they received in such notable works as the 'De Studio Litterarum' and the 'De Philologia' of Budæus. Rabelais, who introduced humanistic ideals into creative literature, is dismissed with a brief foot-note (p. 141), nor is there any mention, in a subsequent chapter, of the dramatic controversy which in 1694 culminated in Bossuet's 'Maximes de la Comédie,' and which doubtless inspired Jeremy Collier to write his 'Immorality and Profaneness of the English Stage' in 1698. Gibert's supplement to Baillet's 'Jugements des Savants' is described as very difficult to procure, whereas it is reprinted at the end of the best and most accessible edition of Baillet, published at Amsterdam in 1725. Harvey's 'Rhetor' and 'Ciceronianus' are not mentioned, nor Dr. Carpenter's edition of Coxe's 'Rhetoric,' with its valuable introduction on English and foreign rhetoricians, while the treatment of Bacon is wholly one-sided.

For German criticism, Professor Saintsbury seems to have ignored the chief authority, Borinski's 'Poetik der Renaissance.' Buehler (p. 355) should, of course, be Buchler, and it is interesting to note that an edition of his work appeared in London in 1632 with some important Latin verses, 'Joannis Corneliadæ Angli.' It is untrue that there was no Dutch criticism in the vernacular (p. 363, n.), for, without considering the very notable prefaces of Vondel and Hooft, there are several formal treatises, including Rodenburg's 'Eglentiers Poëtens Borst-weringh' (1619), which is largely a paraphrase of Sidney's 'Defence of Poetry' (*cf.* Jonckbloet, 'Geschiedenis der Nederlandsche Letterkunde,' 1899, iii. 200 *sq.*). The indebtedness of Opitz to his Dutch, Italian, and French predecessors, which is so great as to make his book almost a purely imitative *rifacimento*, is ignored, and we miss the most important of his successors before Gottsched (p. 551), Morhof, the teacher of Wernigke, Wernigke the teacher of Menke, Menke the patron of Gottsched himself. In the Spanish section, the important critical preface of Torres Naharro's 'Propaladia,' which was published at Naples in 1517, and dedicated to the Spanish husband of Vittoria Colonna, is not mentioned, although of great consequence, both on account of its early date and the completeness of its dramatic theory. The chapter on the Italian Decadence suffers somewhat by the neglect of recent scholarship, such as Croce's 'Trattatisti Italiani del Concettismo,' and the accounts of seventeenth-century criticism in Foffano's 'Ricerche Letterarie' and Belloni's 'Seicento.' At all events, we miss some of the chief monuments of the period, Menzini's 'Arte Poetica,' Nisieli's 'Proginnasmi,' the critical writings of the great Galileo, and especially, in the next century, the all-important 'Scienza Nuova' of Vico, who is the founder of a new theory of poetic art opposed to that of all the old *preceptistas* from Vida to Castelvetro. There is no allusion to Portuguese criticism, which possessed critical treatises like those of Macedo and Francisco Manoel, and which in the struggle between Tassistas and Camoistas developed a controversy almost as important as that which raged about the 'Gerusalemme Liberata.'

These are for the most part mere errors of detail, but in the later portions of the volume some of the fundamental defects of Professor Saintsbury's method appear. Side by side with that "crystallizing of the neo-classic creed" to which the second book is devoted, there were being developed in Europe certain less tangible but no less important critical ideals which were later to fix and mould our own judgment of literature. This development appears in the evolution of the very term which at the outset we reproached Professor Saintsbury for neglecting to define. Surely, the term which appears on his title-page, and which he has stated as the subject of his whole undertaking, deserves historical explanation. The *de gustibus* of the ancients referred solely to food, and it was not until the seventeenth century that the word, and with it the classical phrase, was applied to literature. The origin of "taste" as an æsthetic term has been disputed, but it probably first appears in this sense in the

works of the Spaniard Gracián. There are still other words which were being coined, or rather were acquiring a new meaning, at this period—words like sentiment, fancy, wit, imagination, and the like—and the whole terminology of modern criticism was being formed. To this great ferment of critical thought there is no allusion in this volume, nor does Professor Saintsbury seem to know that the words he is continually using are not world-old. The humanists devoted themselves to the imitation and comprehension of classical antiquity; their successors formulated the results of this study into formal rules. But, in time, taste succeeded law as the criterion of literature, until with the beginnings of the romantic movement the element of the creative imagination was apprehended and included.

The inadequacy, or the bias, of the treatment of later French criticism is apparent in the discussion of Boileau, to whom twenty pages of tirade and polemic are devoted, and especially in that of Voltaire. Rousseau is brushed aside with the dictum that "if he had been a critic at all, he would have been on the revolting and romantic side" (p. 519), a rather startling assertion to any reader of Texte's well-known work, in which a hundred pages are devoted to "the part played by Rousseau in the evolution of criticism," and in which his actual accomplishment is summed up as "that of substituting the notion of a relative æsthetic, variable both from one period and from one country to another, for that of an absolute æsthetic." There may be compensation for all this in the excellent and often brilliant treatment of English criticism from Dryden to Johnson. Yet we cannot but regret the inconsistency or insularity which gives Rymer seven pages and Dennis six pages to Voltaire's four, while the single paragraphs devoted to Cervantes, Gracián, and Luzán compare strikingly with the three pages apiece given to such mediocrities as Harris and Bysshe. We miss an adequate discussion of "wit," which is central in the critical doctrine of the period; and in the exposition of the 'Essay on Criticism' there is no realization of the importance of the couplet:

> "A perfect judge will read each work of wit
> With the same spirit that its author writ,"—

which is not a mere paraphrase of Quintilian, but one of the first expressions of the oneness of the mental processes of genius and taste (*cf.* Croce, 'Estetica,' p. 502). The Dictionary of National Biography is followed in assigning Gildon's 'Lives and Characters of the English Dramatic Poets' to 1699 (p. 430, n.), but on page 145 of that book Waller is said to have "died about eight years since," which would indicate that it appeared about 1695. There are also several omissions in these two chapters, including the lengthy prefaces of Sir Richard Blackmore, Farquhar's 'Discourse upon Comedy,' and Mulgrave's 'Essay on Poetry.'

What has been actually accomplished in this volume, however, is far-reaching. Using throughout the method which he has consciously adopted—"that of giving the gist of particular books and the opinions of particular authors together, and leaving bird's-eye views to the interchapters" (p. 37)—Professor Saintsbury has traced the history of criticism, and given the substance of the chief critical monuments, in Italy, France, England, Spain, and Germany, from the end of the fifteenth to the end of the eighteenth century. In so enormous a field it is easy to discover errors both of commission and omission. But we cannot lay down this large volume without marvelling at the industry, the skill, and the wide reading which it exhibits, and wondering whether any other littérateur in Europe could have successfully covered the same all-embracing subject. Professor Saintsbury has acknowledged his indebtedness to his predecessors with such generous appreciation that it is impossible to withhold from him the praise that is justly his. A second edition may well eradicate many of the flaws of the first, and it is for the purpose of modestly assisting in this that we have concerned ourselves with so many trifling details. The completion of the whole work will mark an epoch in English criticism.

The Christmas Kalends of Provence, and Some Other Provençal Festivals. By Thomas A. Janvier. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1902.

Mr. Janvier has always taken his Provence pretty seriously. His new volume, made up of articles that have appeared in the popular magazines, continues this tone, especially in the opening section, devoted to the Christmas festivities in an ancestral dwelling near Avignon. This abode of the antiquarian squire is not quite a Bracebridge Hall, and the sentiment here approaches the least trifle to gush. In the second section, however, a Feast-day on the Rhone, and the third, the Comédie-Française at Orange, Mr. Janvier has a brisker, pleasanter, touch, which is much more in keeping with the way in which those merry gentry the Félibres, or new troubadours, of southern France in our day take themselves. To make a little monograph of the volume it would have been better to tell more about who these lively Félibres were; it seems taken for granted that readers know sufficient already, which is not quite safe in these days of many books and many subjects. They are the followers of the barber-poet Jasmin, and especially the pupils of Roumanille, who, in a half-humorous and entirely sprightly fashion, renew the old minstrelsy and the floral games, encourage writing in all the dialects of the tongues derived from the Latin, and even propose a political alliance among the peoples of Latin blood, and talk of "decentralizing" the egotistical supremacy of Paris by getting the provinces to think less humbly of their own initiative. The writer has under his eye at the present moment an almanac for the year 1903, in one of the coast dialects of Provençal, and this contains a list of thirty-two other publications, mainly almanacs too. These minor collections are the form in which the dialect writing chiefly sees the light. Roumanille and most of the other leaders are dead. Mistral alone remains, a dignified figure standing apart from the more eccentric manifestations of his associates; after his death, the troubadour enthusiasm is likely to decline rapidly.

The Feast-day on the Rhone is a steamboat excursion down that river, and it is given in parts with the dash of the unruly river itself. The excursionists take hold of hands and dance up and down the boat, putting strangers and all at ease, in the merry French manner; they are received by mayors and brass bands, and go ashore to breakfast and dedicate monuments, while admirers on high bridges deftly cast them down mammoth bouquets as they shoot the arches below. The most notable act of the Decentralization campaign thus far is the giving from time to time such standard pieces as "Antigone" and "Œdipus the King" in the ancient Roman theatre at Orange. It is the best theatre company in Paris that comes down to do this, so the conflict is not of a very bitter sort. The account of one of these occasions is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of a most interesting matter, and many of the strange artistic effects are rendered with a vivid charm of description which they merit. You enter by night through a dark passage; the vast dim interior is peopled with faces obscurely seen as if spirits; all the interest is concentrated, with a glow of light and color, on the stage, about which large trees have grown up from the stones. The chronic north wind of the valley, the *mistral*, takes a hand in improving the draperies of the actors. The acoustic properties are strangely distinct. Mademoiselle Bréval comes forward, her beautiful bare arms are raised, the wind blows back her robes in the most perfect classic folds, and she seems a living embodiment of the Winged Victory.

Ireland, Industrial and Agricultural. Dublin and Cork: Browne & Nolan. 1902.

This admirably prepared handbook to Ireland is an official publication issued by the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, edited by William P. Coyne, the statistical officer of the department. It contains forty-nine separate articles, written by experts in the several subjects dealt with, describing the geology, topography, and climate of Ireland; its railways, canals, and banks; its educational institutions, so far as they deal with art and industry; the principal industries of the country, such as dairying, bacon-curing, stock-breeding, fishing, brewing, distilling, milling, shipbuilding, woollen and linen spinning and weaving. Many of the industries enumerated are in a state of decay, others are in their infancy, created or existing only by the assistance and guidance of the Agricultural and Industrial Department established in 1900. Some of those for which Ireland is best known consist of a single firm operating on a large scale. The shipbuilding yard of Harland & Wolf in Belfast has turned out some of the largest and finest ocean steamers, but, outside the works of this firm, shipbuilding hardly exists in Ireland. Guinness's porter brewery in Dublin claims to be the largest concern of its kind in the world. The market value of its stock is at present supposed to be over $100,000,000, and its yearly output approaches 2,000,000 barrels. The linen industry is concentrated in a small corner of Ulster, and is mainly in the hands of a few large firms.

Apart from these, other Irish industries are insignificant, though many present features of much interest, especially the home and cottage industries, which are helped along partly by the Department, partly by voluntary and benevolent assistance. Almost without coal, with much water but little water power, poor in minerals, Ireland's prospects of industrial development are small. The main source of Ireland's wealth and the means of subsistence for her pop-

ulation must always be the land used for farming, but the produce from that source is decreasing year by year. The population is steadily diminishing, having now fallen to less than four and one-half from nearly nine millions in 1847. Though that question does not come within the scope of this book, there can be no doubt that the system of land tenure and government has been the main cause of the great exodus from Ireland and the decay of agriculture. Besides evictions and "clearances" by landlords, public and private money was profusely spent in emigrating the people; but within the last year a society has been formed for "the preservation of the Irish peasantry"; the President is James McCann, a wealthy stock broker and large landowner; and associated with him are Gen. Sir William Butler and Mrs. J. R. Green, widow of the well-known historian.

The heavy freights on Irish railways and insufficient traffic facilities are admitted by this association, as well as by the Agricultural Department, to be a heavy tax on farmers. The articles on the railways and canals of Ireland describe very fully the chaos of the traffic system. The canal system, largely made by Government, is an "unfinished network of waterways of diverse depths and with numerous breaks of gauge." A canal connecting the Erne and Shannon, constructed fifty years ago with public money at a cost of a quarter of a million sterling, was never finished, and no boat has ever gone over it. Its completion would provide an unbroken waterway from Belfast to Limerick The mileage of all the Irish railways is little more than that of the Great Western of England, but the Irish railways "are controlled by nearly thirty different companies, each with its own directors and salaried officials." The Great Western of England carries four times as many passengers per train mile, and takes in for all traffic more than four times the total receipts of all the Irish railways. The average rate charged per ton for merchandise carried in Ireland is 37 per cent. more than in England. A continually decreasing population, the absence of competitive lines, and the many small independent companies make the Irish railway problem very different from that of England, where opposite circumstances have led to lower rates for all traffic, faster services, increased comfort, and higher dividends.

Irish railway rates are a heavy tax on the main industry of Ireland—farming. Agricultural instruction is the chief function of the department, of which this handbook of Ireland is to some extent an advertising puff. The special articles on Agriculture relate what has been done heretofore in the way of agricultural education, and what is now being attempted. It would be unfair to judge the department, only two years in existence, by its results, or to compare its work with similar work done in other European countries where efficient systems of technical and agricultural instruction have been in operation for half a century. It may, however, be remarked that the Statistical Survey of Irish Agriculture is based on the figures collected for many years by the police, and known to be both incorrect and misleading.

One feature stands out clearly, viz., that the country is rapidly going to grass. Districts once populous are becoming almost uninhabited ranches. There is litle agriculture because there is no one to till the land. The depopulation is most marked where the land is most fertile. The following remarks recently made in Glasgow by Archbishop Logue describe aptly the relation of the Agricultural Department to the people and the land:

"They have at present a department for improving the agricultural knowledge of the people. That was excellent, but there was no use improving agricultural knowledge when there was no land to till. What they wanted to get was the land, which was the chief source of wealth in every country. They could not get it. The land was given over to cattle, and the people were flying from the country. The people were the wealth of the country. If those who held the destinies of the Empire in their hands acted as true statesmen, they would endeavor to get the people on to the land. Cattle didn't pay taxes; cattle didn't smoke tobacco; and cattle didn't drink tea, and there was something else the cattle didn't drink in which he wished the people would be imitators! They would soon have no one in Ireland except the old and the weak who were not able to step into a railway carriage or climb the deck of a steamboat."

The account of the lace industry, mainly carried on in the poorest parts of Ireland, is one of the most interesting chapters in this book, which, in addition to the useful information it contains, has the recommendation that, being an official publication, it is sold at the low price of five shillings.

The Silva of North America. By Charles Sprague Sargent, Director of the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University. Illustrated with figures and analyses drawn from nature by Charles Edward Faxon. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

It is very gratifying to be able to chronicle the completion of a great undertaking, of which the early promise has been more than kept. When this work began, over twelve years ago, it was supposed that twelve volumes would amply contain the plates and descriptions of the arboreous and arborescent vegetation of the continent of North America above the boundary line of Mexico. As the investigation proceeded, it became apparent that more space would be required than had been originally planned. Instead of about 425 species, nearly 700 were becoming known, and supplementary volumes were imperatively demanded. One of these supplementary volumes has been made a free gift to the original subscribers; the other is sold to them at the low price of each of the earlier volumes—a generous policy which deserves special mention. Volume XIII. is devoted chiefly to the interesting group of thorns, a variable cluster of plants, unimportant in their economic relations, but presenting many curious features of great attractiveness to the botanist, especially to the botanist who considers distribution and slight adaptive variations as worthy of study. Ever since species in the vegetable and animal worlds have been regarded as representing the survival of the fittest (not by any means, always the strongest), the variations or "forms" have taken on a new meaning. Hence, the beautiful and wholly truthful delineations of the thorns, given by Mr. Faxon's pencil, assume a value of the first order, as permanent records of the conditions of the forms to-day, and as affording material for speculation as to the influence of environment.

It is not excessive praise to give these and all of the drawings by Mr. Faxon the very highest place among botanical figures. The drawings are spirited and accurate, and they are also, in the best sense of the word, artistic. They are never wooden; they never represent dried twigs and preserved parchment-like leaves; they are living. Such records are invaluable. Professor Sargent has gracefully expressed the indebtedness of the botanical world for the vast service which Mr. Faxon has rendered to botanical science, in his dedication of the closing volume—"in grateful appreciation of the skill and learning which for twenty years he has devoted to the Silva of North America."

As in previous volumes, the text is perspicuous, and the general information full. Professor Sargent is to be sincerely congratulated on the eminent success of his completed undertaking.

Egypt in the Neolithic and Archaic Periods. By E. A. Wallis Budge, M.A., D. Lit., Litt. D. Henry Frowde. 1902. 12mo, pp. xxiv., 222.

This book would have been an impossibility fifteen or even ten years ago. Within this limited time the veil has been lifted a little from the prehistoric period in Egypt, and we to-day have learned more about what antedated Menes, the first reputed King of Egypt, than all the intervening ages have recorded. This knowledge has come to us as the result of diggings that have been prosecuted with active zeal since about 1890.

The author is the well-known keeper of Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities in the British Museum. He is well acquainted with the work that has been done in the field, and he is also conversant with all that has been published in connection with it. His function in the present volume is that of digesting editor, and he has performed his task with sufficient detail to present the reader with an interesting and instructive report of progress. This book is the latest in the field, but it is not the last word. Its very form and style proclaim its temporary purpose and mission. To most readers it will come as a rather startling revelation because of lack of acquaintance with what has been accomplished in a decade and a half, but in the nature of things it must soon yield place to another book that shall take the story up at an earlier point, and fill in the outline with a multitude of details that will make those remote periods almost live again. But the whole story reads like a romance even now. It almost passes belief that we have an authentic picture of life above seven thousand years ago. Yet it was bound to come at some time, for the people who possessed a finished and elaborate system of writing in what we have been wont to regard as the very dawn of their history, must have also possessed a history that ran back into the twilight before that dawn. This history has begun to be made known to us, and Dr. Budge has summarized it here. In so doing he has performed a service, but it is one that he will have to repeat by somewhat frequent revision before the definitive book is produced.

It is the first of eight volumes in which the entire story of Egypt is to be told. Its style and appearance are popular, and everything indicates the author's purpose to provide a book suited to the compre-

hension of the layman who is interested in the general theme. The volumes of Flinders Petrie and of Maspero have a far more scholarly air; they may be taken as a sort of counterpart and supplement, one to the other.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, John. The Minor Prophets. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners.
Allbutt, Clifford. The Rise of the Experimental Method in Oxford. Henry Frowde. 1s.
Appian Civil Wars: Book I. Edited by J. L. Strachan-Davidson. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Baker, T. O. A Treatise on Roads and Pavements. John Wiley & Sons. $5.
Beane, A. L. A Garland of Verses for the Heart of Toil. Boston. Eastern Publishing Co.
Colden, Cadwallader. The History of the Five Indian Nations of Canada. 2 vols. New Amsterdam Book Co.
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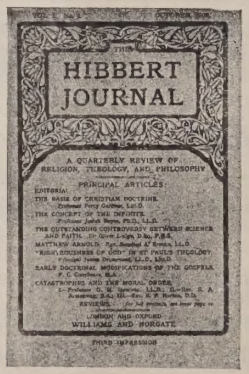

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ASK FOR
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 22, 1903.

The Week.

The House Committee on Rules has agreed that a day shall be assigned for consideration of the currency bill known as the amended Fowler bill. Its principal feature is the granting of power to national banks to take out and issue notes to the amount of 25 per cent. of their capital against the assets in their own vaults; that is, without depositing security therefor in the Treasury. The bill provides, however, that, before receiving such notes from the Comptroller, the bank shall deposit cash in the Treasury equal to 5 per cent. thereof, to form part of a common guaranty fund for all notes so taken out and issued. Such notes are to be a first lien on the assets of the issuing bank, and, in the event of the failure of any national bank, its notes issued under the provisions of this act shall be paid at the Treasury out of the guaranty fund, and the Treasury shall recover from the assets of the failed bank an amount equal to its outstanding notes and pay the same into the guaranty fund. The bill is a first step in the direction of what is commonly termed "assets currency," and although this is not the first time that a committee of the House has reported in favor of that principle, it is the first time that the House has been in a mood to seriously consider it. It is fair to presume, also, that the House will pass it at the present session. It is not likely that the Senate will act upon it now, but its passage by the House will give it an impetus that will make its passage through the next Congress quite probable.

The drawback clause of the tariff law allows a refund of duties to anybody who re-exports an imported article either in the original or in a different shape. Thus, if tin-plate is imported and then exported in the form of cans containing oil, or salmon, or condensed milk, or what not, the duties on the tin-plate will be refunded, provided the exporter identifies the material as the same on which duty was paid. It is not easy, however, to identify the material. So much trouble and delay is involved in the process that in many cases it costs more than it comes to. So Mr. Lovering of Massachusetts has introduced a bill in Congress to dispense with identification altogether. Under this bill American-made tin-plate, when exported, would be entitled to the rebate the same as though it had been imported and duties had been paid. The theory of the blessed tariff is that it merely covers the difference in wages between the cost of the imported and the domestic article. If that is the truth, the domestic producer and the foreign producer stand on the same footing in the American market. Why should the user of the foreign article have an advantage in the export trade? That is what Mr. Lovering would like to know. But we should like to know how the case stands when the duty on the foreign article is 4000 per cent., as in the case of mica. Is the Government to refund to the user of domestic mica its value forty times over when it is exported as a part of some other manufacture? Will not Mr. Lovering's bill put our blessed tariff into too glaring a light and expose it to dangers not now dreamed of?

Reference has been made in our columns to an ambiguous clause in the Cuban treaty regarding the rates of duty on sugar coming to the United States from other countries. The ambiguity has been removed by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, which has changed the phraseology so that, "while this convention is in force, no sugar shall be imported into the United States from any other foreign country at a lower rate of duty than that imposed by the act of July 24, 1898"—that is, by the Dingley tariff. This amendment is probably unconstitutional, seeing that it takes from the House of Representatives for five years the power to repeal or reduce the duties on sugar, and prevents both President and Senate during the same time from entering into any similar treaty with any other sugar-producing country. Attempts to tie the hands of future Congresses and Presidents are always fraught with dangerous consequences. It is conceivable that the Republican party might again desire to put sugar on the free list as was done in the McKinley tariff. The Democrats may carry the next national election, and may desire to deal with the sugar duties in a broader way than the Cuban treaty provides for. Would that party give much heed to a measure which assumes the power to "tie up" both the Executive and Legislative branches of the Government for five years? If the Senate can exercise such powers for five years, it can do so for ten or fifty.

It should not be overlooked that other sugar-producing countries may retaliate if they find us discriminating against them in this wise. In the German Reichstag on January 14, Count Posadowsky-Wehner said that since the United States had abandoned the old interpretation of the most-favored nation clause, Germany would abandon it also in her dealings with the United States. What will Germany be likely to do if she finds that we have entered into an agreement with Cuba that we will not put Germany on an equal footing with Cuba, no matter what concessions Germany may make in return? This scheme is evidently another protective device of the beet-sugar men. If they cannot defeat the Cuban treaty, they think they can keep out the sugar of other countries and thus pay themselves for their magnanimity in admitting Cuban sugar at a small reduction from the Dingley rates. Perhaps the Democrats in the Senate may checkmate that move.

Washington oracles agree that the outlook for anti-Trust legislation comes down to about this: A law of some kind must be passed, for the President himself has said it; but it must be a "mild" law, for the Senate will permit no other. The sole problem is, therefore, how to harmonize the two demands; and it is not difficult to see that the "mild" opponents of Trusts, like the meek, will inherit the earth. Mr. Roosevelt's position is simply that he must have something; the Trusts want but little legislation here below, but want that little mild; the upshot will probably be a measure which will roar as gently as a sucking dove. The President's friends are using the argument that the corporations would be wise to make terms, since if they do not accept a mild-mannered bill, they will have to take one much more "drastic." But what does that threat mean? That the Democrats are to be brought into power to pass the drastic law? By the very supposition, the Republican party is to be prevented from doing it. But no such considerations have any proper place in the discussion. If there ought to be a drastic law at all, it ought to be passed at once, not held as a club over the heads of the Trusts to compel them to take something short of full justice. Let all the pending bills be supported or rejected on their merits, and not pushed by talk of worse to come if these fail.

The army is singularly fortunate with its reform legislation this year. Not only is the general staff bill well on its way through Congress, but the Senate passed last week the Militia Bill, which has already gone through the House. The Senate struck out one of the most important sections—that providing a reserve of 100,000 men who have been honorably discharged from the army, the volunteers, or the National Guard. These were to be required to report once a year to some officer of the War Department during an enrolment of five years. For this

reporting each reserve man was to receive $10 annually. This was the most radical feature of the Dick bill, which has represented Secretary Root's views from the beginning, and, as a new departure in American military procedure, it met with considerable opposition. Even without this, there is much of importance left in the bill as passed. It takes the place of long antiquated legislation, some of it dating back a hundred years. It defines the status of the militia as a body which may be used only to suppress insurrection or repel invasion for a period of three months. In other respects it creates a machinery by means of which volunteer armies may be promptly and properly raised and officered on the outbreak of war. It is distinctly the result of the military failures, miscarriages, and mistakes of the war with Spain, and should do much for the improvement of our State troops.

It is painful to record another interruption of the smooth and easy flow of private pension legislation in the House. As might be supposed, the trouble was caused by an inexperienced member, unfamiliar with the requirements of courtesy and mutual consideration on such occasions. Almost at the beginning of a recent pension-day session, Mr. Russell of Texas rose to call the attention of the House to the rapid increase in the number of private pensions granted by Congress. He even had the temerity to reduce his information to statistical form, showing that in 1898 Congress passed 394 private pension bills, carrying $67,014; in 1899, 300, carrying $45,186; in 1900, 684, carrying $117,759; in 1901, 707, carrying $120,192; and in 1902, 1,114, carrying $182,825. Not content with the unpleasant impression caused by these uncalled-for summaries, he alluded most inconsiderately to the current calendar of the House. On the calendar for January 5, he pointed out, there were 54 private pension bills. By January 7 these had been increased to 116, and by January 9 to 144. If this rate of increase continued, Mr. Russell feared, members would not be able to vote understandingly on the bills as they came up.

The idea that any member should want to examine a private pension bill naturally created a general laugh. Mr. Russell, however, was not permitted to get off with mere ridicule. Mr. Sulloway of New Hampshire and Mr. Grosvenor of Ohio questioned him sharply. Did he know anything about the pending bill? He admitted that he did not, declaring that the inability of members to examine all the private pension bills was the very point of his protest. But Mr. Sulloway and Mr. Grosvenor showed how barefaced was this attempt to dodge. If he knew nothing about the pending bill, why had he injected himself into the discussion? Would he tell them that? But Mr. Russell had sunk back into his seat, properly overwhelmed. The debate became general. Mr. Grosvenor engaged in a personal wrangle with Mr. Gaines of Tennessee, and Mr. Russell's figures were happily forgotten. Just to make sure that the irrelevant remarks of a new member from Texas had not thrown the House off its balance, it increased the already liberal allowances made by the Pension Committee.

In declining to exchange his arduous post for the Supreme Court Bench, Gov. Taft has given another admirable example of true devotion to duty. It will be remembered that he went back to the Philippines last spring with the fear that he might not survive the effects of a second stay in the climate of the archipelago. Now he has put aside the high office which he has long regarded as the goal of his ambition, in order to stick to his task as Governor-General. Failing Judge Taft, it is announced that the President will appoint Judge William R. Day of Ohio to the Supreme Court. This would be, it is presumed, in pursuance of the late Mr. McKinley's wishes and promise. Mr. Day has had a respectable if not distinguished career on the bench, and if the appointment must go to his circuit, it is possible that no better man in the line of promotion could be found. On the great Constitutional questions connected with Imperialism which in one way or another must again come before the Supreme Court, Judge Day is supposedly in accord with those who maintain that new blunders require new judicial opinions. That he was strongly against the annexation of the Philippines, appears in his dispatches from Paris as Peace Commissioner. He flatly told President McKinley that annexation was opposed both to "the spirit of our instructions" and to the "declared disinterestedness of purpose and freedom from designs of conquest with which the war was undertaken." Later, when the President insisted that the Commissioners demand the Philippines by the stark right of conquest, Mr. Day agreed with Senator Davis in holding such a claim to be valid neither in law nor in morals. One sees, then, how much he will have to live down if he expects to recover the good opinion of Imperialists.

A funereal atmosphere hung over the proceedings of the caucus which renominated Platt. Not one enthusiastic word was uttered; not a cheer raised. Like slaves flogged to their task, the Republicans present carried out their orders. It was a cheerless, depressing ceremony, and it has fallen like a wet blanket on the whole State. One perfectly heartless feature of the vote for Platt deserves comment. His supporters confidently expect him to die soon. They speak of him as already tottering on the edge of the grave, and say that his death will in a few months give the Senatorship back to them to dispose of as they please. Anything more inhuman than this measuring of the waning strength of a man whom they believe to be near his end it would be difficult to imagine. The Republican managers gloat over Platt's bodily and mental infirmities, and reckon up the days till he will be gone. For our part, we hope that he will live to serve out his term. We would not spare the Republican party one hour of the disgrace which his continued presence in the Senate brings upon it.

News from Senatorial contests reads very like news from the seat of war. Both Colorado and Delaware are as excited as if they were on the verge of civil strife—and perhaps they are. The Addicks people have threatened bloodshed; and in Denver armed men are guarding the various factions. Why should such giant passions be aroused? It is not a mere party advantage that is involved. The Republicans are safely in control of the Senate at Washington, no matter who may be chosen in Delaware or Colorado. What we see, in both cases, is something madder than partisan excitement. It is the mania of gamblers. Addicks and Wolcott are playing for enormous stakes. They think they see vast winnings in sight, and desperately call upon their frantic followers to lose no point in the game. This is the sort of spirit which makes too many Senatorial struggles take on the air of a contest between rival bandits; and which is undoubtedly intensifying the general feeling in favor of an election of Senators by popular vote.

Gov. Murphy of New Jersey comes to the defence of Trusts with refreshing frankness. He has no patience with " the clamor of the demagogue" (meaning President Roosevelt) who "needlessly alarms the people" by questioning "the power of the nation to deal adequately with its own." Who is the Trust's own, the Governor leaves in little doubt when he proposes a law to cut off the stockholder's remedy of seeking to "enjoin corporations or others in this State from carrying out plans adopted by them." This he would do by requiring the litigant to give an indemnity bond before applying for a writ of injunction. In no other respect do the corporation laws of New Jersey need amendment, according to the Governor. They would be absolutely perfect if they only made impossible such effective interference as the Steel Trust and the Prudential merger met with in New Jersey courts. Gov. Murphy's pæan in praise of Trusts will ex-

cite varying emotions in different quarters. The President, Senator Hoar, and Attorney-General Knox will be somewhat chagrined to learn that they have been getting so excited over just nothing at all. And when the irate people out West who think they are suffering from the operation of New Jersey charters, learn from the Governor that his State has "justly won the confidence of the country," they will think that he has exemplified his own saying that "it is time to clear the air."

The Governor of Indiana having removed the Sheriff who permitted a mob to take from him and lynch a negro prisoner, that delinquent is making strong efforts to nullify the law under which the Governor acted. When the Sheriff asked for reinstatement, Gov. Durbin himself listened to the testimony on both sides, and then declared that the removal was eminently justified. The Sheriff, having been chosen again at the last election, insists that he is still in office, and is acting as a county official; but it is plainly the duty of the State to oust him by force if necessary. Then he may have the constitutionality of the law tested in the proper way. The case is one of great interest, not only in Indiana, but elsewhere. The Governor acted promptly and courageously, and there can be no doubt that, if the law is upheld, it will have a tonic effect on many sheriffs, even in other counties and States, who might sympathize with lynchers. In Sheriff Dudley's case it appeared that he declined to fire on the mob because he thought the lives of the lynchers more valuable than that of the negro.

The shooting of Editor Gonzales by Lieut.-Gov. Tillman at Columbia is regarded as atrocious even by South Carolinian standards, since prompt measures had to be taken to prevent the lynching of the prisoner. What is wanted next is a fair trial of Tillman and a legal punishment—execution by hanging, since Gonzales has succumbed. But we doubt whether any penalty will be inflicted. Several years ago the most distinguished editor in the State, a man of high character, was assassinated in Charleston in broad daylight by a man whose degraded propensities had been interfered with by the editor not in the columns of his newspaper, but in the course of his duty as a citizen. The assassin received no adequate punishment. A passenger in the cars from Louisville to New Orleans, in the month of November last, buying newspapers from place to place, counted six violent deaths along his route, all occurring in a single day. And yet many think that we are peculiarly fit to take charge of the destinies of semi-barbarous people on the other side of the globe, and lead them into the orderly ways of civilized life.

Mr. Morgan's description of the so-called "Louisville deal," in his testimony before the Interstate Commission, is fully as interesting as his description of the Northern Pacific corner, in the Power suit last March. The details of the remarkable performances with the Louisville and Nashville Railroad shares have, to be sure, been given before. Every one knew already that a reckless group of speculators, known in Wall Street as the "Gates pool," had bought up, last spring, 306,000 out of the company's 600,000 shares of stock. They apparently paid a price some 20 to 40 per cent. above previous market values; at all events, the shares rose from 102 to 146. At one time, a Stock Exchange "corner," resembling that of May, 1901, was threatened, the "pool" having bought 50,000 shares newly issued by the Louisville Company and sold by its brokers, and the new shares having turned out not a "good delivery" in fulfilment of Stock Exchange contracts. The stockjobbers had undoubtedly bought with borrowed money, as they did again, with disastrous results, in the autumn months. But they had the shares, and the banking houses, fearing trouble to their other enterprises either in the stock market or in the railway world, induced the stockjobbing ring to part with its Louisville holdings. The ransom paid was heavy. For the "pool's" $30,600,000 stock—whose highest value, even in the great speculation of 1901, had been only 113—a price of $150 was paid last fall by the banking interests, the requisite capital being raised by the Atlantic Coast Line. This $42,000,000 corporation promptly issued $15,000,000 new stock and $35,000,000 fifty-year bonds to get the money, and thereby became the owner of the Louisville.

The passengers of the *St. Louis* and their friends and relatives have a just grievance against the International Navigation Company. Not in the history of steam traffic between Europe and this continent has there been so disgraceful an occurrence on a ship which is ranked as first-class. The company's manager seeks to explain that it should not be held responsible for an accident that took place after the ship was at sea. But he cannot deny that it was determined six months ago to replace the *St. Louis's* worn-out boilers, and that she has been kept in service ever since with steadily failing boiler power. Moreover, her outward trip was so long that she was started back again after only being twenty-four hours in port—an insufficient time, as everybody familiar with ships knows, to clean the vessel, much less to overhaul her boilers properly and perform the necessary repairs done in every engine room after a transatlantic run. So the *St. Louis* began her voyage home with boilers in such condition that she might never have reached port had she encountered a gale on the day she made a bare hundred miles or so. A well-managed line guards against such contingencies by having enough ships and by keeping them in good condition. Now the company finds itself reduced to two fast ships, although by favoritism of the authorities it has carried a large percentage of mails and secured more pay for them than any other, and received enormous payments for the use of its ships in the war with Spain. We understand now why this line has been the leading beggar for ship subsidies.

Emperor William's open patronage of some of the most radical of the higher critics of the Bible is a proof rather of his versatility than of his caution. Even in Germany, they are a little shy of seeing the indebtedness of the Old Testament to Assyrian and Egyptian ideas laid bare. In theological circles in this country, the name of Professor Delitszch has been one with which to affright the timid. There, you see what you are coming to with your audacious inquiries—turning the book of Daniel into a Chaldean myth, and making out Javeh to be a Babylonian conception! American theological students still go to Germany, however, on fellowships, though they are expected to return without the smell of heretical learning upon their garments.

Henri de Blowitz, whose death has followed closely his resignation from the Paris office of the London *Times*, was practically the last of the great correspondents of the old school. No one for years has more willingly assumed the oracular tone, no one so fearlessly made of prophecy a daily duty. But this was always true of Blowitz, that, while the average correspondent dealt in the appearance (quoting indifferently "the highest authority," "a sure source," or "a prominent personage"), he had in reality the secret springs of news. His French citizenship and social relations gave him access of the freest sort to the political world, and he kept about himself a curious little world of talebearers, adventurers, artists seeking notoriety, employees of those in great place—in general, all that part of Paris which has "exclusive intelligence" to give or to sell at a price. Though professionally he lived much in this dubious world, his own probity was beyond question. It was unfortunate as regards his permanent fame as a writer for the press, that his dispatches appeared not in French, but in the English of a London *Times* translator; and it must be said that his official solemnity was seldom relieved by wit. Indeed, he scorned the graces of the journalist, and undoubtedly felt that his letters must assume something of the form of state papers.

FREE COAL AND THE FUTURE OF THE TARIFF.

The debate in the Senate on January 13, on the question of putting coal on the free list of the tariff, brought into sharp collision Senators Dolliver of Iowa and Aldrich of Rhode Island, both Republicans. Mr. Dolliver represents the "Iowa idea" of tariff legislation—that when a given rate of duty is so high as to favor monopoly, it should be reduced, and when it is no longer needed, it should be repealed. The Iowa idea contains another postulate even more important in a self-governing republic—that it is the privilege of every man in public or private life to exercise his own judgment, to express his own opinion on the question whether the tariff tends to produce monopoly or to oppress the consumer or not. Mr. Aldrich stands for the opposing doctrine—that anybody who objects to any particular item in the tariff is opposed to the doctrine of protection. Not even the President of the United States is privileged to do so.

In the case in hand, the Senator from Rhode Island attacked the reciprocity treaties negotiated by the McKinley Administration and now supported by Roosevelt, saying that he (Aldrich) "never expected that a Republican Administration would negotiate treaties which would strike at the heart of protection." But Mr. Aldrich had intimated the previous day that he would support a measure to put coal on the free list for one year. So it appears that there are some things which may be done even in the way of amending the tariff, provided *our* consent be first obtained. Mr. Dolliver, not having the fear of any high priest before his eyes, adheres to the Iowa idea, and intends to use his voice and his vote just as though Aldrich did not exist.

The immediate subject of debate was the reassertion by Mr. Dolliver of the fact that the rates of the Dingley tariff were intentionally put higher than needful so as to leave room for treaties of reciprocity. Thus, for example, a rate of 50 per cent. would be sufficient, in the estimation of Dingley, for all decent purposes of protection, but it would be put in the bill at 60 per cent. in order to "come down" in favor of France, in return for some similar concession in the French tariff. This, by the way, has been the avowed policy of France and other countries of Continental Europe for many years—the policy of maximum and minimum tariffs. Enact your regular rates of duty on the maximum scale, and then say to other nations: "We will admit your goods on the minimum scale, provided you will make similar concessions to our goods." Nobody ever imagined that there was anything dishonorable in such a policy. On the contrary, it was held by statesmen and publicists of all schools to be defensible and even commendable in certain cases. Free traders looked upon it as preferable to Chinese wall tariffs, and protectionists held it to be necessary to have a tariff margin of this kind to serve as the basis of negotiation, and to secure what they conceived to be justice to themselves.

The Dingley tariff was undoubtedly framed with this idea. Such a policy would not be at all surprising, seeing that the reciprocity idea had been embodied in the McKinley tariff of 1890 at the suggestion of Secretary Blaine, and on the motion of Senator Aldrich himself. Yet when Senator Vest, a few days since, mentioned the fact in a guileless way as something well known, Mr. Aldrich charged Vest with an assault on the memory of the dead. He said that Vest was imputing dishonorable motives to Dingley, now in his grave and unable to defend himself. He (Aldrich) would hurl back the degrading charge and protect the memory of the departed statesman. On Tuesday week Senator Dolliver repeated what Vest had said as to the rates of duty in the Dingley bill. He spoke of his own knowledge, and denied that any taint of dishonor attached to a policy that is in practice in almost every country of Europe. To this Mr. Aldrich replied that if any friend of Gov. Dingley could remain silent while such charges were made against him, he did not understand that person's idea of honor. The public appreciation of Mr. Aldrich's sense of honor, always keen, will no doubt be much augmented by this outburst.

Meanwhile public opinion has forced the repeal of the tricky anthracite duty, and a rebate of duties on all kinds of coal for one year. This action, however, gives us but a crumb when we need a whole loaf. An impartial observer from the outside, looking before and after, would perceive the crying need of a large revision of our laws affecting—and crippling—commerce, both domestic and international. He would see this country getting into more and more awkward relations with its customers and its feeders. One of our laws cuts off a Russian trade; another harasses our exporters to Germany; a third shuts us out as far as may be from the great market lying to the north of us. In place of a fragmentary measure, jerkily done into law, in place of a miserable hand-to-mouth opportunism, we have a right to look for a broad commercial and financial policy. It is not necessary to appeal to the foreign observer to pronounce the proper verdict on our folly. We have men among ourselves to see the thing as it is. One of them is President James J. Hill of the Great Northern Railway. Whatever else may be said of him, he is a man of capacious mind and large comprehension of the commercial problems which confront this nation. Knowing the West and Southwest intimately, at home on the Pacific slope, keenly alive to Canadian development, and with plans which lay hold on New England and the Orient, he has, if any man has, a vivid appreciation of what should be done to enable the country to rise to the full height of its great opportunity. And what does he urge? Why, a general lowering of our tariff walls. At the reception to the Canadian Minister, Mr. Sifton, given by the Commercial Club of St. Paul, on January 10, Mr. Hill spoke up in the plainest way for the removal of duties from lumber, as well as coal and all raw materials, and in general, for so "modifying our tariff conditions" that trade will flow in its natural channels. President Hill was particularly emphatic about the need of an enlarged foreign market. We manufacture goods to the value of $13,000,000,000; we export only $440,000,000 worth. "Can we go on as a nation trading with ourselves, and getting money from one pocket into another, and get rich?" We must lift up our eyes. There, to the north of us, lies Canada, already one of our best customers, and ready to expand our trade relations indefinitely. She is inhabited by people who speak our language and know our methods, is a country where law is enforced and debts can be collected; yet "here on our Northern border we have a fence to keep them out, and now we shall have to build another fence to keep our own people in." Neglecting or coolly cutting off this great market at our doors, we spend millions to get a foothold in some far island where the trade of a century would not equal the Canadian trade of ten years; and if anybody proposes a change in the laws which shut us out from our own, he is scoffed at as a wicked free trader, or, if he is a Republican President, is told by Senator Aldrich that he is "striking at the heart of protection"!

It is this large demand of a critical hour which makes the recent grant by Congress, welcome as it is in itself, appear so beggarly. More than a year ago, President McKinley marked out a programme of general tariff reduction in order "to extend and promote our markets abroad." Nothing has been done, except to quail before public clamor long enough to repeal the coal duties. There is a lesson for Mr. Roosevelt in this. He urged making anthracite free, and that has now been done; but suppose that he had entered into the large conception of President McKinley, and, instead of belittling tariff reform, had struck out boldly for reciprocity and the freeing of commerce, would he not have made much better headway than he has done with his chosen anti-Trust programme? He would, at any rate, have shown himself a leader alive to the needs of our situation.

PATERNALISTIC FINANCE.

Mr. J. P. Morgan's testimony before the Interstate Commerce Commission on Thursday last was of far more than ephemeral significance. It explained primarily the means by which he had baffled the notorious speculator, Gates, temporarily in control of the Louisville and Nashville Railroad; but, taken together with Mr. Morgan's statements in the Northern Securities case of last March, it gave inferentially a complete theory of financial control of great corporations. Some have called Mr. Morgan's theory paternalistic. It might almost equally as well be called aristocratic or oligarchical, for it is based upon a profound distrust of democratic methods of corporation control. Everywhere, in his responses at the inquiry of last Thursday, appeared his conviction that there is a class whose plenary qualifications for managing great interests are generally recognized. He spoke frankly of the Louisville and Nashville transfer as dictated by "a personal interest of my own in the maintenance of the general business situation throughout the country." Equally remarkable with this perhaps justifiable presentation of himself as *deus ex machina*, or saviour of society, was his assertion that Mr. Gates was not a "proper person" to manage the Louisville and Nashville (an opinion in which all will heartily concur), and his expression of solicitude that the stock which he then held in trust should be placed in "safe hands." These terms must be interpreted in the light of all the recent manœuvring for control of railroads. So interpreted, "proper persons" are those who assent to the plan of an emergency committee, and "safe hands" are those which obey unfailingly a particular behest. That under this theory temporary emergencies of a very grave sort have been successfully met, and an unexpected degree of financial stability attained, nobody can question. But the theory must be weighed in full recognition of the fact that other patriarchs, certainly of less ability, and conceivably of less principle, must in due time succeed Mr. Morgan; how will paternalistic finance work under these ordinary conditions and through these average personalities?

The paternalistic theory sets up as rulers a competent oligarchy to check the depravity of speculative freebooters and the folly of the owners of corporate securities. It entreats the latter to surrender their vote, that is, their power, and it browbeats them on occasion, when they wish to be heard in stockholders' meeting. A considerable degree of oppression seems inseparable from the paternalistic idea. The inducement offered the *plebs* of finance to make it part with power and money is, that the power will be more wisely exerted and the money more judiciously spent by the governing class. The theory is that it is well for the shareholder to contribute, but evil to have any hand in the management of the property for which he has paid. The numerous voting trusts mean this or nothing. Long before Mr. Morgan's time the case against the mere shareholder was trenchantly put by Machiavelli in his 'Discourses on the Decades of Titus Livy.' The Florentine publicist writes that two things are to be noted of popular government:

> "The first is that the people, deceived very often by a false conception of what is good for it, desires its own ruin; and if not instructed by some one in whom it has faith as to what is good and what bad, infinite perils and injuries come upon the republic. And when destiny brings it about that the people trusts in no one, as happens at times, having been deceived in the past by events or by men, it inevitably goes to ruin."

Nobody will deny that financial, like political, control should be in the hands of the competent, nor that stable conditions in either field depend upon a certain faith on the part of the people in those set over them in authority. Where most thoughtful persons will part company with Machiavelli and Mr. Morgan is at the assertion that there is, broadly speaking, any better way of choosing our competent rulers than the democratic way. The inconveniences and even the perils of a plébiscite, whether of citizens or of stockholders, nobody will underestimate; but these perils seem small in comparison with those of an oligarchy or a despotism, however benevolent. Then, have we a natural governing class in finance, as by divine right? Can we believe that the temptations of financial control are less than those of political control? Have the events of the past two years—the reckless warfare of precisely the persons we are now asked to accept as the guardians of financial peace, the readiness of our *de facto* rulers in finance to accept the directorial name without assuming directorial responsibility, and to advance inordinate sums for stockjobbing on a perilous scale—have these facts, patent to all men, shown that we have a financial aristocracy so honest and so intelligent that it can safely dispense with the shrewd scrutiny and workaday criticism of the average investor? Granted that, under Mr. Morgan's paternal dispensation, we prosper and are cared for: could we trust his associates in perpetuity? Could we safely give up our right to turn out the rulers when they do ill? Could Mr. Morgan himself, had he the nine lives of a cat, safely trust himself with such power for more than one of them?

Mr. Morgan's financial philosophy points, we submit, to a better world than has ever been or ever will be. It is an attempt to eliminate from finance that average human weakness which in other fields is accepted as inevitable and dealt with as part of the day's work. It is in essence an endeavor to make transactions, necessarily difficult and contentious, artificially simple and unanimous. So radiant a counsel of perfection cannot be criticised with any unkindness. But its essential Utopianism should not be accepted as sound finance simply because it is the Utopianism of a great financier.

CANTEEN LEGISLATION TO WAIT.

The decision of the House Committee on Military Affairs that there shall be no canteen legislation by this Congress, defers the question of the sale of beer at army posts for another year. This is but fair to opponents of the Government's supplying drink to its soldiers, who induced Congress to appropriate $500,000 for recreation and amusement buildings, and who seek to interest and occupy the soldier in this way without recourse to spirituous liquors. The board of officers appointed to distribute this appropriation among the more important posts has only just concluded its labors, so that the work of construction can hardly be completed for another year. Among the important awards are $125,000 to Fort Myer, near Washington, for a building which shall contain a gymnasium, shooting gallery, swimming pool, bowling alleys, shower baths, etc. Smaller allotments have been made for the ten largest posts now garrisoned. In each case there will be provided club, reading, and recreation rooms, by which the enlisted men should be particularly attracted.

The Board has, however, set nothing aside for the benefit of the soldiers in the Philippines, where the need of entertainment and the temptations to loose living are far greater than in this country. The elaborate building at Fort Myer should enable Congressmen to see for themselves how a temperance club works, and also the necessity in every post for entertainment rooms similar to those in vogue in all important English garrisons. But a true test of the efficacy of these "exchanges" cannot, obviously, be made for two or three years. Whether they will serve the whole purpose for which they are intended remains to be seen; they cannot, however, fail to do much for the enlisted men wherever they are erected, and Congress should support the policy by additional and liberal appropriations.

Meanwhile, the War Department can, by various means, do much to increase the sobriety and orderliness of the army—now, according to the Judge-Advocate-General, at a low ebb. For instance, it can (1) call upon local authorities near army posts to abolish the low groggeries around them under threat of removing the garrisons; (2) it can hold commanding officers responsible for the conduct of their commands—an expedient never yet tried; (3) it can in-

sist upon the home garrisons being worked harder and kept occupied, as in foreign services; (4) it can improve the quality of its recruits and raise the age standard for enlistment; (5) it can stimulate company commanders to be true "fathers" to their men; (6) it can place additional responsibilities upon non-commissioned officers for the good conduct of their men, as is done in the English army with excellent results; and (7) it can devise a better system of giving troops their money than that of paying a whole garrison at a time. Should the War Department throw the weight of its great influence in this direction, there would be a marked improvement in the morals of the men, and, we believe, a great decrease in the number of courts-martial. There are to-day very few company officers who really feel a moral responsibility for the welfare and contentment of their men, particularly among the several thousand new officers who served first in the easy-going volunteers.

One forward step has already been taken in the direction of increasing the interest in athletics in the army. In several of the military departments into which the United States is geographically divided, orders have been issued designating one day in each month as a field day to be devoted to athletic games and exercises. There are to be individual and team competitions. Baseball and football are favored, as well as military events such as tent-pitching contests, the construction of emergency bridges, etc. Wrestling, boxing, fencing, running, and jumping are to be particularly encouraged. Undoubtedly this will help a great deal, especially in the direction of company and regimental pride. To this end competitions between posts and regiments are urged. But a much more pressing need is that of further military drill and exercises to keep the men happy and to occupy more hours. There is probably no standing army in the world which drills so little as ours. Before the war with Spain, there were many posts where all drills and marches were suspended from November until April, and this vicious condition still obtains in a considerable number of garrisons. In the Continental armies, the men go to bed night after night physically fatigued, and are the better for it in every way.

Whatever the final decision as to the beer canteen, the changes suggested above are of vital importance if the service is really to be made as efficient as it ought to be. However sincerely the War Department may believe in the sale of beer as a cure-all for the restlessness and intemperance of the soldier, it cannot shirk its obvious responsibilities merely because Congress declines to accept its view. That Congressmen take the attitude they do in face of the fact that a majority of the officers favor a return to the post saloon, is probably because of their being in so much closer touch with the feeling and wishes of the public than the army itself. To attribute their refusal to take up the question merely to the activities of the temperance societies is very complimentary to the latter—especially in view of the two years which must elapse before there is another Congressional election. The Committee's decision not to bring the matter up is, therefore, a distinct victory for those opposed to the sale of beer. Delay makes in their favor for more reasons than one. For instance, we think the readjustment of the army to its new conditions, along with the decrease in the garrison in the Philippines, will make next year's statistics of crime and drunkenness in the service vastly more favorable than this year's, which proved that one in every twenty of our defenders was tried and punished for military wrongdoing or for crime. Moreover, every postponement of action will make Congressmen more reluctant to reopen a matter which arouses intense feeling upon both sides, and which is popularly supposed to affect the votes of a great many earnest and high-minded citizens.

A CLEARING-HOUSE FOR PHILANTHROPISTS.

One of the most praiseworthy aims of the General Education Board is to make itself a clearing-house for the benefit of all who desire to contribute to the cause of Southern education. For this purpose it has established its office in this city, and has set about collecting material which will in time enable it to furnish complete statistics to any one desirous of investigating any school of any kind in the whole South. At the same time it will itself seek information as to the places where there is the greatest need of new schools or of money for old institutions.

This will enable it to perform a variety of valuable services. It will be in a position not merely to advise an intending patron that an institution is really wisely administered and efficient, but to warn him not to waste his money upon a school which is undesirable, in either its methods or its aims. In this way it hopes to run to earth or to render harmless a number of collectors who besiege the generous-minded in our Northern cities, ostensibly on behalf of struggling negro schools, but really in the interest of their own living expenses. This in itself would be a public benefit, for the number of such impostors is far greater than is currently believed. They profit by the prestige of the really worthy institutions, such as Hampton and Tuskegee, and are secure because of the difficulty of obtaining reliable information. Even when an institution is known to be in a good field, and to be working in the right direction, its patrons are apt to be in total ignorance of the worth of its actual administration or of its teaching force.

But the General Education Board has still higher aims. Its members recognize the economic wastefulness of the present methods of collecting funds. More and more canvassers come North every year whose expenses frequently make the cost of collections entirely too high. These agents get in each other's way, are often deeply humiliated by having to beg as they do, and frequently, by their numbers, almost drive into hiding those known to be generous. As in the case of Mr. Washington, the necessity of raising funds by personal appeals often deprives a school of a most valuable executive for a large part of the school year. The General Board hopes soon to address an appeal to the public of the North to make its donations through the Board. If we understand its plans aright, it will undertake to expend wisely gifts of one dollar or of a million dollars, and to render a strict accounting for all the funds it receives. Still another step would be for it to eliminate all canvassers and to ask at stated periods for donations for all worthy Southern institutions. The high character of the Board and its organization on a business-like basis, with the same kind of management as that given to an up-to-date railroad, should insure it not merely a hearty response from the philanthropic public, but the thanks of both applicants and donors.

Why could not a similar plan be followed by the charitable and philanthropic institutions of this city? For some years past there has been a steadily growing movement towards coöperation of that sort. Two years ago some meetings were held with this end in view, and there is now on foot an alliance of societies and clubs in the hope of making their influence in the coming Mayoralty campaign as effective as possible. While no permanent organizations have been formed as yet, charitable workers are beginning to see the advantages of coöperation, if only for self-protection. This was shown last winter by the readiness with which various societies came together to oppose Gov. Odell's bills relating to the State's institutions. But in the field of large charity there has as yet been no sign of that tendency towards consolidation which is so striking a feature of our industrial life. The number of charitable concerts, "smokers," entertainments, balls, fairs, and lectures grows distractingly every winter. Here, too, the cost of collection is very great. The printing of annual reports, of appeals for aid, the cost of postage, and the pay of hired workers are items that mount up rapidly. There is not even coördination between workers in the same sphere. The social settlements, for instance, seek each their

means of support in their own way, without reference to the needs of their neighbors—sometimes, we fear, regarded as rivals. Would not the growth of these valuable institutions be still larger and more advantageous if directed by business men through a central office? We are certain that such a union, even if merely a loose one, could overlook the whole field sufficiently to insure distinct economies of means and effort.

The suggestion is by no means a chimerical one. In Liverpool the Charity Organization Society appeals to the public on January first on behalf of every charitable undertaking in the city, except the purely religious societies. Every body thus appealed for, pledges itself to make no individual canvass for two months. This plan, which has worked well, was initiated by the Mayor, and there has been no difficulty in dividing the large funds thus raised. A somewhat similar movement, involving, however, the public institutions, has been tried in Denver, while the London Charity Organization Society, the pioneer association of its kind, frequently acts as the agent of generous persons who give annually a specified sum, but who wish neither the labor nor the responsibility of investing it wisely. What has been done elsewhere can certainly be done here. In the very nature of things, and in view of the astonishing growth of altruistic movements of every kind—in itself one of the most striking signs of the world's progress upwards—the present haphazard, happy-go-lucky system of dunning the generous must be amended unless we are to see the prompt organization of a "Philanthropists' Protective Association, Limited."

THE LATE EX-MAYOR HEWITT.

In the course of a life of more than eighty years, Mr. Abram S. Hewitt had acquired an authority over the minds of his fellow-citizens such as few kings enjoy. Among all the mayors known to the present generation of New Yorkers, he was the only one who gained greater influence after leaving office than he held before. Ordinarily, the man who holds the chief place in the municipality falls into comparative obscurity after leaving it, especially if he has been a candidate for reëlection and been defeated, as was Mr. Hewitt. The Democratic party which, to escape defeat, had nominated him in 1886, turned against him two years later. The Republicans who had supported him in 1886, nominated a candidate of their own, expecting to snatch a victory from the division of their adversaries. Thus it happened that, in his second campaign, which fell in a Presidential year, when party lines were tightly drawn, he ran on his personal strength only. Yet he received 71,000 votes from the substantial citizens of the metropolis who do their own thinking, pay their own way, and strive to keep the civic atmosphere clean.

Thus it was that, after leaving the Mayoralty, he still held the foremost place in the confidence and regard of the community. In every civic enterprise of magnitude he was among the first to be consulted. All charitable and educational movements looked to him for advice and help. All things that bore his stamp were recognized as sterling. Anything to which he put his shoulder was almost certain to move forward. In the Chamber of Commerce his counsel was sought on all difficult questions, and here his influence was unrivalled. Every topic that he saw fit to discuss was handled in a masterly manner. He marshalled his facts in faultless English and with logical precision. In public speech he was never at a loss for a word, and when he had finished one of his impromptu addresses in the Chamber or out of it, the listeners were always charmed and generally convinced. The reporters of the press, too, recognized his worth, and were forever attempting to interview him, because they knew that whatever he said would be eagerly read by the public.

Although best known as ex-Mayor Hewitt, his municipal service was not the most important part of his work. He had had a previous career of public usefulness and business celebrity that had made him widely known at home and abroad. His first political service was in the reorganization of Tammany Hall in 1871, after the downfall of the Tweed ring. This work was recognized by an election to a seat in Congress in 1874, a position which he held during the next ten years, except for one term when he declined to run. He was Chairman of the Democratic National Committee in the Presidential campaign of 1876, in which Tilden and Hayes were the opposing candidates. The Democrats carried the four Northern States of Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Indiana, and Mr. Hewitt's sagacity and energy and character contributed largely to those successes. When the country was threatened with civil commotion in consequence of the closeness of the vote, his voice was for a peaceful mode of adjustment.

During Mr. Hewitt's Congressional service the fight over the currency question was unceasing and often bitter, and it was his fate to be one of a small minority of sound-money men in his own party; but he never swerved. Whether the prevailing craze was for paying bonds with greenbacks, or for remonetizing silver, or for coining Bland dollars, or for taxing United States bonds, or for worrying the national banks, he was always on the side of good faith and an honest dollar. He was also an aggressive fighter for the principles he espoused. There was not a keener, stronger, readier debater on the floor of Congress. There was also a vein of humor in his composition which not seldom came to the surface in his Congressional speeches, making him one of the men to whom other members were always attracted. He was admirably equipped by study and business experience to discuss the economical questions of the day, such as money, banking, tariffs, public debts, manufactures, commerce, and taxation. On these and kindred subjects he was equally ready on the stump, and, although not a frequent speaker, was always an effective one. His best oration is the one which he delivered at the opening of the Brooklyn Bridge, a masterly production from all points of view.

In a life of such varied usefulness it is not easy to single out the one thing by which he was most distinguished, but we should not be far wrong in pointing to his efforts in behalf of education as one of the most important ends to which he devoted his powers. The Cooper Institute was the object of his solicitude and unwearying energy for forty years. Columbia University was proud to count him as trustee and chairman of its leading committee; and the last and greatest distinction which came to him in this part of his career was that of presiding officer of the Carnegie Institution—an honor conferred by the unanimous choice of its trustees.

In private life Mr. Hewitt was one of the most attractive of men. Although a martyr to insomnia for twenty-five years, his spirits were generally buoyant, his conversation animated, and his sense of humor unfailing. At his country home on the Ringwood estate he practised a generous and graceful hospitality, the charms of which no one who shared it can ever forget. His business life was signalized by an unusual honor bestowed by a joint convention of the Iron and Steel Associations of England and the United States, who conferred upon him the Bessemer gold medal for services in promoting metallurgical science. The works of Cooper, Hewitt & Co. have always been a model, and have never had a strike among their workmen. The Trenton shops have often been run for long periods without profit, and sometimes at a loss, in order to keep the men and their families from suffering.

A career of such varied activity and usefulness it has seldom been our duty to chronicle. Such a life does not end when the mortal remains are deposited in the tomb. It abides with us as a guide and inspiration to those who now live, and to those who shall come after.

OBSERVATIONS IN A BIG UNIVERSITY.

I.

January, 1903.

The university in question is a State university in the Far West, and the observations are made by a woman in the early

thirties, unmarried, a graduate of an Eastern woman's college, Agatha Grayson by name. Why she came to live in the town of Westerley, as we will call it, and, as a result, to study in the university, is unimportant to this article. At all events, once there, she found her mind dwelling on the problems that the university suggested, to the exclusion of her own private affairs. The big, free, coeducational university struck her as an institution distinctly modern and characteristically American. Therefore, it was not surprising that the conditions were perplexing, that the problems were baffling, that the evils were so great as to set her wondering if there were compensations large enough to balance them.

As it happened, she had been reading Amiel's 'Journal' for the first time, and certain passages over which she had passed blindly, with eye unquickened by the knowledge behind all seeing, came back to her with vague, haunting insistence; and now, reread and understood in the light of her new experience, she found herself verifying them. "'Commonness will prevail,' as De Candolle said in speaking of the graminaceous plants. The era of equality means the triumph of mediocrity." "Commonness will prevail!" Agatha found herself repeating the phrase in a sense other than Amiel's as she looked about her on the campus, in the library and classrooms, seeing everywhere faces and tones that remained uneducated in spite of the piles of books under the arms. Was a course of study a success that left a boy or girl still saying, "Yer 'not a'goin' to," or "awful tired"; that had no power to soften an over-robust "r" or to refine the tone of voice? Were students in the future to lose the stamp that in the past had been recognized as indicating a university education? Were their four years to stand for nothing but a certain amount of information? Was the student to be no higher up the ladder of humanity at the end than at the beginning? Were education and culture to be hopelessly divorced henceforth?

The thought came to Agatha that perhaps she had been overestimating the absolute refining value of education. Perhaps the value had lain more in the association that education had brought about than in the books themselves, and in the extension of education such association was minimized. In the old days a student from a home lacking in refinement went to college with his superiors, now he went with his peers. Consequently, the elevating power of a college education now lies wholly in the student himself; it is always the result of conscious effort. If a student has slight will power or small perception of differences, he will learn nothing outside of his books, for his associates have had no better advantages than himself. In the old days he was the passive recipient of the education due to constant contact with his superiors.

In her own college days, Agatha had more than once seen a student enter the freshman class with accent and manner that betrayed an uncultivated home. The majority—all, perhaps—of her classmates were her superiors, externally at all events. Her transformation was, with hardly an exception, miraculous. Then, the class groups photographed at entering and at graduating were object-lessons as to the value of a college education. In the year she lived at Westerley, Agatha saw no such miracle. The students developed, of course, but only as a man develops among his equals. It was always a development, never a transformation. As she had more experience of the various classrooms, Agatha wondered at this the less. There were no models. There was a little more or less scholastic attainment, but so few examples, comparatively speaking, of superiority in intonation, accent, or taste that these were lost in the wilderness of mediocrity. The classes were so large that the personality of the instructor had only an intellectual value. There was no chance for personal contact, for striking the human note. The university had come to be simply the culmination of the free public-school system, with all the unavoidable evils of a free public school.

Agatha had nephews and nieces with their education still before them. The family had looked on the State University as the natural place for them to go; but Agatha had not been six months in Westerley before she decided that, at any sacrifice, they must be sent elsewhere, and this with the conviction strong upon her that in no institution could they be offered better opportunities in the education that comes from books. Indeed, as she went in turn from one department to another, she was filled with wonder at the uniform excellence of the instruction, its breadth and depth, the personal importance of the majority of the instructors, the spirit, industry, and attainments of them all. She found nothing of dogmatism, nothing of conceit, no working in ruts. Instead, she found a readiness to acknowledge mistakes, an openness of mind towards opinions other than their own, a love of their work, and an invincible determination that each year should find them better fitted for it. They were as a whole a fine body of men, accurate, scholarly, progressive, creative, wise. It cost her a pang to think that the children should not come into contact with such men as she knew these to be.

But the contact with their fellow-students—that was quite another matter; not but that there were hundreds whose tone and manners were such that even the most anxious maiden aunt must approve; and Agatha had no fear that the children would go outside of these for their personal friends. They might not deteriorate in tone with the home influences back of them; but was it possible that they should improve? What an atmosphere in which, for instance, to combat the slanginess of the present generation! The children were even now convinced that Aunt Agatha was over-particular in objecting to many of their expressions; but where would her influence be in a community where at every turn were to be heard bits of conversation like the following: "Come to the Frat. this aft., Piggie?" "Can't. Got an ex. in Math. Prof. sat all over me yesterday, so I guess I'd better take a brace." This was the third year of these girls in the university.

Agatha was not narrow enough to condemn all slang. Some seemed to her piquant, picturesque, pleasing, and she used it herself occasionally with satisfaction. Some, however, was simply vulgar or pointless. It was to the misuse of slang that she objected, to the universality, to the lack of discrimination in the choice of it, to ignorance of where the boundaries of good English ended and those of slang began. If one sinned against the former, let it be done deliberately, in knowledge, not in ignorance. In her own college the use of slang had co-existed with a certain reverence for the language. There was, besides, a large element to be found there to which such expressions as "O, my!" and "Goodness gracious!" were not native; an element having a rudimentary sense of the vulgarity of abbreviations and nicknames. There was no such element in Westerley.

The realization of the sanctity of language and the duty of the individual towards preserving its purity does not come in the teens, and yet it is then and even earlier that habits of speech are formed, a discrepancy that makes the matter of association all-important. It was only of late years that Agatha had come to realize what she called, in the privacy of her mind, the sloppiness of her own speech. She had grown up in ignorance of the niceties of language, feeling vaguely that her own speech jarred upon her in some companionship, but without knowing why, until severe criticism of a little book she wrote awakened her to her own deficiencies. Being a parvenue, as it were, in speech, she took it seriously, and could not reconcile herself to the thought of those dear boys and girls growing up in the same obliviousness. And yet, if they came to the university, how could she give authority to her wishes with the vast amount of evidence to the contrary? The usual protest of, "It doesn't matter: every one says it," would seem to have truth on its side. But it was the tones of voice even more than the words uttered that distressed her. Was there to be no outward mark by which one could tell a university girl from a shop girl?

From this point her thoughts usually went on to the further question: Was it fair that the whole tone of the university should be lowered to meet a popular demand that was based on a delusion? Few individuals out of the hordes that the public schools were turning into the university had any real aptitude or desire for an education. They came for various reasons—many, because it was the alternative of going to work; most, because the education idea was in the air and they grasped at it without any discrimination as to its fitness for their need. No doubt a college education is of some value to every one, but it is of great value only to those who have the ability to overcome difficulties to get it. The thought came to Agatha that true justice would do away with the accrediting of the schools. It was not fair to the real students that they should be swamped with all this inert material, that the tone of the class room should be lowered and individual progress checked by the stupefying presence, the hampering participation, of incapacity. There are few instructors who, contrary to their natural inclinations, do not put their stupid pupils before their clever ones, adjusting the classroom work to the needs of the dullest of these. But if an examination were necessary for entering the university, would not this exclude the element that simply drifts in? Why should education be made so easy? Nothing else is that is worth while. So long as a university education is free, no

boy or girl who really wants one, who has not merely been inoculated with the germ of the education idea, will be deprived of it. The course of study in the high schools that are now accredited is an adequate preparation for those who are mentally equal to university work, and those who get their preparation in irregular ways have, in any case, to pass an examination.

The buoyancy of a university may be great, but it cannot float more than a certain amount of dead weight and not sink itself. The students who work their way through college are, with few exceptions, absolutely dead weight, with the result, oftentimes, of spoiling a housemaid or a ploughboy. Agatha's indignation would once have been roused at any one who ventured to suggest that their presence could be other than a pride to any university. Her years in Westerley taught her to put aside her sympathy and sentiment and to accept the facts as they really were. Owing to the inelasticity of the twenty-four hours and the small value of unskilled labor, it is practically impossible that a student should support himself and do his college work in such a way as to be floating rather than sinking material. The rawness, ignorance, uncouthness of many of these students was inconceivable; and here in a free university they did harm by their mere presence, such as they would not have done at Harvard or Yale. Agatha had always held fast to the belief that no work is demeaning, but she found herself obliged to change it to "No work done for one's self or for others without pay is demeaning." The students who waited at restaurant tables or lived in people's kitchens as their hired men *were* lowered. No matter how strongly one wished to believe the contrary, one had to recognize the truth. A student who had spent his four or five years in stable and kitchen bore no mark of a university education. His course had done so little for him as a man, that it seemed a pity to have worked so hard for such inadequate results. Of course, when he came to the university for some technical training for a definite purpose, the case was different.

Even if she had been the arbitrator of human affairs, Agatha could never have brought herself to decree that the admitting of such students should be discouraged; nevertheless, she felt that the facts must be faced, and their detrimental effect recognized and, as far as possible, counteracted. The requiring of entrance examinations would, of course, do much beneficial weeding out. It is a great mistake to think that a college education is a good thing for every one who wants one or thinks he ought to want one. He must have reached a certain point intellectually before he can receive any great benefit. Here Amiel came into Agatha's mind again: "All teaching depends on a certain presentiment and preparation in the taught; we can teach others profitably only what they already virtually know; we can give them only what they had already."

Once the element that was wholly incapable, or wholly frivolous, was excluded, the scholastic tone of a free university might be the highest of all, for in it there would not be found the element that goes to college for the social prestige of it, or for the making of advantageous social connections. In the university thus purified Agatha found the great problem before her much easier to solve; for she did not accept the common belief that purity of intonation and speech can be learned *only* by association. It seemed to her that much more could be done in the classroom than was ever attempted, and she spent hours in devising courses in which actual training in everyday speaking could be given. She founded—in her imagination—a society to promote purity of speech and accent. The meetings of this club had a recognized value in units of college work. Every professor and instructor in the university became a member, and instruction in English speech became a part of every course. Or, on other occasions, Agatha put herself in the place of the President of the university, and in his person set forth on a search for the man who could grapple with this need. It would take a man of peculiar gifts, young, vigorous, enthusiastic, with magnetism and personal consequence. The time had come for a revival, a crusade. Only the most strenuous, most exhaustive means would avail, but, given the right man for a leader, they would avail. "An education in this university must be made to stand for culture"—these words should be written on the heart of every member of the faculty.

Another needed reform that forced itself upon Agatha's attention was a reduction in the number of hours' work that a student was allowed to take, at least in certain departments. It was impossible for a student in the College of Letters, for instance, to take sixteen or eighteen hours a week and do the work even tolerably well. Fourteen hours should be the limit. Besides the obviously evil results of any greater number, the effect on the students' mind and morals was bad. It encouraged unconscientiousness and slovenly, inaccurate work. The impossibility of doing the work required in any but a most superficial way influenced the students' habits of mind for life. Then, too, the nervous strain of going to class with a lesson half-prepared, in the dread of being called upon to recite, was infinitely harmful. The instructor should meet the student half-way and require only such work as could be done in a given space of time; but what he did require, on this he should insist to the utmost.

In Greek, for instance, Agatha had always felt that it was impossible for a student to give time enough to prepare a lesson really well. Her plan would be to specialize in each recitation; that is, she would announce at one the points that she would dwell upon at the next. For instance, at one recitation, the specialty should be a consideration of dialectic forms; at another, especial attention should be given to translation; at a third, the metre should be studied to the last doubtful quantity. In the specialty of the day she would require perfect work, and would supplement the necessarily superficial work on other points by explanations of her own. On some days, for instance, she would herself explain all the mythological, historical, and geographical allusions, realizing the large amount of time that this sort of research demands. There is no mental or moral injury in superficial work when, with a recognition of human and temporal limitations, it is avowedly superficial; it is superficial work masquerading as thorough that kills.

THE PRINCESS BELGIOJOSO.

PARIS, January 1, 1903.

Among the persons who were mixed up with the movement of the *Risorgimento*, Christina Trivulzio of Belgiojoso takes a secondary but not unimportant place. She has lately been made the subject of a curious work by M. Raffaello Barbiera, 'La Principessa Belgiojoso, i suoi amici e nemici, il suo tempo' (Milan: Treves). The Princess Belgiojoso appeared in Paris for a time like a sort of meteor, and she became acquainted with all the celebrities of the day. Her life reads like a novel—I may say, like the wildest of novels.

She was born in Milan June 28, 1808, the daughter of the Marquis Girolamo Trivulzio and of the Countess Gherardini. The Trivulzios are members of the greatest Milanese nobility, and have played a part in the history of Italy since the twelfth century. Among the curious monuments of Milan is the tomb of the Trivulzio who was made Marshal of France and conquered Northern Italy in the name of Louis XII. Under the statue of the warrior are these words:

"Qui nunquam quievit, quiescit."

They might have been written also on the tomb of Christina Belgiojoso. Her father threw himself into the liberal movement which followed the French occupation of Italy after the Revolution. He became a chamberlain of Eugène Beauharnais, the Viceroy of Italy. The young Christina was educated in an atmosphere hostile to the Austrian rule. She was married at the age of sixteen to the Prince Barbiano of Belgiojoso, who was twenty-four years old. The marriage was not happy, and in 1830 they separated amicably, without having recourse to judicial proceedings. The young Princess left for Switzerland. As her husband was a Carbonaro, she was under the eyes of the Austrian spies; she remembered that, by a decree of 1808, all the Trivulzios had the right of citizenship in Switzerland, and obtained an official declaration which made her a citizen of Ticino.

It was at that time that Mazzini founded a new sect, Young Italy, whose object was to free Italy from the Austrian yoke. Among the associates of this secret society were many members of the Italian aristocracy, especially in Northern Italy. Mazzini's enthusiasm inspired his followers with unbounded devotion. He was a gentleman, a writer of talent; he had much eloquence and a great power of organization. The Belgiojosos, husband and wife, entered into the society, which paved the way for *Italia una*. The Princess lived successively in Ticino and in France—at Antibes, Toulon, at Marseilles; in this last town she learned that the Austrian Government had sequestered all her property. She was ordered to return to Milan within three months, under pain of being declared civilly dead and of having all her property confiscated. Though her property was sequestered, she found the means of giving 400,000 francs towards the unfortunate plot directed against Carlo Alberto, whom Mazzini accused of betraying the Italian cause. Gallenga (who afterwards became a correspondent of the London *Times*) was to introduce himself in the palace at Turin and to assassinate the King. The plot was revealed; Gallenga and Mazzini were condemned to death *ad contumaciam*.

The Princess lived for some time in the

island of Hyères during a trial for high treason, in which she was implicated along with her husband. She was in bad health, but refused 40,000 francs which her husband offered her, knowing that he was himself in debt, and left for Paris, the great "refugium peccatorum." When she arrived there, in 1833, Paris had become the principal centre of the Italian emigration, which included Rossi, who afterwards became French Ambassador to Rome and Minister of Pio Nono, and who was assassinated in Rome on the 15th of November, 1848, Nicolò Tommaseo, Gioberti, Count Mamiani, Sirtori, Amari, Gen. Pepe, and Count Charles Pepoli:

"The Princess," says M. Barbiera, "arrived in Paris without any noise, and took lodgings in one of the most outlying quarters, in the upper story of a house inhabited by poor people. She painted fans as a means of revenue, saying that she had nothing to live on, as the Austrian Government had sequestered all her property. I don't know if it be true that she put on her door a card with these words: 'The unhappy Princess.' Perhaps the unhappy Princess exaggerated her poverty in order to make the Austrian Government more odious. What is certain is, that she was not living in affluence.

"A young man, of short stature, but of great talent, as soon as he saw the very handsome Italian Princess, was seized with a violent passion. He was the man who some time afterwards was to direct the affairs of France. Adolphe Thiers frequented much the house of the Princess. He used to go into the kitchen and cook the eggs for breakfast when he was invited. The breakfast, to be sure, consisted only of eggs, butter, and plain water, which the Princess poured majestically into glasses adorned with various paintings which she had made herself. But the napkin was of the finest Flanders linen, and the brown head of the goddess of the place shone marvellously, surrounded as it was by a rich mantle, which imitated an Oriental turban, and the folds of which fell over her shoulders."

There is no doubt that Thiers felt much admiration and affection for the handsome and gifted Princess; she never felt anything but friendship for him, and took advantage of his sentiments in order to convert him into a supporter of the aspirations and the claims of Italy. Thiers made at that time several speeches in favor of his friend's country. The Princess herself spoke of Italy, and wherever she went she found supporters in all ranks of society. Madame George Sand was one of her admirers. She visited the salon of old Gen. Lafayette:

"The General," says M. Barbiera, "used to sit by the fireplace in his salon, which was furnished with great simplicity. He was an old man, very tall, thin, pale, wearing a brown wig. An eminent Italian was often at his side, Gen. Pepe, who had served in the army of Murat and fought the Austrians at Rieti in 1821. . . . There were few ladies in this salon, which was properly a circle of men; among them was the Princess Belgiojoso, near whom sat a Quakeress, Mrs. Opie, whose curious dress made a contrast."

In 1834 the Princess would have a salon of her own. She took a hôtel between court and garden in the Rue d'Anjou, not far from the house of Lafayette. She was now receiving large sums from Milan, and furnished her hôtel at great expense. "Her large salon had its walls covered with a brown, almost black, velvet, sprinkled with silver stars. It had the aspect of a *chapelle ardente*." The other rooms were covered with white silk; all the ornaments, clocks, candelabras, were of silver. She was fond of contrasts, and liked to astonish people. In her study were seen enormous folios, the works of the Fathers of the Church. She really read them. She had a *prie-Dieu* with a death's-head at its foot. The result of her studies was an 'Essay on the Formation of the Catholic Dogma,' a purely orthodox work, in four volumes, which is not, it seems, without some merit. She did not put her name to it; but her secret was soon discovered, and her friends wondered how she could make her orthodoxy accord with her revolutionary doctrines, and how she found so much time for working, leading, as she did, the most worldly life. She wrote afterwards an 'Essay on Vico,' and 'New Science,' a translation of the Neapolitan philosopher's 'Scienza Nuova.'

Among her new friends were the pious Ozanam, Sirtori, a priest of Milan, who had left the church (he became afterwards a Garibaldian officer and a general in the Italian army), Cousin the philosopher, the poet Heine. She appeared before them in the dress of the "Grey Sisters," which she did not abandon even when she went to the Italian Theatre, as she only took off her bonnet and put some flowers in her beautiful black hair. Musset was one of her visitors for a time, but they soon quarrelled and he wrote on her these cruel verses:

"Elle est morte, et n'a point vécu;
Elle faisait semblant de vivre.
De ses mains est tombé le livre
Dans lequel elle n'a rien lu."

M. Mignet, the historian, the great friend of Thiers, became one of her favorites, along with the historian Augustin Thierry, who afterward became blind, and to whom she showed the greatest devotion in his misfortune; Thierry was her guest for twelve years, and lived in her hôtel, receiving every attention. The Princess was as generous as she was eccentric.

She lived in a perfect whirlwind in Paris: the number of her admirers was legion—Chopin, Liszt, Thalberg, Döhler, Mario and the Grisis, Meyerbeer, Delacroix, Victor Hugo, Alexandre Dumas, Balzac, etc. A reconciliation took place between Princess Belgiojoso and her husband, who for a time lived on the ground floor of her hôtel; but it did not last long. One morning, the Duchess of Piacenza ran away from Paris with the Prince. They went to Italy, where they remained for eight years in a villa on Lake Como. In 1845 the Princess founded a newspaper, the *Gazzetta Italiana*, in defence of the Italian cause. She was allowed to live in Milan, and afterwards on one of her estates, where she was absorbed for a time in agricultural pursuits. At the time of the Revolution of 1848 she was in Naples. She formed a battalion of Neapolitan volunteers, whom she herself conducted to Milan. Her "giovanetti napolitani" joined the Piedmontese army, but never saw the enemy. She was herself not satisfied with the Piedmontese Government and revisited Paris, but returned to Italy when the Republic was proclaimed in Rome, renewed there her acquaintance with Mazzini, and conducted an active propaganda for him and the short-lived Roman Republic. After the capitulation of Rome she led a wandering existence in the Holy Land, in Asiatic Turkey. She bought land in Anatolia, and led a purely Oriental life, often under the tent. She tired of this after a while, and returned to Turin, where she founded a paper, *L'Italia* (still in existence in Rome), and wrote many interesting articles for the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the East and "Italian Unity." She retired, in the end, to Blevio, on Lake Como, and ended her agitated life, almost forgotten, on the 5th of July, 1871.

Correspondence.

THE INDIANOLA POST-OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with infinite regret your brief editorial in your last issue approving the President's conduct in closing the post-office at Indianola, Miss. Has it occurred to you that the closing of this post-office, without warrant in law, or, as we think, in reason, will be regarded by the mass of our people as partaking of "Lynch Law" itself, and will lend plausible excuse to those disposed to commit such crimes and ruin the moral influence which our best people exert against lynching?

The action itself is condemned by all our best people, both Democrats and Republicans. The President is punishing not only the white people of Indianola, but eight millions and more of black people as well, by lessening the spirit of kindness and good-will on the part of some twenty millions of white people towards them.

God knows the mass of the negroes need all the charity and kindness of their white neighbors, and he is no friend of theirs who lessens such feelings towards them. Such punishment is cruel and unusual, contrary alike to the spirit and the letter of our national Constitution. The President has acted most unwisely, and has made the judicious among us to grieve.

Are you yourself acting wisely in supporting him?—Respectfully,

Edwin Lehman Johnson.

Memphis, Tenn., January 16, 1903.

[The Postmaster-General's authority to discontinue post-offices cannot be questioned. Section 3864 of the Revised Statutes fits the case under consideration exactly. When the white "spirit of kindness and good-will" asserts itself at Indianola by stamping out white ruffianism, no doubt the post-office will be reopened. Meanwhile, the example will serve as a deterrent in other localities.—Ed. Nation.]

ONE COMPLEXION FOR ALL "REBELS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An officer, writing home to his family from the seat of war, speaks thus of the enemy:

"The people are extremely violent and wrong-headed. Like all other cowards, they are cruel and tyrannical. To hear them talk you would imagine that they would attack us and demolish us every night, and yet, when we appear, they are frightened out of their wits. . . . This is the most beautiful country I ever saw in my life, and if the people were only like it we should do very well. The people here are a set of sly, artful, hypocritical rascals, cruel, and cowards. They have not the least idea of either religion or morality. Nor have they the

least scruples of taking the most solemn oath on any matter that can assist their purpose; the rebels scalped and cut off the ears of the wounded men who fell into their hands."

This sounds very much as if written by an American officer about the Filipinos. But it was not. It was written by Hugh, Earl Percy, a British general engaged in fighting the Yankee "Filipinos" in 1775. More in the same strain can be read in the Percy Letters just published by a Boston house.

We know that Earl Percy was much mistaken in his judgment of us. May we not also suspect the sweeping statements so often made as to the cruelty, treachery, etc., of our foes? D.

CHICAGO, January 17, 1903.

WHITTIER NEWSPAPERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I ask, through the columns of the *Nation*, whether any one can tell me where I may find files of the *Middlesex Standard* (Lowell, Mass.) for 1844-'45, and of the *Essex Transcript* (Amesbury, Mass.) for 1845-'46? During parts of the years mentioned, J. G. Whittier was the editor of these papers.—Very truly yours,

G. R. CARPENTER.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, January 16, 1903.

Notes.

Besides the special, luxurious edition of Little, Brown & Co.'s forthcoming "National Edition" of Daniel Webster's speeches and letters, limited to fifty sets, we should have mentioned the regular subscription edition of 1,000 sets in buckram at one-tenth the price of the former. New portraits of Webster, with portraits of all the Presidents and of eminent statesmen contemporary with him, form a part of the profuse illustrations in both series.

The Carnegie Institution has deemed it useful to reëstablish the *Index Medicus*, a monthly classified record of the current medical literature of the world, originally founded by Drs. John S. Billings and Robert Fletcher in 1879, and discontinued twenty years later. The second series commences with January 1, 1903, and will have for editors Dr. Fletcher and Dr. Fielding H. Garrison. Subscriptions should be addressed to the Carnegie Institution at Washington.

The American edition of the quarterly *Book of Bookplates*, edited by Stewart Dick, will hereafter be issued by the A. Wessels Company.

Forthcoming publications by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'The Life and Times of Georg Joachim Goschen, Publisher and Printer of Leipzig,' by Viscount Goschen, freely illustrated; 'St. Augustine and his Age,' by Joseph McCabe; 'The Egregious English,' by Angus McNeill; and 'The Art of Speaking,' by Ernest Pertwee.

Trial sheets of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s edition of Florio's Montaigne in three volumes, folio, show that it will be one of the most beautiful products of the American press. The style of lettering and typographical ornament is, appropriately, that of the sixteenth century in France, but there is no slavish imitation of the methods of Vérard and Tory. The editor, Mr. George B. Ives, has collated carefully the three original editions of Florio, and has annotated the text with a view to explaining difficult passages, correcting mistranslations, and identifying Montaigne's frequent allusions and quotations. In this latter task he has necessarily depended upon the various French commentators, but the notes at hand give evidence of a scholarly and independent spirit. It may safely be said that this stately work will be not only remarkable typographically, but an advance in respect of scholarship upon any previous English edition of Montaigne.

John Lane invites subscriptions to 'The Ancient Halls of the City Guilds,' drawn in lithography by Thomas R. Way, with some account of the history of the companies, by Philip Norman.

'Down the Orinoco,' by Señor Perez Triana, is in the press of Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will soon issue 'The Untilled Field,' by George Moore; 'Spinners of Life,' by Vance Thompson; and 'A Tar-Heel Baron,' by Mrs. M. S. Clarke Pelton.

Mrs. Isaac R. Davis, No. 2015 Spruce Street, Philadelphia, contemplates publishing through J. B. Lippincott Co. a quarto volume, 'The Warren, Jackson and Allied Families,' being the ancestry of Jesse Warren and Betsey Jackson.

The season that witnesses a revival of Miss Pardoe's writings fitly brings Grace Aguilar again to the front, if, indeed, she has ever quite "gone out of print." Both these authors, it is instructive to note, owe their endurance in great measure to their excellent style. Dent in London, and the Jewish Publication Society of America in Philadelphia, have just issued 'The Tale of Cedars, and Other Tales,' by Miss Aguilar—the latter drawn from her 'Home Scenes and Heart Studies' of just half a century ago. Walter Jerrold furnishes a biographical sketch containing little not to be found in the Dictionary of National Biography, and there are some illustrations.

Good English can also be predicated of Miss Cummins's novel, 'The Lamplighter,' another half-century success, "in constant demand" since it appeared in 1854 and followed in the wake of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' as a "record-breaker" in sales and editions. Miss Cummins, as her present publishers, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., inform us, was a pupil of Mrs. Sedgwick in Lenox, but she was also the daughter of a judge, and was naturally endowed with a capacity for literary expression. Her first book is worth reading by any student of changes in the public taste in fiction. It is now presented in unmutilated form.

Thackeray's daughter supplies a tripartite preface to Macmillan's new edition of the perennial classic, 'A Week in a French Country House,' of Adelaide Sartoris, with a photographic portrait, and two illustrations by Lord Leighton. Mrs. Ritchie suggests rather than portrays the charm of the musical sister of Fanny Kemble by fragmentary extracts from letters of personal friends. "One thing," writes one such, "that always rings in my ears"—the phrase is not happily chosen—"is her recitation of Shelley's 'Good Night' to a low obligato accompaniment on the piano." We read also of two of her treasured possessions, "a beautiful old black German Bible, on the first page of which is inscribed, 'F. Liszt to Adelaide Kemble,' " and "a green morocco book beautifully bound, the name written in it by the giver, Edward FitzGerald," which "contained Tennyson's 'Morte d'Arthur' copied out in familiar handwriting." "Mrs. Kemble," FitzGerald's full-moon correspondent, "has told me how," adds Mrs. Ritchie, "as a young man, Mr. FitzGerald deeply loved and admired her sister."

India paper is to be thanked for the reprint of Pepys's immortal Diary in one pocketable volume which Mr. Newnes and the Scribners offer conjointly. If Lord Braybrooke's edition, and not the later and fuller versions, has supplied the text, there is still all that the average Pepysian will require. An imaginary portrait of the diarist, by E. J. Sullivan, is the frontispiece and sole illustration. The impression, in spite of the marvellous compactness of the tall booklet, is large, and clear enough to be read by him who runs or walks. For the latter service this reprint is eminently convenient. There is a two-column index of 66 pages.

To the "Caxton Series" of the same publishers is added a two-volume reprint of Herrick's 'Hesperides and Noble Numbers,' illustrated after pen drawings by R. Savage, and bound in the familiar bright blue flexible leather, gold stamped.

While on the subject of little books, Mr. Henry Frowde's 'Select Passages from Jowett' ('Plato's Introductions' and 'Theological Writings') should not be forgotten. These convenient little volumes contain respectively a portrait of the Master of Balliol at seventy-six and at fifty-four, and are edited by Lewis Campbell. Both are calculated to attract attention to the robust intellect of Jowett, and to do good.

The pretty "Muses Library" (London: Bullen; New York: Scribners) is continued by 'The Poetry of George Wither,' in two volumes, edited by Frank Sidgwick. Of this voluminous writer only the poems, including those in the edition of 1622, are chosen; his later religious writings, which the curious will find in the Spenser Society's reprints, are neglected. Wither could have been popularized on no other terms. The present edition contains portraits, facsimiles, an elaborate introduction, and bibliographies—all in keeping with the scholarly tradition of the series.

Ginn & Co. do a valuable service in printing Charles Sumner's 'Addresses on War' in an inexpensive volume. Neither the eloquence nor the cogency of the three orations—"The True Grandeur of Nations," "The War System of the Commonwealth of Nations," and "The Duel between France and Germany"—has faded with the lapse of time. Indeed, recent events only emphasize the value of this classic refutation of the arguments for militarism.

We close our present enumeration of reprints with mention of 'The Poetical Works of John Keats,' in a single volume (Macmillan). A straightforward biography in brief, with some appreciation of the poems, is supplied by Walter S. Scott, and there is a portrait. The use made of Keats's letters in the introduction may prompt the reader to turn to them in Mr. Forman's edition; but on every occasion there should be an explicit injunction to make a first approach to Keats by way of

these documents, which share the remarkable precocity of his verse.

The Rev. Daniel M. Wilson's 'Where American Independence Began'—*scilicet*, Quincy, Mass.—(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is little more than a working over of the memorial volume which he edited a dozen years ago on the occasion of the 250th anniversary of the First Church in that town, of which he was for fourteen years pastor. He has swollen it with pictures, one of them a portrait of very questionable authenticity, and with other matter which have been before the public again and again, and the last pages are a sort of cross between a business directory and a "blue book," with more than one misspelling. Externally, the book is attractive.

Oxford University prescribes the first book of Appian's 'Civil Wars of the Romans' in the Greek text for students in the School of Literæ Humaniores. The selection is made because it embraces a period, between Polybius and Cicero, not covered by any other ancient writer, except in a fragmentary way by Plutarch. Mr. Strachan-Davidson, fellow of Balliol College, has brought out this book with notes and index, and an appendix on the Passage of the Alps by Pompey and Hannibal, the whole embracing 150 pages. The like service rendered by the same editor in his 'Selections from Polybius' is sufficient guarantee of the carefulness of his work on the text of Appian (H. Frowde).

Curtis & Cameron, Boston, publish 'The Quest of the Holy Grail,' the text being paraphrased from the old legends to fit the plates, which are from Mr. Abbey's well-known paintings in the Boston Public Library. Wherever possible, Dr. Greenslet has "followed Malory's diction," and has done his work well enough. The plates from the paintings are too small in scale to be effective, and are unequal in execution, but they are supplemented by eleven reproductions from the original chalk studies which are more satisfactory, though they show a curious effect of red and green striping which is not pleasant. The book is handsomely printed and bound in buckram.

The published volumes of Addresses and Proceedings of the National Educational Association tend to become unwieldy and more or less chaotic. The recently distributed volume, covering the last annual meeting, held at Minneapolis in July, comprises more than 1,000 pages, while the table of contents requires a little over 200 separate entries. It is a rare reader who has interest in more than a fraction of this mass of material; and of those who are interested in it all, few, if any, could find time to read the half of it. It is a pity, then, that really good papers should be buried away so effectually from those who ought to read them. Here is a paper by J. Irving Manatt, for instance, on the "Future of Greek Studies," which is one of the most trenchant, witty, and effective presentations of the subject in brief ever made by an American teacher. There are other good papers on such subjects as "Education in the Appreciation of Art," "The Psychological and Ethical Value of Music," "Hindrance to the Development of Language," etc.; but happy is the reader who will find them in this much and miscellaneously overladen volume. If the National Educational Association is to cover so much and so varied ground in its meetings, we suggest the publication of its papers and proceedings in two or three small volumes, so classified as to consult the convenience of certain general types of possible readers. Papers on language, literature, history, art, and music, for instance, might well go together; mathematics and the natural sciences could form a second volume, and pedagogical discussions a third. The Secretary's minutes should go into a small pamphlet, entirely apart from other material. All this directly in the interests of the cause for which the Association exists.

A granddaughter of Mrs. Sarah Josepha Hale is vindicating through the press that lady's authorship of the familiar poem, "Mary had a little lamb." There was, she says, no Mary and no lamb except in her grandmother's imagination. The poem was composed "at the request of Lowell Mason of Boston, where Mrs. Hale was living, in 1830. Dr. Mason was very desirous of introducing music into the public schools of Boston," as he afterwards did.

—The 'Valley Forge Orderly Book of General George Weedon' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a valuable record of one phase of the life of the Continental army in 1777-78. The operations intended to save Philadelphia from capture by the British, the defeat of Washington's plans at a time when the surrender of Burgoyne placed Gates in a position to be used by men more scheming than himself, and the terrible winter at Valley Forge, make a sequence of events of the highest interest. The value of this record lies in its picture of the daily routine of army life, the punishments meted out by courts-martial, the details of the troops, the parole and countersign, and the machinery of marching orders. It is not new, for every army lived in much the same way; yet it is novel in the light thrown upon the events of the years covered by the record. Discipline was maintained at great cost to the wrongdoer, the punishment ranging from a reprimand to death. Plundering was denounced in the strongest terms, and the frequency of mention points to the difficulty of restraining the men. The hopes and fears of Washington are expressed in the orders, either in a stirring appeal to the patriotism of the troops, or a frank admission of failure coupled with soothing phrases intended to take off the sting of defeat. The praise of the victor of Saratoga, the mishap at Germantown, where the Americans "fled from victory," and the dark days in winter encampment, called forth sentences of high eloquence, almost Napoleonic in form and manner of expression.

—The orderly book is printed just as it was written by the adjutant of Weedon's Corps. That is as it should be, but it may be questioned whether that is enough. The general orders of the army are given so far as the orderly used them, and the orders of the brigade, issued by Greene, as well as the division orders, are added. This makes the record the more interesting, but is apt to mislead those who do not know that it is a record of a particular division in a particular brigade of the Continental army. Either through carelessness or intentional omission the orders are incomplete in what should be the principal feature, the orders applying to the whole army. For example, Greene's command marched early on August 22, and lost the orders issued on the afternoon of the 21st, directing the march of the regiments of horse. On the next day, Washington approved twelve sentences imposed by a general court-martial, but only seven of these are recorded in Weedon's book. The movements of the brigade on a march prevented the proper entries in the orderly book, and thus it happens that omissions are frequent. There are printed no general orders for August 24 and 25, though on the latter day was issued notice of the trial and acquittal of "Capt." Henry Lee on a charge of disobeying orders. The words of parole and countersign are often omitted, and "after orders" are not given in the first months of the record. Errors in date are found, as when the orders of August 27th are entered as those of August 28th. The omitted words could easily have been obtained from another record, as on p. 22, where *thing* is the missing word. Names are carelessly printed, though the plea could be made that the original phonetic method was at fault. But when the same name is incorrectly indexed (as Durgie for Durkee), the editor erred. As a whole, the book stands by itself, and it is to be hoped that at some future time the national Government will print the entire general orders of the Continental army.

—In spite of the fact that no one who visits the west of Ireland can resist writing about it, Connemara has been very little affected and still less enriched by the tourist. The inns, with perhaps three exceptions, are very poor, and the district seems likely to remain a centre of sport for such as can afford to rent one of the shooting and fishing lodges that relieve the loneliness of the deep bays and lakes. Mr. S. G. Bayne, in his brief Irish tour from Londonderry to Cork by way of Donegal, Sligo, and Limerick ('On an Irish Jaunting Car through Donegal and Connemara: Harper & Bros.), traversed some of the most interesting and least-visited country in Ireland. The full-page photographs which he collected *en route* are the most attractive feature of the book, which has no pretension to style. It is, in fact, merely a series of notes on car-drives, hotels, and famous points of scenery, written in a genial spirit as a record of a successful holiday. We can imagine no short European trip half so likely to restore a business man as this of Mr. Bayne's, who spent his month's vacation among some of the most beautiful mountain and lake scenery in the world, far from the tourist throng, and in the mild, soothing air that ensures appetite and sleep. It is to be hoped that his experiences will inspire many, but not too many, others to avoid railways and towns, and drive at their ease in an Irish side-car in that lonely country that lies on the extreme western verge of Europe. The western counties of Ireland have all the beauties of Wales in a higher degree; one is rarely out of sight of great stretches of water, fresh and salt, and the sound of it is always in one's ears. The great advantage of these districts over Wales is the absence of crowds—a state of things likely to continue in the present happy scarcity of railways. Mr. Bayne's book is well got up.

—One more book intended to serve as a

guide to what is left of old Paris comes from the house of Hachette, under the title 'Guide Pratique à travers le Vieux Paris,' by the Marquis de Rochegude. It is a small pocket volume of 230 pages, and professes to deal only with the ancient and the curious houses, especially those which can be seen by visitors; and indirectly with the streets, squares, and quays on which these houses open. In thirty-three different routes (*itinéraires*) the inquiring student of Paris is carried from corner to corner—and for a certain distance up adjoining streets—from house to house, with pauses at the old *portes-cochères*, with mention of what few memorial tablets are built into the walls, and some historical fact about many and many a house not so distinguished. Occasionally one is disappointed that an old legend is discredited by this careful investigator, or receives no notice at all, for some legends are of very modern construction, and others will escape the student's notice; but most often a brief sentence or a briefer clause gives all that need be given to set the inquirer on the right path. Thus, one is pleased (page 126) with the beginning of the Thirteenth Route and the first house mentioned in the Rue St. Honoré, which was, it appears, that occupied by Gabrielle d'Estrées in 1594, and that in which Jean Châtel tried to murder Henry IV.; but again one is a little disappointed when he reaches the point of the Island where the Pont Neuf crosses it, and there rise before his mental vision the two old houses which front westward down the river, to find no mention of the legend which another antiquarian has preserved:

"Illec feut Jean Chastel conduict,
Pour estre occiz place de Grève."

The old houses are named—No 13 on the north side, which carried once the sign of St. Jerome; No. 15 on the south side, which was at the sign of the Golden Cup or Vase (*Coupe d'or*); and it is stated that between these houses Tabarin set up his portable platforms and acted his farces—farces decried by Boileau, but spoken of with complacency by La Fontaine. The author of the book before us does not allow himself to take these "barndoor-fowl flights of learning," as Dr. Holmes would have called them; he goes straight on with his task, and tells us of the different buildings with but the briefest allusion to their history and traditions. But this is what one wants in the case of a little index-like book.

—Professor Beljame of the University of Paris has followed up his masterly translations of "Macbeth" (1897) and "Julius Cæsar" (1900) with a version of "Othello" (Paris: Hachette), equally faithful and illuminating. Previous French translators and adapters of Shakspere, from Letourneur (1776) on, have sacrificed fidelity to predilection, and either made him frigidly "classic," transmuting his varied speech into that *style noble* in which "horse" is always *coursier* and "man" *guerrier*, or else made him extravagantly "romantic," overloading his pages with violent epithets and introducing wilful distortions of his sense. Instead of reproducing Shakspere's meaning as they found it, they have given what in their judgment he ought to have written. In the new translation Shakspere comes into his own. Professor Beljame furnishes a critical text, preserving as far as possible the readings of the first folio, but with modernized spelling. The stresses of the verse are marked according to Ellis's system. Facing this is the French version, line for line, in prose. The fidelity of spirit and the scholarly accuracy of the translation call for high praise. While closely literal, it is not a dictionary translation, but one in which idiom is matched by idiom, and in which the speakers preserve individuality of diction. Even the puns of the original meet us in amusing French equivalents, as where "Thereby hangs a tale," becomes "Il y a une queue à l'histoire." Professor Beljame's version can be recommended not only to the student of Shakspere, who will find that it throws constant light upon the difficulties of the English text, but also to the student of French, to whom it offers an admirable opportunity of comparing the usages of the two languages.

—At a convention of the Modern Language Association of America, held at Harvard some years ago, Dr. Daniel K. Dodge, in a paper entitled "Scandinavian Lexicography," pointed out an Etymological Dictionary as the most crying need for Danish linguistics, while an opposing speaker maintained that the chief desideratum was a thesaurus of the Danish language, something like a Danish Webster or Century Dictionary. The former of these needs was partly, but very imperfectly, filled by E. Jessen's 'Danish Etymological Dictionary,' published at the expense of the Carlsberg fund. The author, who in his youth was one of the most promising Danish philologists, a leader in modern philologic thought, keen as a razor, had turned a complete somersault in his linguistic theories and practices, had for a long time given up his interest in philologic research, and now set to work to combat the very linguistic tendencies of which he was formerly a partisan. He, therefore, so to say, wilfully made his work antiquated, and it is not very valuable to the public or to the student. A more ambitious work is now in course of publication by H. Aschehoug & Co., of Christiania, under the title of 'Etymological Dictionary of the Norwegian and Danish Language.' The authors, Hjalmar Falk and Alf Torp, both of whom are professors in the University of Christiania, have for several years been known to philologic science as collaborators, having previously published jointly two works relating to the phonetic and syntactical history of the Dano-Norwegian language. Their intention is, in the present work, to give a scientific explanation of the origin and history of every word, not only in the Norwegian literary language, but also in the pure Danish and in the Norwegian *landsmaal*, and also to explain the origin and meaning of the many idiomatic expressions and popular sayings in which this language, like most others, abounds. Of this dictionary three parts have so far appeared, carrying the work to about the middle of the letter H. It gives every promise of being of great interest to any student of the Scandinavian languages, although it would seem that the authors occasionally take in too much of the etymological material obtained from the more distant branches of the Indo-European family of languages, and are too prone to find an historic connection between German (Low and High) and Danish or Norwegian peculiarities. A Danish or a Dano-Norwegian "Webster" or "Standard" Dictionary still remains to be wished for.

WIENER'S RUSSIAN ANTHOLOGY.

Anthology of Russian Literature from the Earliest Period to the Present Time. By Leo Wiener, Assistant Professor of Slavic Languages at Harvard University. In two parts. Part I.—From the Tenth Century to the Close of the Eighteenth Century. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. xvii, 447.

For many years, both in England and in America, there has been a genuine popular interest in Russia and its literature, if one may judge by the ready sale of books of travel in Russia, and of translations—often bad ones—of Russian novels. But for information on Russian literature the public has had to depend largely upon scattered essays, often by men insufficiently acquainted either with the Russian language or with literary criticism. Waliszewski's 'History of Russian Literature,' the best general account of the subject accessible in English, has much suggestive discussion of the great modern writers, but is very weak in its treatment of the earlier periods, and its inaccuracy has been increased by an incompetent translator. This "definite want" Professor Wiener of Harvard University has undertaken to supply in his 'Anthology.' Probably no writer of English is so well equipped for the task. His first volume concludes with the close of the pseudo-classic school at the end of the eighteenth century. A second volume will treat the modern or "national" literature.

The plan of the work is excellent. A 'Sketch of Russian Literature' opens the volume. Though this at first seems obscure, from its almost stenographic form and the host of strange names that fill its pages, it proves to be well adapted to its immediate purpose, for in the body of the book we find a selection from nearly every one of these unknown authors and a short account of his life and his position in literary history. In these selections, which are in part here translated for the first time, in part chosen from previous English versions, lies the great value of this 'Anthology.' Professor Wiener has not written a volume of pleasant essays, but has given us a work to some extent authoritative. A diligent student of this book would probably learn more of the earlier Russian literature than he could from all other English accounts put together.

Of course the 'Anthology' is in no sense a work of original research, but a frank compilation. The selections are often translated from Russian chrestomathies, notably from that of Busláev, a text-book used in the Russian schools. These native sources are, very sensibly, not specifically acknowledged; the mention of names would be useless to the English reader and almost superfluous to the student of Russian. On the other hand, abundant references are given to the preceding English literature on the subject. By this modesty of aim, Professor Wiener has secured a unity and proportion for his work that it would have been harder to attain in a more ambitious attempt. His selections illustrate and support one another. Thus, the old epic fragment, 'The Word of Igor's Armament' is explained by an extract from the 'Kiev Chronicle' narrating the same event. Everywhere the effort is to give English readers somewhat the same commonplace, connected, useful notion of the older Russian writers that Rus-

sian boys and girls receive in the gymnasium. Finally, the logical transliteration of Russian names ranks not least among the merits of this 'Anthology.'

Thus, the general plan of the book merits nothing but praise. Before speaking of the execution, we must note that English is not Professor Wiener's native language. In spite of this, his style is in general clear and idiomatic. We will note, however, occasional infelicities of diction which might well be corrected in a second edition. Witness the mixture of metaphors in the following:

"We shall now make the balance-sheet of the eighteenth-century literature in the separate departments, and see what residuum it bequeathed to the nineteenth century" (p. 33).

In the following there is a peculiar incongruity:

"I picked up a psalter in my sorrow, opened it, and these words were before me: 'Why are you sad, my soul? Why are you grieved?'" (p. 51).

Here the English reader longs for the familiar phrases of the Authorized Version. Occasional mistakes are to the discredit of the proof-reader. Thus, we read of "a drunk man" and "a drunk woman" (p. 129).

In his Preface, Professor Wiener writes:

"In my own translations . . . I have attempted to render minutely the originals, with their different styles, not excepting their very imperfections, such as characterize particularly the writers of the eighteenth century. Only when the diction is inexpressibly crude, as in Pososhkóv's writings, or the text corrupt, as in the 'Word of Igor's Armament,' have I made slight deviations for the sake of clearness" (p. vi).

This effort at extreme literalness seems to have been unfortunate in the very title here mentioned. "The Tale of Igor's Raid" would, we think, be far better. Apparently, the English "word," unlike its Russian equivalent, has never been used in the sense of 'tale' or 'story.' And, striving to render the ambiguous Russian *polk* ('expedition' or 'band'), the translator selects "armament," thereby producing a bookish title quite at variance with the tone of the old heroic tale.

In other cases, Professor Wiener seems not to have adhered to his plan of literal translation, sometimes even to have fallen into positive errors. We have compared with the originals only a small portion of the 'Anthology,' and that mainly from the older, more difficult texts. Now Russian mediæval documents are in one respect much like their Western contemporaries. The general sense of their naïve, incoherent narrative can be made out at a glance, but a strictly accurate version requires time and painstaking attention. Over some passages Professor Wiener seems to have passed too lightly. Thus, we read: "Then Prince Igor stepped into the golden stirrup and galloped over the clear field. The sun barred his way in darkness; night groaning with the cries of birds awoke him" (p. 83, 'Word of Igor's Armament'). If Igor were galloping on horseback, he would scarcely need awakening! In this passage the text is apparently not corrupt and the sense seems clear: "Then Prince Igor stepped into the golden stirrup and rode over the clear field. The sun barred his way with darkness; night, groaning threateningly at him, awoke the birds." In the same 'Word of Igor's Armament,' by the way, on page 94, figures a certain Ovlúr, whose relation to the story is not explained. A short footnote would have served to point out his probable identity with the Lavór of the 'Kiev Chronicle' (p. 78). The 'Story of Misery Luckless-Plight' appears in the 'Anthology' as a prose tale, with no hint that the original is in a rude form of verse, imitated from the popular ballads. It is also omitted from mention in the index to the volume.

Professor Wiener's critical views owe much, he tells us (p. vi.), to the Russian critic Pýpin, whose great 'History of Russian Literature' is the most recent general work on the subject. For the most part, Professor Wiener's criticisms are guarded, and of a general character, but here, also, occasional doubtful statements may be noted. No document of early Russian literature is so interesting as the oft-mentioned 'Word of Igor's Armament,' an epic fragment dating apparently from the twelfth century. No document is so problematic in its literary character and relations. By making the first complete English translation of it, Professor Wiener has rendered a great service; but he is surely wrong in writing: "The *Nibelungenlied* and the *Chanson de Roland* are chiefly productions of a literary character, while the *Word* bears every evidence of representing the untutored labor of a popular bard" (p. 80). Here he goes much further than Pýpin, who says merely (in our abridgment):

"As the work of a personal author, the *Word* is a remarkable proof of the degree of literary cultivation reached by the twelfth century. In it coöperated elements of folklore, of personal temperament, and of old traditions. It may be compared to the *Nibelungenlied* and the *Chanson de Roland*, but did not undergo literary remodelling to the same extent, and has preserved surprising and, historically, extremely curious traits of popular poetry and popular manners."

Furthermore, the 'Word,' in its present form, is written in a sort of poetic prose, reminding us of Ossian. Professor Wiener refers to it constantly as a "poem," and to its author as a "bard"; only once (p. 9) does he use the term "prose poem." But at least one prominent Russian scholar held that the 'Word' was never written in verse at all, and that its frequent references to pagan divinities, instead of being direct echoes of popular superstition, are ornaments of a pseudo-classic character.

As a whole, this 'Anthology' will hardly make Russian literature more popular. In particular, few readers will be attracted to the eighteenth-century poets. Even in Russia most of these men are as little read as Glover in England or Trumbull in America. Professor Wiener's treatment of the folklore is good, but here he has had competent predecessors. The earlier pages of the volume, with their versions of quaint mediæval pieces, hitherto wholly inaccessible, are the most valuable; but even these translations will appeal to a very limited public. The 'Anthology' will be most useful to those who already know something of the great modern novelists, and who wish to extend their knowledge to the earlier literature. To them it will be indispensable. It should stand on the reference shelves of every public library. It appears auspiciously by the side of new and at last, let us be thankful, competent versions of Turgeneff and Tolstoy. We may hope, then, that in our new century the knowledge of Russian literature accessible to English readers will be knowledge worth having.

HALE'S MEMORIES.

Memories of a Hundred Years. By Edward Everett Hale. Two vols. The Macmillan Co.

In the course of these wayward and intricate meanderings Dr. Hale mentions a well-known French physicist — so well known that he is not named—who remembered seeing the nurse raise the curtain of his room when he was six hours old. But Dr. Hale's own memory goes farther back. It is only through excess of modesty that he calls his book 'Memories of a Hundred Years.' A century does not exhaust their scope. His explanation of his title is that he remembers people who remembered the beginnings of the nineteenth century. He remembers some whose memories go back a good deal farther, and he remembers books that take him back another stretch of quite indefinite extent. Here is a device the working of which has no assignable limit, and it would not be strange if some ingenious writer should better Dr. Hale's instruction and publish his 'Memories of a Thousand Years.' It should be said, however, that Dr. Hale does not overrate the charm of oral tradition, and no parts of his book are more engaging than those which take hold upon the memories of those who were already old when he was young.

For the best appreciation of these 'Memories' it is above all things necessary that they should not be taken too seriously. They yield no definite information. To go to them for careful judgments upon men and events would be absurd. But, take them for what they are—the slap-dash reminiscences of an octogenarian of imperfect memory, of violent prejudices and excursive fancy—and they provide a fund of entertainment which only the improvident will neglect. It should be borne in mind that Dr. Hale has done more in fiction than in history, that his preference for the former is pronounced, and that he is never happier than when "submitting the shows of things to the desires of the mind." He has several convenient formulæ, "I think" and "I believe," etc., by which we are warned that he is embroidering the fact to suit his fancy; but his proclivity to imaginative writing is much too insuperable for him to be invariably conscious of its effect. There is a good deal of exaggeration which can hardly claim the license of the poet, as where he protests that he must have seen Webster thousands of times and read thousands of his private letters, where "scores" would probably be an exacter indication. A less venial fault is the sheer dogmatism of certain pronouncements, as that Webster was a greater man than Burke, and the intrusion of a bitter partisan note. Meantime there is no feature of the book that is more amusing than its excursive manner. The backward movement of 'Tristram Shandy' did not begin to be so comical as these flittings back and forth and in every possible and unlooked-for direction.

Much of the first volume is occupied with things that happened before Dr. Hale was born, and nothing could take us back to the fore part of the nineteenth century

more vividly or painfully than the temper in which Thomas Jefferson is assailed. To know how the Federalists hated Jefferson in 1801, and to understand the spirit in which James Cheetham and other pamphleteers and journalists of that time carried on their political controversies, one could not do better than to read the depreciation of Jefferson that we have here. The novelty of the accusation is that it reduces Jefferson to a mere nonentity, which is not by any means the doctrine of Mr. Henry Adams, to whose 'History' Dr. Hale many times refers as confirmatory of his own opinion of Jefferson and "the Jefferson dynasty." Madison is always "poor Madison," while Monroe is treated with more absolute contempt, not even the Monroe Doctrine saving him. In his chapter on the historians, Dr. Hale has high praise for Bancroft, but if the two should ever meet in the Elysian Fields, and Bancroft has then read any translation of this book into the language of that country, Dr. Hale may expect as bad a quarter of an hour as Tartarus could afford.

There is a hint of personal grievance in Dr. Hale's treatment of Jefferson. We are assured that Jefferson treated Philip Nolan shabbily. But then Jefferson had not read 'The Man without a Country,' and could not be expected to have the interest in Philip Nolan felt by the author of that brilliant story. For clearly Dr. Hale's interest in the real Philip Nolan, a Western filibuster and horse-thief, is merely the reflection of his interest in the imaginary Philip Nolan of his story. It seems that he did not mean to name his inverted hero for an actual person, imagining that the real Nolan's name was Stephen. The name Philip was suggested to him by the mistake of an Episcopal rector who said St. Philip when he should have said St. Stephen. The real Philip Nolan was shot and killed on one of his horse-stealing raids into Texas, and his companions who were captured were severely punished. Hence, we are told, hatred of Spain in the Southwestern region, the annexation of Texas, the Mexican war, the Southern enthusiasm for the late Spanish-American war, and so on. It is all very amusing. Jefferson is bitterly reproached for not vindicating the cause of Philip Nolan, the unwitting namesake of Dr. Hale's man without a country. Dr. Hale would have Texas erect a statue to the real Nolan, and he would have another statue to him in the Washington gallery of heroes. Yet Dr. Hale confesses that he was hand in glove with Gen. Wilkinson, in whom he recognizes as complete a scoundrel as Aaron Burr or Benedict Arnold or Charles Lee.

The material development of the United States has an immense fascination for Dr. Hale, and he cannot say enough in praise of Eli Whitney's cotton-gin and the canals and railroads that have aided this development. There are few feathers in his father's cap that he prizes more than his function as promoter of the Boston and Worcester Railroad, and purchaser of its first locomotive. The filial piety which has this illustration has many another. One would not have it less, nor the loyalty to his uncle, Edward Everett, however we may question the representation of Everett's oratory as peculiarly spontaneous. We are promised much about the brother, Alexander H. Everett, but get very little. We get much more about Daniel Webster, first and last. Dr. Hale thinks his father had known him at Exeter, where Nathan Hale was an instructor from 1805 to 1808, and Webster was a pupil for nine months in 1793. There is no apt conjunction here, but of course Webster might have driven over to Exeter from Boscawen or Portsmouth. Much uncertainty is evinced as to the date of Webster's settlement in Boston, but 1816, the actual year, preponderates. Dr. Hale also thinks that his father sometimes taught in Ezekiel Webster's Boston school when Ezekiel was not well. But Ezekiel's school-keeping ended in 1807 and Nathan Hale came to Boston in 1808. The date of Webster's Faneuil Hall speech defending his adhesion to Tyler is given as 1841. It came off September 30, 1842. It is written of 1844, when Dr. Hale saw Webster in Washington, "He was then Secretary of State." He had ceased to be in May, 1843. "In 1830 I saw Jackson, who came to Boston as President"; but the visit was in 1833. Jared Sparks is called a Vermont boy; but he was a native of Connecticut. There are probably dozens of like mistakes in Dr. Hale's book, the most amazing being the transfer of the Boston *Liberator* to Baltimore. He closes his Webster passage with a brave defence of Webster's temperance, but he makes no reference to his careful use of money and the nice payment of his debts. It is a gross exaggeration of the popular impression to represent it as being that Webster "was often, not to say generally, overcome with liquor in the latter years of his life." The popular impression is that he used liquor freely, and was sometimes the worse for it on great public occasions, and this impression is certainly correct.

From Webster and the orators Dr. Hale passes to the American historians, and the characterization is so genial that we wonder who are the historians on whom Dr. Hale rains the punishing force of his unqualified contempt in many casual references to historical writing. John Fiske would flame indignantly at his lumping of Gibbon with Hume and Smollett and Mitford, as well he might. The Parkman section is illumined by a noble sonnet to Parkman by Dr. Hale's son, Robert Beverly Hale, who, full of promise, died untimely. From the historians we pass to anti-slavery matters, and Dr. Hale is nowhere more interesting than here, especially after he is through with his book-learning and comes down to the *pars magna fui*, of which he makes no vain or inconsiderable boast. It is a very interesting fact that, immediately after the annexation of Texas, he wrote a pamphlet, 'How to Conquer Texas Before Texas Conquers Us.' The idea was that the free North should colonize the State. Here, though Benjamin Lundy was his forerunner, was good preparation for Dr. Hale's efficient alliance, ten years later, with Eli Thayer in his Emigrant Aid Society. Of that alliance Dr. Hale's account is extremely interesting. He thinks John Brown, "for whom he has a high respect," was of great injury to Kansas. This is less strange than his thinking that Thayer and Robinson have been depreciated in the interest of other spirits active in the Kansas struggle. They certainly did not depreciate themselves, except by the extravagance of their over-estimation. Each wrote his "Alone in Kansas"; Thayer, convinced that he was a bigger man than any other who was engaged in the anti-slavery enterprise or than all the rest together. Had they been less greedy of repute, they would have deserved, and would have had, an ampler fame. There was enough for all concerned.

The war chapters are good, and Dr. Hale's list of texts for his war-sermons is a sensible addition to the curiosities of pulpit literature. The story of his "First and Last Battle" is too good not to be true, but here and there a miserable doubt intrudes.

The memories of Boston literary men add little to what we had already. In the first paragraph on Emerson, his 'Representative Men' is apparently confounded with Carlyle's 'Heroes and Hero Worship'; the former having no essay on Mahomet. Dr. Hale's account of Emerson's persistent advocacy of college prayers is that of a surprising paradox. The account of Longfellow's Harvard teaching confirms Col. Higginson's recent testimony to its companionable manner. Dr. Hale used to tell Holmes that he was the first schoolboy to recite his "Old Ironsides." He probably did better then than now, when in four lines quoted he has "tattered" for "threadbare" and "battle" for "lightning."

When all is said, the prosperity of the book is in the personality of the writer, which saturates its every page, a personality which, having the defects of its qualities, is as interesting as it is unique.

Players and Plays of the Last Quarter Century. By Lewis C. Strang. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1903.

The most obvious remark concerning this latest addition to the already abundant crop of modern theatrical essays—biographical, anecdotical, and critical—is that it is a more than commonly flagrant instance of book-making. Mr. Strang starts out with the axiom that it is impossible to write intelligently of the theatre of today without a preliminary description of that of yesterday, and he makes this an excuse for filling up a large proportion of his six hundred pages with old and irrelevant matter concerning the actors and plays of the latter part of the eighteenth and the earlier half of the nineteenth century. About these he has no new facts to relate, while his personal comment is, necessarily, of the smallest possible value. Nor can it be said that these digressions enable him to arrive at any particularly novel or illuminating conclusions. He holds that the theatre reflects accurately the national sentiment and aspirations—a proposition somewhat trite as regards the old days when it was the chief, if not the only, means of popular expression, but true in only a very limited degree, if at all, in this era, when every passing phase of opinion or feeling finds instant vent in the daily press. To prove his point, Mr. Strang cites the so-called patriotic plays of the Spanish War period, speculative essays of cheap-Jack managers, of which the very names were unknown to the general community, and to which, by no stretch of the imagination, could any historical or sociological significance be attached. The fact is, that in its present estate the stage is dominated—there are exceptions to every rule—by

the commercial instincts of the syndicates which own it, and prescribe the fashions for it in exactly the same way as the tailors and milliners decide what mankind shall wear. Moreover, Mr. Strang confutes his own theory. He says that there is no demand for the old tragedy, and yet dilates upon the fact that wherever Shakspere is represented adequately, the public flock to the performances.

Mr. Strang says that his book is a "critical review of existing conditions," but sharp exceptions will be taken to many of his critical dicta. He has, for instance, some queer notions on the subject of tragedy. He seems to think that blood-letting was the essential element in the old tragic plays, and the main secret of their former popularity. This might be true of the melodrama of a hundred years back, in which the broadsword combats played so prominent a part. That was already dying when Dickens wrote of Vincent Crummles. Mr. Strang attributes our ancestors' love of tragedy to the materiality of the age in which they existed. Man is now inspired, he thinks, with the spirit of optimism, and he foresees a tragedy of the future which will "breathe sweetness, tenderness, loveliness, and purity," and which, "instead of shocking by its horror, will inspire by its inherent optimism." In what respect this drama is to be tragic he does not explain.

His volumes would be more valuable if confined to matters of which he had some personal knowledge, or if he had been more careful to make it plain whether the opinion set down is his own or somebody else's. His summary of Forrest's career and capacity is a fairly judicious extract from contemporary testimony, but has no independent significance, while no one familiar with Charlotte Cushman's *Meg Merrilies* would have dismissed it curtly as a melodramatic monstrosity. The part itself was a very feeble reflection of Scott's vivid creation, but Miss Cushman's performance of it was a masterpiece of stirring and imaginative acting. As to other actresses succeeding in the character, nobody ever approached Miss Cushman in it, not even Janauschek. Mary Anderson, who possessed the physical characteristics of height and voice in an eminent degree, failed in it absolutely. Again, in speaking of Lawrence Barrett, Mr. Strang remarks that his influence upon the American stage was almost equal to that of Edwin Booth. Now, if there is one thing certain about Edwin Booth, it is that he exercised no influence upon the American stage at all. He won great fame and fortune for himself—nothing more. He trained no actors, encouraged no playwright, avoided all experiment, and for many years was utterly heedless of his artistic surroundings. Barrett, on the other hand, was an ambitious and enterprising reformer, encouraged native talent, revived the poetic drama, and helped to make some good actors. In another place, the author speaks of the genius of Booth encompassing the "brutal animalism" of Othello, whereas the avoidance of anything like this animalism was the salient characteristic (some thought the salient weakness) of Mr. Booth's Moor.

There is much truth in what Mr. Strang has to say about the limited artistic achievement of Mr. Joseph Jefferson, but few persons, outside of Boston, will agree with his comparative estimates of William Warren and John Gilbert. Although the two men had many parts in common, they did not belong to exactly the same class of actors. Warren shone most in low or eccentric comedy, and undoubtedly covered a wider range of character with rare versatility, whereas Gilbert was essentially a high comedian, with capacities for tragic work which Warren could never have attempted. It was only after he had passed the prime of life that he became so closely identified with the three or four characters —*Old Dornton, Sir Peter, Sir Anthony*, etc. —with which his fame is now chiefly associated. Mr. Strang detects the weakness of Augustin Daly as a manager when he says that "to gratify his own idea he was ruthless in his treatment of the text of great English plays, and was so lavish with his pageantry that many of his productions were marvels of misconceived and misapplied effort." This is undeniable, but he was for many years the only real theatrical manager, in the full sense of the term, in the United States, and he has left no successor.

Few persons, nowadays, will quarrel with Mr. Strang's description of the Harrigan plays (in which some critics discerned an almost divine inspiration) as noisy, coarse, and vulgar. Some of the eulogies written about them would make curious reading to-day, but not more so, perhaps, than the extravagant praise of third-rate plays and players of the present period will afford twenty-five years hence. But surely some mention, if only as a matter of record, ought to have been made of Mr. Hart, who contributed very largely to the success of the tenement-house drama. But then, in his account of the great English actors of the nineteenth century, Mr. Strang does not even mention Samuel Phelps, who did more to popularize the legitimate drama than any man of his time. He was, probably, so far as solid achievement is concerned, the greatest actor-manager who ever lived.

Mr. Strang's review of the work of modern authors, William Young, Bronson Howard, William Gillette, Augustus Thomas, James A. Herne, Clyde Fitch, and others, does not evince much judgment or sense of proportion. It is sufficient, perhaps, to state that he accounts "Shenandoah" the best of Mr. Howard's pieces. Undoubtedly it was one of the most remunerative, but there was better work in "Aristocracy," "The Banker's Daughter," "Old Love Letters," and "Young Mrs. Winthrop." Space will permit no more than a passing reference to the author's dissertations upon various modern "stars," the emotional drama, etc., most of which are more fluent than sound; but it may be as well to say that the objection taken by some of Mr. Pinero's critics to his recent problem plays is not on account of any intrinsic immorality in such teaching as they may be supposed to enforce, but because in effect they are sensational presentations of morbid, unclean, and infectious matter, which in a theatre must do more harm than good. Moreover, their potency consists not in their truth to nature, but in their brilliant theatrical treatment. Mr. Strang is confident that there is a great and pressing demand for the American play which presently will be met, in accordance with the general law, and that straightway the theatre will rise Phœnixlike from its ashes, free itself from the superincumbent mass of foulness and stupidity, and put on new literary and artistic glories. It is difficult to see upon what he builds his expectations. American drama is plentiful, but it is not improving sensibly, and there is apparently little hope of salvation in that direction. Intelligent management and good stock companies for the raising of a body of sound actors are the essential preliminaries of revival.

L'Histoire par les Monnaies: Essais de Numismatique Ancienne. Par Théodore Reinach. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1902. Pp. iv., 272.

Guide to the Catharine Page Perkins Collection of Greek and Roman Coins. (Museum of Fine Arts, Boston.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902. Pp. viii., 112.

When Huxley coupled numismatics with theology, it was less to exalt the one than to depress the other, with a glance at the supposed antiquarian character of both. Whatever the decadence of dogma, old coins still find less favor than old doctrines, and the ordinary collector is as far from the real numismatist as the average pewholder from the higher critic. Fifty years ago, boys gathered cents of the various dates, and "Jersey horseheads"; to-day, their elders collate the products of our home mints, but look askance on those of former ages. The Roman imperial series, being at once the easiest to understand and the most historically important, might be expected to attract; but, to the man in the street, Augustus and the Antonines "are dead." His antithesis is the archæologist, who turns from the familiar to regions untilled, or where at least something is to be gleaned after the reapers. The Roman field is practically exhausted; what remains but to determine as to a score or two of doubtful issues, and add a possible few types to the twenty-odd thousand described and even valued (as to rarity) by Cohen?

But there was a race older and in a way greater than the Roman; one that in its decadence continued to rule the world, and has no less than its successors to say to modern ideas and institutions. The Greeks had no centralization; human heads, except of monarchs after Alexander, never appeared on their money; "coins were regarded as the badge of freedom," and each town might issue them, under no rule but that of its own artistic instinct. Hence the Greek coinage is as various, complicated, and in the main obscure, as that of Rome is uniform and obvious. In 1854 Colonel Leake estimated that at least a thousand cities and three hundred "tyrants" had issued coins, "some of them in hundreds of varieties"; and subsequent excavations and studies have added to this throng of sources. "The number of types," says the Boston Museum handbook, "is legion." Mr. Head of the British Museum, in his 'Historia Numorum,' the largest and best English book on this subject, disclaims any attempt at exhaustiveness, and passes lightly over the copper or bronze issues, naturally the most numerous and various everywhere. Anything like a complete list of Greek mint-issues is impossible as yet; indeed, to be final, it would have to wait till most of the soil of southern Europe, southwestern Asia, and northern Africa had been thoroughly spaded and

sifted, and the results long and laboriously pored over by more than one or two devotees—for the coins as found are mostly small and hard to decipher, both from imperfect lettering and from their experiences above and under ground. Researches and editing once worthily accomplished, a millionaire or a government might be needed to bear the expense of publishing a work greater than King Victor's forthcoming volume (or volumes) describing all the coins of Italy, mediæval and modern.

But to enthusiasm nothing is impossible. To numismatists of the thirty-third degree "ancient" means Greek; this is implied in the title of M. Reinach's treatise, as in that of Mr. Head before him. The Romans were comparatively modern; everything has been said as to their mintages, which may now be left to children and everyday collectors. Greece—which in this sense extends from the Caspian to the Atlantic, and from 700 B. C. to our era—is the one field for research. The last century, says M. Reinach, has witnessed the beginning of a *Corpus numorum veterum*, which the present age may "perhaps" see completed. As a contribution thereto, he and M. Ernest Babelon have already in press a 'Catalogue général des Monnaies grecques de l'Asie Mineure,' geographically the largest and numismatically among the most crowded sections of the Greek world. These scholars would be the first to point out that such a list can be only "to date," since a coin which is unique to-day may be one of a family to-morrow, and any "find" may modify an established classification or overturn a theory which has passed for fact. Numismatics advances mainly bit by bit, here a little and there a little, through French essays like M. Reinach's and British Museum publications, each touching usually but one corner of a large land; and a descriptive catalogue of all the coins of Asia Minor will be no small addition to our knowledge.

Yet M. Reinach regards this sort of work as merely preliminary: to study coins simply for themselves is to be of the lower class. He distinguishes between pure and applied numismatics. The former describes, classifies, and explains coins; the other, he says, utilizes them, with other means, to resolve questions raised by "l'histoire politique, économique, artistique, religieuse de l'antiquité." Mr. Head and other postgraduates are of the same mind; and the 'Guide to the Perkins Collection' is more explicit: "Greek coins are important for the help they afford in tracing the political, municipal, and commercial history of the ancient world; they also throw light on Greek society, religion, mythology, philology, iconography, chronology, and geography; and they have been termed 'the grammar of Greek art.'" To make them serve some of these uses seems always M. Reinach's object, whether he is discussing the relative values of ancient gold and silver, or the Delphic monetary system, or the dynasty of Commagene, or such obscure topics as the Derrones (known only by a few coins), or a monetary crisis in the third century of our era, or "une monnaie hybride des insurrections juives." That last is an attractive theme, though it affords but a bare five pages.

The Perkins Collection in the Boston Museum is rather a selection, for it claims but 609 pieces, among which Rome is scantily represented by five of the Republic and twenty-five of the Empire; the rest are Greek. Roman coins are mostly inexpensive, and certainly of high historic value; but the idea of art has ruled here. Of Greek alone a collection ten times as large could be gathered for the probable cost of this; but the 579 were chosen chiefly for condition and presumably for typical character. Fifty-seven of them have been photographed, and are here presented on a black ground in five plates, with an effect of most uncommon clearness, strength, and beauty. One, probably of these (we are not told which), brought more than $1,500 at a London sale, and another over $900: these might be moderate prices for books or stamps, but are infrequent with coins, even the rarest and finest. The text of this Handbook reflects no little credit on its too modest author, who withholds his name and disclaims originality, but cannot conceal his mental calibre and attainments. From his brief introduction the average collector or the uninstructed reader may gain more information as to the genesis of coinage, and in a clearer form, than he will easily find elsewhere. Altogether the booklet is most creditable to the Museum, and a contribution (as it is intended to be) both to art education and to the neglected study of numismatics.

A Life of Mr. Yukichi Fukuzawa. By A. Miyamori. Tokio: Z. P. Maruya & Co.

Rarely in any age or nation has it been given to one man so to change the mental outlook of his country as did Fukuzawa that of Japan (1834-1901). As teacher, editor, author, he became the intellectual father of half the thinking men of Japan in this generation. The copies of his printed books ran into the millions. Refusing the sword or office, titles or decorations, absolutely honest and fearless, he toiled as the soldier of culture and righteousness to transform a nation. Stepping down out of the ranks of the gentry, his life was spent in lifting up the masses. He was the liberator of his people from Confucianism and other Chinese cramping notions, and from insular narrowness and bigotry. He led the Japanese into the intellectual freedom of the West. He was the exalter of woman. He cared little or nothing for dogma: his one idea was to know truth according to reason. His ethics were summed up in "independence and self-respect." For forty years the "Great Commoner" wrought in the same field with Okubo, Saigo, Ito, and Shibusawa, as well as with Hepburn, Brown, Verbeck, and Greene, to make and keep Japan one of the nations in the van of progress.

This little book of less than two hundred pages, by Professor Miyamori, its English révised by Prof. E. H. Vickers of the college founded by the master, is based on Fukuzawa's autobiography. It tells of the early struggles of the half-orphan lad to learn Dutch when European books were excessively rare and had to be copied by hand with the pen. When Yokohama was opened, the poor fellow found that, with all his Dutch, he could not read the signs or labels, for they were in English. Happily, he was able to take a voyage to America in the first Japanese steamer which the once hermits navigated across the Pacific within seven years after they had first seen coal-smoke from a ship's funnel. Afterwards he visited Europe, and again the United States. His book on Western Countries, read by all classes, was like the building of a great window in the dead wall of the national intellect. Yet for years Fukuzawa had to live amid assassins who hated "evil opinions." Often he was in the very jaws of death. Seeing how eagerly the soldier and the office-seeker sought to ply their trades—in each case with blunting of the moral sense—he resolved to avoid both battle and boodle. He consecrated himself to the idea that "the independence of a nation consists in the independent spirit of the individuals composing it." In a word, he struck at the core of the Confucian social system. On the day of the great battle at Uyeno, in Tokio, within sound of the cannon, he began the teaching of Wayland's 'Moral Science'—the books having arrived that day. He foretold the rush for office, by both fighting parties, as soon as war was over. The Keio College which he founded (named after the chronological period, 1865-1867), ever a formidable and inspiring rival of the Imperial University, has now over 1,700 students. The *Jiji Shimpo*, which he began and for years edited, is, among its contemporaries, what the two or three greatest journals are in the English-speaking world. "To elevate the character of all the Japanese, to make them worthy of the name of a civilized nation, . . . to encourage the spread of Buddhism or Christianity, . . . to help scholars in their study of profound theories," as the closing sentences of the twenty-fourth edition of his autobiography declare, were the objects of his life. His last work was an utterly destructive analysis of the Confucian principles underlying Kaibara's 'Great Learning for Women'—the standard in old Japan for the training or, rather, the subjection of women. It was written after his years of constructive teaching in journal, book, and lecture, in which he assaulted sensualism and polygamy, and pleaded for the education and uplift of woman as man's companion. His death was mourned by all, from Emperor to laborer, and ten thousand people walked behind his bier.

This little biography is a model in its way. It is terse, luminous, and rich in facts, besides being suggestive and valuable for that kind of history which deals with internal forces, none the less potent because imponderable and immeasurable. The reviewer can not agree with Professor Miyamori when he asserts that "Mr. Fukuzawa introduced this art [of public speaking] into Japan," for he was himself a member of the same club in Tokio named Meirokusha (p. 79) to which Fukuzawa belonged, and often talked with and heard the man who first found or coined Japanese words for "speech," "debate," "second," etc. Nevertheless, he knows how thoroughly the American teachers and missionaries had, even before Fukuzawa's beginning, trained their pupils and converts in the forms or Western deliberative assemblages. For Robert H. Bryan (p. 54) R. H. Pruyn should be read, and one or two of the Dutch names need reconstruction. This little book ought to be in our public libraries.

The Cathedrals of Great Britain, their History and Architecture. By P. H. Ditchfield, M.A., F.S.A., Fellow of the Royal Historical Society, Rector of Barkham. With numerous illustrations by Herbert Railton, J. A. Symington, H. M. James, H. Cricqmore, etc. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. xii., 452.

It is not surprising that the supply remains constant of books devoted to the English cathedrals. To those persons who are immediately interested in them, or in one of them, no other earthly subject is quite as important: and to such persons there is also the pleasant assurance that many travellers, especially the English-reading Americans, come every year to visit those shrines of pilgrimage, and that a large minority of them will buy the books. The volume now under consideration is a small octavo, and can be carried in the pocket of a working overcoat, or more easily in a hand-bag along with an opera-glass and the like. It deals with all the cathedrals in Great Britain; and to this it adds a consideration of Westminster Abbey and Beverley Minster. All are mediæval buildings except St. Paul's in London; and as St. Paul's is the only example of its class, its history is set forth in twenty-five pages with a number of text-illustrations, while no other building except Ely Cathedral has as many, even Westminster Abbey, with its immensely interesting display of monuments, falling short by a page or two. To Newcastle only two-thirds of a page is given. Iona, Brechin, Aberdeen, Dunblane, Dunkeld, St. Andrew's, Kirkwall, and St. Giles's Church at Edinburgh are also put off each with a page of text more or less, and no illustrations at all. And this seems disproportionate, because, while their artistic interest may be less, their historical record is as important as if they were as splendid as Canterbury.

Concerning the value of the work, it can only be said that the author seems to have endeavored to do his duty as a guide. He has drawn on authorities of all sorts, and mentions their names in his preface —church officers of many ecclesiastical establishments in England, and the architectural writers from Rickman to Prior, covering some three-quarters of a century of *quasi*-archæological research. The book is not elegantly written; nor is perfect accuracy in description or in definition to be found in it. The word pilaster is defined in two or three insignificant ways; for instance, in the note on page 27, nearly followed in the "Glossary," it is said to be "a column attached to a wall." The odd statement on page 145 that "the vaulting is what is known as lierne" would throw an untrained visitor into great embarrassment, more especially as lierne is not given in the glossary. We are asked to feel a sad interest in the burial of Mary Queen of Scots at Peterborough, and to think of "the twilight procession bearing the executed body of the frail but fair queen." There are also some odd bits of history furnished, as when we are told that "in 1642 Cromwell's soldiers, under the Earl of Essex, entered the town [Worcester] and did after their kind," where there is evidently confusion between Cromwell and the Parliament—"the Houses." The index is merely a one-page list of towns and buildings with which the book is chiefly concerned; and the glossary, already named, occupies two pages only, and is, of course, extremely inadequate.

Animals before Man in North America: Their Lives and Times. By Frederic A. Lucas. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 298. Illustrated.

Mr. Lucas is a very entertaining writer. He popularizes his science so that the technicalities are unobjectionable to any class of readers, and do not make the science appear to suffer by their lack of prominence. The story he tells relates in the greater part to vertebrates; it is that of the periods in their history sketched from the more patent features of well-marked epochs, with something about the forms of the creatures, their kindred affinities, migrations, localities of discovery, etc. The narrative, as a whole, is decidedly interesting and is well rounded. The conclusions as to relations of the extinct types and the causes of their disappearance are probably as good as any; but our liking for the work does not carry with it agreement with quite all that is said.

On page 114, in the quoted remarks concerning a batrachian of the lower coal measures, the footprints are described as "hand-like, that of the fore foot five-fingered and four inches broad; that of the hind foot somewhat smaller and four-fingered," which reverses the conditions generally present on these animals as to toes and feet, and recalls the noted saurian which at one time, in the hands of an eminent palæontologist, wore its atlas on the end of its tail. The dentition of sharks, page 105, calls out the statement that "only one of the many rows of teeth is in use at one time, the others forming a reserve supply, to be drawn upon in case of accident, and, like reserves of soldiers, these are kept at the rear and lie down out of the way." This does not give a very fair idea of the matter, for the growth of teeth is continuous, new rows forming at the rear, and old ones shelling off at the front, accident or no.

Looking for our author's accepted theory of origins, one finds him to be facing in several ways. On page 91 he says protective resemblances "have been brought about, so it is believed, by elimination, by the weeding out of the more defenceless, so that the process is passive, not active"; and on page 104, "protective resemblances could hardly have originated by any other process than that of a slow weeding out of the more conspicuous individuals." By a weeding out of the unregenerate one might as well account for the different religious denominations. The author limits himself to weeding out for protection. On page 275, in accounting for evolution, he places himself on safer ground (somewhat familiar to our readers during the last twenty years), and here relies on "an inborn tendency in living things, both plants and animals, to vary and to adapt themselves to circumstances." He further says: "Changes in their surroundings—and these are ever taking place—simply allow this natural tendency a chance to act." Instead of "allow," he would better use a word like induce, stimulate, or impel. He might account for protective resemblances by an innate tendency in variation encouraged and guided by circumstances. In regard to the extinction of so many forms, Mr. Lucas concludes that "there seems to be an old age in the life of species as well as in the life of individuals, when a species, a family, or an order even, comes to an end without apparent cause, simply because its race is run."

Specimens of Middle Scots. With Introduction, Notes, and Glossary. By G. Gregory Smith, M.A. Edinburgh: Blackwood & Sons. 1902. Pp. lxxv., 374.

This volume deserves a cordial welcome, not only from special students of Scots, but from all who are interested in the earlier periods of the English language and literature. Mr. Eyre-Todd's 'Abbotsford Series' and Dr. Hand Browne's 'Early Scottish Poets' have hitherto had the field to themselves, and neither of these collections made any serious pretensions to scholarly accuracy. Mr. Gregory Smith presents here some thirty selections illustrating the most important writers from the middle of the fifteenth to the middle of the seventeenth century; the texts are carefully printed from the most authoritative sources accessible; and the notes and glossary show an acquaintance with the results of recent scholarship which has been lamentably rare in editions of Scots texts.

As the title indicates, the volume is not intended to represent Early Scots, though an appendix includes extracts from 'Ratis Raving,' 'The Bruce,' 'Lancelot of the Laik,' and 'Rauf Coilzear.' This limitation of scope is defended on the ground of the identity—so strongly insisted on by Dr. Murray—of Early Scots and Northern Middle English. Whether this identity is regarded as proved or not, there is an obvious drawback in the lack of an easily accessible group of documents illustrating the language out of which the dialect of the present extracts developed.

This limitation appears the more regrettable when one comes to examine Mr. Gregory Smith's introductory treatment of the grammar and phonology. Even as this stands, it forms the most important contribution to the subject since Dr. Murray wrote his 'Dialect of the Southern Counties of Scotland,' thirty years ago. But the absence of any systematic treatment of the sounds of Early Scots makes the purely descriptive account here given of Middle Scots phonology less intelligible and less valuable.

The discussion of the constituents of the vocabulary of the period is independent and interesting. The most notable departure from a view hitherto accepted is in the statement of the comparative importance of the French and the Latin elements. Mr. Gregory Smith attacks vigorously the misleading picture of French influence given in such works as the exceedingly uncritical 'Critical Inquiry into the Scottish Language' of M. Francisque-Michel. Conversely, he shows that, to an extent far greater than has hitherto been supposed, the Middle Scots writers supplemented their native vocabulary with words and idioms drawn directly from Latin. The sections on the Celtic and Scandinavian contributions are refreshingly free from the

faddist tendencies that have marked much of the work on these subjects.

Thus, taking the book for what it professes to be, we are able to congratulate ourselves on the appearance of a volume which at last provides a satisfactory starting-point for the systematic study of the most unjustly neglected period of English.

The Story of Athens. By Howard Crosby Butler. The Century Co.

Mr. Butler attempts to give a sketch of the life and art of Athens from its earliest beginnings to the present day. To compress "the glory that was Greece" into a volume of 500 pages is, naturally, beyond human power. Mr. Butler's "record of the life and art of the city of the violet crown read in its ruins and in the lives of great Athenians"—to quote the sub-title—is a mere outline as far as the history and literature of Athens are concerned. But he is a trained archæologist, whose main interest is architecture, and he uses his historical sketch of Athenians and Athenian enterprise as a mere thread on which to hang some very minute and interesting descriptions of the monuments in the light of excavations. They will probably be of more use to the popular reader than to the scholar, who would turn to other sources for expert information. There is, however, one feature of Mr. Butler's book that even the scholar need not despise. We refer to the numerous line drawings of the Athenian monuments of architecture; these are admirably done, and are in most cases more useful than photographs would be; but Mr. Butler reproduces also some excellent photographs of the sculptures.

There is an amusing discrepancy between Mr. Butler's scholarly precision in treating of the monuments and his purely popular handling of history. On page 215 we read, in a long, minute description of the Parthenon, that

"the intercolumniations at the four angles were narrower than those adjoining them on the ends and sides, and were spaced with special design to give greater solidity to the corners. . . . The octostyle porches made it possible to depart from the usual design for pronaos and epinaos, . . . and instead of the common form (distyle in antis) to provide broad, open, hexastyle porticos within the octostyle façades."

We quote this to show the author's care for precise detail in a question of architecture, and give, by way of contrast, an extract from a florid and purely imaginary description of an incident of the Persian invasion (p. 129):

"Before any of the rest, a crippled youth had toiled up the long, winding ascent to the Acropolis. . . . Fair-haired he was, and his fine face was bronzed by the scorching Attic sun; his eyes were full of fire, which his crooked form bade him ever suppress, and the valor of his soul almost consumed him as his heart and mind strained toward the scene of the approaching conflict. The sultry day wore on, the burning sun drove many of the watchers, one by one, to seek the shade of the temple porticos, but the youth never changed his place, nor turned his head as hour after hour passed on."

Mr. Butler naïvely admits that "this little story was told to me by an old Greek sailor whom I met one morning upon the Acropolis. I never saw him afterward, and was unable to find out where he got the story."

A future edition would be greatly improved by the omission of about 200 pages of uncritical statement. The style is marred by metaphors which, as on pages 192 and 256, are usually too long to quote. On page 484, a "bucket of devastation" is "dashed over the city." Here and there we have noted careless English; *e. g.*, page 461: "It would seem as if . . . *that* a church . . . must have grown up." "He converted into a bad Governor" (p. 494). The name of the Greek orator is twice written Issæus, which is unusual; on page 73 for Ilyssus read Ilissus. The faults of the book are the more conspicuous because of its obvious merits. If only on the ground of its illustrations and architectural descriptions, it is to be recommended to classical students who have not had the benefit of a sojourn in Athens, or have not access to archæological publications.

The Anglican Episcopate and the American Colonies. By Arthur Lyon Cross, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

The carefulness of this piece of research is vouched for by its acceptance for the writer's degree of doctor of philosophy at Harvard University and by its winning of the Toppan prize in 1899. To wide study the writer has added some skill in the presentation of his matter, though he has neglected the humorous implications of his subject where some of his ecclesiastical predecessors in the field have made much of them. An introductory chapter deals in a general way with the beginnings of episcopal control over the colonies, the only permanent results of which were the establishment of the Church of England in Virginia, and the fixing of the precedent that the diocesan control of the English plantations in North America should be vested in the Bishop of London. This precedent originated in the Stuart policy, instigated by Laud, which sought to make the English Church coextensive with English government throughout the known world. A second chapter covers the policy and work of Compton, who was Bishop of London from 1675 to 1714. He reëstablished the authority of his bishopric, which had lapsed during the period of the civil war and Commonwealth, stimulated individual enterprises of Church extension in the colonies, and instituted the custom of sending commissaries with delegated authority. But his great work was the formation of that Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, to which the present Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States owes its origin in a preëminent degree. Bishop Gibson's term, 1723-1748, was characterized by a fair trial of the commissarial system, and an absence of political intention from the general conduct of Church affairs in America. But Bishop Sherlock, who came next in order, was resolved upon the establishment of Anglican bishoprics in America. He was not the first, however, who burst into this troubled sea. Laud and one or two of the Restoration bishops made abortive attempts.

The missionaries of the S. P. G. endeavored vainly to enlist home influence in favor of the episcopal scheme. Their efforts seem to have been without political bias. This is one of Mr. Cross's findings that has controversial importance. One Dr. Johnson in America, and Bishops Secker and Sherlock in England, gave the business a political twist. In fact, Sherlock's interest in the American churches was confined to their political aspect, and to their control by Anglican bishops in residence. The Mayhew and Chauncy controversies have each a separate chapter. In these the political infusion was of the strongest kind. One does not get from Mr. Cross's pages so vivid an idea of the compliments exchanged as from those of Foote's 'Annals of King's Chapel.'

In conclusion, Mr. Cross draws out from his studies an inference unfavorable to the opinion that the attempt to impose Anglican bishops on America had an important effect in bringing about the separation of the colonies from Great Britain. In 1815 John Adams pronounced this opinion with the emphasis characteristic of his family. The effect, he said, was as certain as any in the history of North America. If Parliament could introduce bishops, it could impose the whole hierarchy and forbid dissent. Mr. Mellen Chamberlain supported this view a few years ago in an able address. Mr. Cross concedes the later political character of the episcopal controversy, but contends that the strained relations which foreboded independence strengthened the opposition to an Anglican episcopate much more than the push for this in England and America made definitely for political alienation. And he appears to make his contention good without any forcing of the note.

Syllabus of Lectures on the History of Education. With Selected Bibliographies. By Ellwood P. Cubberley. Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. 302.

This handbook is a revision of a syllabus of lectures used by the writer with a class in the history of education. It contains topical outlines of the various chapters in the history of education, and bibliographies in connection with each chapter. The former section, especially without an index, will hardly be used. A syllabus, like a notebook, is a great help to the man who makes it, but of doubtful value for anybody else. The student of the history of education should make his own outlines, and each individual will classify and divide the subject in his own way. The bibliographies, however, are of great value, and they cover the whole field of conventional education from ancient Oriental education to the nineteenth century in Europe and European influence on American education.

Our indebtedness to the author for these is so great that criticism would seem ungrateful were it not that some of the improvements indicated may be made in a future edition. The prime defect of the book is the incompleteness of the references given, as one or two concrete examples will illustrate. On page 119 the following reference is given: "Whitcomb, M.: The Autobiography of Thomas Platter," without date, place of publication, or other clue. The beginner in education will naturally suppose this refers to a book edited by Whitcomb, but he will search in vain for it. The student of education who cares to trace it, may think to look in Whitcomb's 'Source-Book of the German Renaissance,' and, if so, he will find a selection from the autobiography of this famous wandering student; but Mr. Whitcomb, so far as

the reviewer is aware, has published nothing else on Thomas Platter. On page 34 is a reference to "Nettleship, Henry: Lectures on the Republic of Plato." Here again only the special student is likely to know what is referred to. If Nettleship's famous essay on "The Theory of Education in the Republic of Plato" is meant, then the reference should be to Abbott's 'Hellenica,' in which this was published; or if a reprint, then that should be mentioned; or if a separate volume of lectures, then the date and place of publication should be given. Thirty-nine similarly defective references occur on the same page. Ziegler, whose 'Geschichte der Paedagogik' is naturally referred to again and again throughout the book, is apparently mentioned but once, and then his name is misspelled; the reference is always to Baumeister, because this history happens to form a volume in Baumeister's "Handbuch." Even in the note on page 1, Baumeister instead of Ziegler is referred to as a standard authority. Such slips raise a suspicion that much of the work may have been done by students rather than by Professor Cubberley, and in some degree depreciate the value of the book.

The author's ideal is excellent. As stated in the preface, "an attempt has been made to study the history of education as a phase of the history of civilization." From this wider point of view the bibliographies, excellent as they are, are by no means adequate. By cutting down the outlines their value would hardly be diminished, and space might be gained for references on the wider social, political, and industrial relations of education, and for a general index.

American Food and Game Fishes: A Popular Account of All the Species Found in America North of the Equator, with Keys for Ready Identification, Life Histories, and Methods of Capture. By David Starr Jordan, Ph.D., and Barton Warren Evermann, Ph.D. Doubleday, Page & Co. Small 4to, pp. 623. Illustrated.

There are good reasons why this book should do much toward diffusing knowledge of the fishes. It is profusely illustrated by figures in the text, and it has more than a hundred half-tone plates, including some in colors. The descriptive matter is generally very good; in places where somewhat deficient, it is helped out by the excellent figures. The latter, excepting the colored ones, are distributed with the text pertaining to them—a much more convenient arrangement than if placed together or in an atlas. So little being known of many species, the popular account in their cases is little more than the scientific description. The game fishes are those commonly known as such; the food fishes here depicted include many rarely or never seen in our markets. It is said there are about 3,300 known American fishes found north of Panama in the waters of North America. In our authors' words: "All of these the present writers have described in detail in a book of four volumes and 3,313 pages, called 'The Fishes of North and Middle America,' to which those who wish to study our fishes more seriously are referred." The present volume is to cover the same area, including only fishes good for food or good for sport.

Errors in spelling, some of them copied in the index, occur on various pages; for instances: "leart" in the name of "least whitefish"; "Brachydenterus" for Brachydeuterus, "Rachocheilus" for Rhacochilus, "Otraciidæ" for Ostraciidæ, "Argentinidiæ" for Argentinidæ, and others. One of the plates bears the legend, "Salmon Leaping a Falls." In the account of the Embiotocidæ (the viviparous perches), page 469, it is said that "since the discovery of their viviparity by Dr. Gibbons in 1854, these fishes have been of special interest to zoologists," and on page 472 the statement is made that Dr. A. C. Jackson "on June 7, 1852, discovered the viviparity of these fishes, and first brought the fact to the attention of Professor Louis Agassiz." The first printed notice of the viviparity of these fishes appears to be that of Prof. Louis Agassiz, November, 1853. Dr. Gibbons's publications appeared in 1854. Professor Agassiz states that his information was first received in Mr. Jackson's letter of February, 1852, from which it is evident that the June 7 referred to by the latter as the date of his discovery must have been that of 1851.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, W. J., and Spiers, R. P. The Architecture of Greece and Rome. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
Baedeker, Carl. Northern Italy. New ed. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $2.40.
Bargy, Henry. La Religion dans la Société aux Etats-Unis. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50c.
Begley, W., editor. Nova Solyma, the Ideal City; or, Jerusalem Regained. 2 vols. Scribners. $5.
Bell, Louis. The Art of Illumination. McGraw Pub. Co. $2.50.
Bennett, C. E., and Hammond, W. A. The Characters of Theophrastus. Longmans, Green & Co. 90c.
Bevan, E. R. The House of Seleucus. 2 vols. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.
Black, B. N. Primer. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Burroughs, John. Literary Values and Other Papers. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Butler, A. J. The Arab Conquest of Egypt and the Last Thirty Years of the Roman Dominion. Henry Frowde. $5.35.
Carnes, Mason. The Argonauts of Immortality. Brentano.
Chabot, Charles. La Pédagogie au Lycée. Paris: Armand Colin. 2 fr.
Chapin, Anna A. Discords. The Pelham Press (Frederick A. Stokes Co.). $1.50.
Comstock, G. C. A Text Book of Field Astronomy for Engineers. John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.
Cook, E. T. Trees and Shrubs for English Gardens. ("Country Life" Library.) Scribners. $3.75.
Cook, Mrs. E. T. Highways and Byways in London. Macmillan. $2.
Cooke, G. W. Unitarianism in America: A History of its Origin and Development. Boston: American Unitarian Association.
Cotter, J. H. Shakspeare's Art. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $1.
Coxe, H. C. Manual of French Law and Commercial Information. Brentano.
Denney, James. The Death of Christ: Its Place and Interpretation in the New Testament. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Dilke, Lady. French Engravers and Draughtsmen of the XVIIIth Century. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $10.
Douglas, Langton. A History of Siena. E. P. Dutton & Co. $6.
Ewing, Thomas, jr. Jonathan: A Tragedy. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
Frick, W. K. Henry Melchior Muhlenberg. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 40 cents.
Gardiner, Ernest. Ancient Athens. Macmillan.
Gilman, D. C.; Peck, H. T., and Colby, F. M. The New International Encyclopædia, Vol. V. Dodd, Meade & Co.
Goodrich-Freer, A. Outer Isles. E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Hovestadt, H. Jena Glass, and its Scientific and Industrial Applications. Translated by J. D. Everett and Alice Everett. Macmillan. $5.
Kroeger, Alice B. Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books. (A. L. A. Annotated Lists.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Letters of an American Countess. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 50c.
Leyland, John. Gardens Old and New. Vol. II. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $12.
Martineau, Harriet. The Peasant and the Prince. Edited by H. W. Boynton. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Matthew Arnold's Notebooks. Preface by Mrs. Wodehouse. Macmillan. $1.
Maxwell, W. H., and Johnston, Emma L. School Composition, for Use in Higher Grammar Classes. American Book Co. 50 cents.
McCabe, Joseph. St. Augustine and his Age. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Miles, Eustace. Racquets, Tennis, and Squash. D. Appleton & Co.
Millionaires of America: Caricatures by Max Cramer de Pourtalès and C. de Fornaro. The Medusa Publishing Co. $5.
Milne, W. J. Advanced Algebra for Colleges and Schools. American Book Co. $1.50.
Milton, John. Lycidas. (Flowers of Parnassus.) John Lane.
Montgomery, Madame G. de. Immortalité. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre; New York: Brentano.
My First Year's Work: An Actual Experience. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 25 cents.
Pitman, Lelia W. Stories of Old France. American Book Co. 60c.
Poetical Works of John Keats. Edited by W. S. Scott. Revised by George Sampson. Macmillan.
Pyle, Katharine. Stories of Humble Friends. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Robertson, L. A. Beyond the Requiems, and Other Verses. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.
Rodd, Rennell. Myrtle and Oak. Boston: Forbes & Co. $1.
Rogers, J. E. T. A History of Agriculture and Prices in England. Vol. VII. (2 parts). Henry Frowde.
Royer, C. C. General History Way-Marks. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 65 cents.
Sayce, A. H. The Religions of Ancient Egypt and Babylonia. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Shorthouse, J. H. John Inglesant: A Romance. 3 vols. New ed. Macmillan. $9.
Shück, H. Mediæval Stories. Translated by W. F. Harvey. London: Sands & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Simonds, W. E. A Student's History of English Literature. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Smith, Samuel. My Life-Work. London: Hodder & Stoughton. 5s.
Songs of the Veld, and Other Poems. London: The New Age Press. 1s.
Storm, Theodor. Immensee. (Translated by Bertha M. Schimmelfennig.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 20 cents.
Sumichrast, F. C. de. The Works of Théophile Gautier. Vols. xxi. and xxii. George D. Sproul.
Tozer, H. F. Dante, La Divina Commedia: Notes on Inferno. Henry Frowde.
"Ubique." Modern Warfare, or, How Our Soldiers Fight. Thomas Nelson & Sons. $2.50.
Walouer, Richard. How to Tell Character by Handwriting. Peter Eckler.
Weber, C. O. The Chemistry of India Rubber. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $5.50.
Who's Who, 1903. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Willcock, John. The Great Marquess: Life and Times of Archibald, 8th Earl and 1st (and only) Marquess of Argyle (1607-1661). Scribners. $2.50.

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"Thackeray or Bret Harte . . . . . would, in all probability, have gladly taken him into their company."—*Tribune.*

Borrowed Plumes.

By Owen Seaman. Parodies of the work of the "Elizabeths" of *The German Garden* and of *The Visits*, Hall Caine, Marie Corelli, Hewlett, Stephen Phillips, etc., etc. *Second Impression.* $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 29, 1903.

The Week.

The latest news concerning the Venezuelan dispute betokens a peaceful settlement and an early raising of the blockade. For this result all the parties concerned should be congratulated, but none more so than the Government and people of the United States. The happy turn of affairs has doubtless been hastened by the adverse comment of the press of both Europe and America on the German bombardment of San Carlos, and the attempted justification of it by Chancellor von Bülow. Regarded as a method of maintaining German prestige, that attack upon a mud fort and a collection of naked fishermen must be regarded as a failure. It appears now that Minister Bowen came to Washington with full powers to settle the controversy, and it will probably turn out that this fact was known in Berlin before any guns were fired at San Carlos. Possibly it was not known to the German Admiral, possibly the Venezuelans fired the first shot; but the event has left the impression on the minds of impartial observers that Germany wanted to show what her navy could do, and that she chose an inauspicious time for making that demonstration.

Settlement with Colombia of the question of American rights in the Panama Canal territory brings considerably nearer the date when, if the treaty be duly ratified in the Senate, payment must be made to the Panama stockholders. This matter has already created great interest in Wall Street, where curiosity converges on the question in what form the payment will be made, and exactly how it will be provided for. The arrangement with the French owners of the franchise contemplates, as is well known, outright payment of $40,000,000 to them at Paris. This money, so far as now appears, will be taken from the Treasury surplus, of which $149,882,000 is now held in the Government's own vaults, offset by $86,792,000 immediate liabilities, while an additional $142,921,000 stands in the national banks subject to the Treasury's check. These sums, it will be seen, are quite sufficient to provide for a $40,000,000 payment, and it is safe to say that the suggestion of an issue of Government bonds to provide the money will get no hearing. Indeed, the $40,000,000 for the purchase was formally appropriated by Congress, at the close of the last session.

What chiefly interests the money market, however, is the question whether the remittance in question, with the $10,000,000 due to Colombia, will or will not be taken from the general money market; that is to say, whether exchange on London or Paris will be bought with cash from the Treasury's own vaults, or with checks on the depositary banks. It would seem, in view of the Treasury's recent declaration that its cash holdings had fallen nearly to a "working minimum," that the bank deposits would be used. The still more interesting question, from the financial point of view, whether the payment would or would not involve large shipments of gold to Paris, is not so easy to answer. Such payments do not always drain a market of its gold. The $1,000,000,000 German indemnity claim on France, after the war of 1870, is a classic case in point. This huge payment, though provided by loans from the thrifty French people, was actually made, for the most part, in bills of exchange on other countries. Apparently, France had created so huge a credit fund elsewhere, through transfer of its own investment capital during the war, that it was able to draw on the English market for the gold. On the other hand, our own payment of $20,000,000 at Paris, during 1899, in settlement with Spain for the Philippine cession, went, to all practical purposes, in gold. The formal payment, it is true, was made in bills of exchange without coincident gold exports. But the very heavy demand for foreign remittances, during April, forced up the sterling market to a figure which resulted, two months later, in the export of almost exactly $20,000,000 gold to Europe.

From what has been given out of the treaty for determining the Alaskan boundary, it appears to be another triumph for Mr. Hay's diplomacy. The clause which assures to the United States all the coast settlements already in existence in the disputed territory, will hardly be popular in Canada. For this includes Skaguay, at the head of the Lynn Canal, and lessens the likelihood that Canada will gain the desired access to the Pacific. Still, this condition of the negotiation is fair to both parties, for Skaguay was settled at a time when American possession of the Lynn Canal had not been seriously questioned. The plan for a commission of six, three Americans and three British, has at first sight the disadvantage that the court may divide evenly and no decision be reached. It should rather be taken as an indication of the friendly spirit in which the investigation is to be conducted. Either nation is in the position of assuming that the representatives of the other are open to conviction. The practical difficulty arising from the lack of an umpire is likely to be small, for the boundary commission will not be precisely in the position of a court which must accept or reject *in toto* the entire claim of one or the other party to the suit. It will rather review the whole question and settle it in equity. It will concern itself rather with the Alaskan coast line, as it is now known to be, than with what the Russians of the thirties or the Canadians of the nineties have thought about that littoral. The boundary affair is, in the main, a very simple one, though somewhat obscured by national prejudices on either side. It is matter of rejoicing that this long dispute is now likely to be adjusted by direct and friendly negotiations.

Congressman Hill of Connecticut carried his point on Thursday by defeating the currency bill reported by the House Philippine Committee, and substituting a measure which establishes the gold standard in the islands, with a subsidiary coinage of limited legal tender, redeemable in gold at the rate of two pesos for one American dollar. The substitute provides that the money of the United States shall be legal tender in the Philippines, and declares the coinage laws of the United States to be in full force there. It provides for the redemption of the Mexican and Spanish silver (not including any Mexican pesos imported into the islands after March 15, 1903) at their bullion value, as declared from time to time by the Philippine Commission. After six months no coin except that of the United States shall be full legal tender, but with the proviso that all debts, except those otherwise provided for in the contract, owing on the date when the act shall take effect or contracted within six months thereafter, shall be payable in the silver coins now in circulation in the Philippine Islands or in the lawful money of the United States at the rate of exchange prescribed at the time by the Philippine Commission. As there is no silver of full legal tender provided for, the limping standard will not be introduced. The vote on the adoption of Mr. Hill's substitute was 146 to 128.

It is a very queer story that comes from Washington implying that the Senate's Philippine currency bill is part of a scheme for a kind of Latin Monetary Union, including Mexico, China, the Straits Settlements, and the Philippines, in order to do something for silver. How this end is to be accomplished is not stated, and we fancy that it will not make much headway in the world until somebody can write down the *modus ope-*

randi and point out the consequences of each step to be taken. To all persons who think that a union of different countries to regulate their monetary affairs on a common basis and by concerted action is feasible, we recommend a study of Professor Willis's 'History of the Latin Monetary Union.' They will there find ample proof of the futility of such attempts. If it be said that this Washington plan is entirely different from the one whose mishaps are so faithfully and minutely chronicled by Professor Willis, then let us have the Washington plan formulated by somebody who knows what it is. At present it is too cloudy for intelligent criticism.

The discussion in the Senate on Saturday upon the Indianola post-office case undoubtedly marks the revival of a series of debates upon the race relations in the South, which probably will become one of the leading issues of the next Congress. The question of the disfranchisement of the negroes is certain to come before the next House by means of contested election cases. The standing of the whole Virginia representation must be passed upon by the House Elections Committees. The perennial motion for the reduction of the South's representation in Congress is also soon to be heard from, while the hubbub about negro office-holding is bound to continue as long as President Roosevelt declines to "shut the door of hope" to aspiring and qualified negro candidates for Government positions. Reduction of representation the Southern States will probably accept without demur, rather than give up their present unrepublican Constitutions. As long as men like McLaurin and Tillman continue to represent the South, it is useless to expect that any just demand for equality of opportunity for the negro can ever obtain a hearing. To this the Tillman reply is simply, "Kill." The whole subject is beclouded, too, by the fear of negro domination, just as the ante-bellum South was nightly terrorized by fears of slave insurrections. In the Indianola case, Senator Spooner's citations from the executive documents showed conclusively that the postmistress was forced to resign by a mass meeting of white citizens, who could find no other ground for fault-finding than the color of her skin, and were working in the interests of a Republican candidate for the office.

It seems cruel to mention it, but Senator Hoar is evidently falling hopelessly behind the times. It is all very well for him to have conscientious Constitutional views about the prerogatives of the Senate and of Congress in its relations with the President, but he ought to know that nowadays nobody pays any attention to little things like these. What up-to-date member of the Senate or House cares for the prerogatives of Congress so long as his local bill or his legislative scheme goes through? Old fellows like Senator Hoar will have to get used to the new methods. There was a time, even at Albany, while Mr. Roosevelt was Governor, when some faint protests were heard against executive pressure upon the Legislature. Gov. Roosevelt was something of a rough rider in matters of prerogative when he was at Albany, we may tell Senator Hoar, but they had to make the best of it. It was he, for instance, who took the emergency message down from the dignified shelf where the Constitutional Convention clearly intended to place it, and converted it into a ready instrument for passing legislation, local and otherwise, like greased lightning, *sans* printing, *sans* debate, *sans* everything. Senator Hoar evidently does not yet know what it means to have a young and enthusiastic President.

Senator Hanna is certainly loyal to his friends, even when the latter are disreputable. He has now come forward to the rescue of Addicks. In his official capacity as Chairman of the Republican National Committee, he telegraphs to the Regular Republicans in the Delaware Legislature that he hopes they will never stoop so low as to vote for an honest Democrat in order to prevent the success of a Republican corruptionist. The Republican party, he declares, is "entitled to the fruits of victory," and the fact that they are rotten fruits does not trouble Mr. Hanna in the least. He has done what he could to disgrace both Delaware and the United States Senate. Apparently, the honorable compromise offered by the Delaware Democrats is to be rejected. There is no sign, however, that Addicks, even with Hanna's help, can win over enough votes to be elected. So the best prospect for the State at present is that it will go unrepresented. Better that, *pace* Senator Hanna, than to go dishonored.

All organs of public opinion in Congress, the press, and the bar ought to take notice of the Doblin-Quigg case at Washington, and not allow it to pass off as a mystery, still less as a matter for jest or sarcasm. It is perfectly certain that perjury has been committed of a peculiarly brazen and damaging kind. It is probable that corruption of a Congressman was attempted, in order to get money from the public treasury. Moreover, the dignity and authority of Congress have been insulted and flouted in the most glaring manner. If such things can be done without somebody going to the penitentiary, there is not much use in having laws and a system of jurisprudence. Whatever we may think of Quigg or of Lessler, there cannot be two opinions about Doblin. This fellow went before a committee of Congress, in response to a legal summons, and swore that Quigg authorized him to offer $5,000 to Congressman Lessler for his support of a bill to buy torpedo boats. At the very next meeting of the Committee he swore that his former statement was false, and that he had been induced by Lessler to make the former statement. Thus he acknowledged that he had committed perjury, and accused Lessler of subornation of perjury. Doblin ought to have been arrested before he left the committee room, even though his counsel promised to produce him when wanted. The offence he had committed was too grave, the insult he had offered to the highest authority in the land—the very source of low and justice—was too shocking to be tolerated or neglected for a moment. Quigg will probably escape the clutches of the law, for nobody can now believe anything that Doblin says, whether for or against him.

Gov. Odell is said to have been too busy to see Superintendent McCullagh when that worthy called to present his annual report at Albany on Thursday. The Superintendent's term of office has expired, and it is understood that he seeks reappointment. We trust that, however busy he may be, the Governor will find time to look up McCullagh's record as head of the Metropolitan Bureau of Elections before he makes up his mind to reappoint him, and also to read carefully the various statements, all bearing the earmarks of authenticity, which the Superintendent is reported to have made, and has not denied making, since the submarine boat scandal came out in Washington. What deduction must the Governor draw from the Superintendent's assertion that Mr. Lessler conceded his election to be due largely to McCullagh's use of the election machinery? Is it true, then, that he has been, as Democrats have charged, a mere annex of the Republican machine? Is he using his office and his deputies to pack primaries and control elections? And, having done this, has he been trading upon the gratitude of his beneficiaries to get them to vote for schemes in which his "particular friends" are interested? There is certainly an appearance of this. The wisdom of keeping him in his place might well have been questioned after the exhibitions of childishness and folly which he gave previous to the last election, with his indiscriminate and unwarranted challenges throughout the city, but this is as nothing compared with his course as revealed by his recent statements. A proposal to abolish the bureau would be worth serious consideration. It certainly would be better to abolish it than to permit McCullagh to remain at its head.

Gov. Pennypacker of Pennsylvania treads softly in his message to the Legislature. There are many excellent reflections in his first State paper, indicating philosophic habits of thought and scholarly attainments; but one searches it in vain for one bold word directed against the political abuses which have made the name of Pennsylvania a by-word among the States. One terrible evil, it is true, he does allude to feelingly: "There is no more dangerous public vice," he declares, "than the prevalent affectation of disrespect for those engaged in the performance of the work of the cities, the State, and the nation." This evidently means Ashbridge, Durham, Quay, and the rest. The Governor has no intention of falling into this "prevalent affectation," but, on the contrary, promises to consult and confer "with all who have facts to impart or conclusions to present, especially those who, in common parlance, are called politicians." How Quay must smile when he reads this rubbish! Passing from so gloomy a discussion as that of public disrespect to such high dignitaries as Quay and Durham, Gov. Pennypacker has a word to say about Pennsylvania products profiting foreign markets. "While it is a satisfaction to see libraries in England and universities in Chicago being erected from the outcome of the iron and oil of Pennsylvania, due primarily to her liberality," says the Governor, "we may be pardoned a feeling of regret that so much of the wealth of her production is controlled and utilized elsewhere." That this is the stern logic of the Pennsylvania protectionist, who will deny?

If any one had a lingering hope that Gov. Pennypacker might yet indicate some desire to better political conditions in Pennsylvania, it must now have received its death-blow. If Pennsylvania is ever to be raised from the low estate into which she has fallen under the domination of Quay and his gang, the first step must be a reform of the ballot law. This is common knowledge in Pennsylvania, and is indeed so patent that both parties, in their platforms last year, promised modern registration laws and other measures to prevent frauds on election day. The necessity for such enactments, moreover, was rendered more clear than ever before by the very election which made Judge Pennypacker Governor. The most barefaced frauds in Philadelphia were exposed by the election figures. We quoted at the time the returns from several Philadelphia wards where, according to the official tables, the total vote more than doubled that of the year before, the increase being made up wholly of alleged Republican votes. Of course, no such votes were ever cast. Surely, with his party platform before him, Gov. Pennypacker should have had the scant courage required to say something about these frauds. But not a word does he utter. He does say that the present law is "cumbersome and inefficient," and suggests that it be changed, but he hastens to add that "the thought that something ought to be done by means of the law to encourage independent voting and to make it difficult to vote a full party ticket is mere vicious theorizing." What can the cause of decent government hope from a man, however respectable his antecedents, who thus exhibits himself on his entrance into office?

Corporations are not alone in using a million-dollar yardstick. The latest financial exhibit of the United Mine Workers of America, presented at the annual session in Indianapolis, amply explains how that organization could support the long strike of last summer. Manifestly, the old plan of starving out strikers cannot avail against an organization, which, after expending nearly $2,000,000 in strike aid, ended or suspended the conflict with over $1,000,000 in the war chest. There is a not obscure menace in those figures, as well. An organization thus financially buttressed is in a fair condition to renew the struggle, if its members are so inclined. Plainly, such a financial power has to be reckoned with, and as long as such a huge fund is in sight, it is idle to expect disintegration of the Mine-Workers' Union.

A Mount Vernon saloon which dispensed the beer of the Central Federated Union was recently "cleaned out" by representatives of the National Union of the United Brewer Workers. This same doubly united body has also declared a boycott against one of our city brewers. The grievance in the latter case is that the employer will not force his men to resign from the local union to which they already belong, and make them join the United Brewer Workers. The lot of an employer under these circumstances is an unhappy one. He cannot consult his customer's thirst or his own profit until some higher power has decided which of two sorts of union beer is alone authentic and vouched for by organized labor. Instances like this of squabbling unions continue to show how far the labor movement still is from that sobriety and wisdom which it must attain if it is to gain public respect and confidence. What will become in bad times of organizations which, having professedly common aims, cannot in good times agree upon common action? In the present case it is encouraging to note that President Gompers of the American Federation of Labor has declared the boycott to be unauthorized.

Mr. Brett, the President of the Macmillan Company, protests, in a letter to the *Evening Post*, against a new ruling of the Appraiser's Department of the Custom-house. Under former practice, the duties on imported books were assessed on their actual cost in the foreign market. Under the new ruling they are to be assessed on their average price in the foreign market, if it is higher than the actual price paid by the American importer. This ruling breaks up an established trade of long duration, since prices of certain lines of foreign books which are regularly imported have become fixed, but they cannot be sold at those prices under the new ruling. Moreover, the foreign publisher, when he discovers that the Custom-house has raised the price of his books by a certain percentage, raises his selling price by the same amount, so that the new ruling operates to the advantage of the foreign seller and to the disadvantage of the American buyer. Among all the exasperating devices invented to cripple trade and to lead Americans to execrate their own Custom-house, this is perhaps the least defensible, since it has the excuse of neither revenue nor protection. The Government does not need the extra money; on the contrary, it needs relief from its surplus. And, as Mr. Brett shows, the doctrine of protection is in no way concerned in the matter. It is true, however, that the law warrants the appraiser in taking this step.

President Sharpless of Haverford has polled the college presidents on the subject of football, and brings out a complete unanimity of opinion. All agree that the plunging mass plays should be abolished, and the rules changed to favor agility rather than brute strength. The presidents in council differ only as to who is to be the one to begin. This is a matter of complete indifference. There is nothing easier than to bell the football cat. Let any president of one of the great universities say to the Committee on Rules, which is soon to meet, that his institution will not be allowed to engage in intercollegiate contests until the present rules have been radically modified. If President Eliot, for example, should take this stand, the reform of the game would be brought about promptly, for very slight changes would deprive football of its present appearance of a mêlée and restore the more open play of fifteen years ago. Let the Committee on Rules increase to ten yards the distance which the ball must be advanced in four "downs," and the present short rushes, which are uninteresting to the spectator and dangerous to the player, would disappear. Forbid more than four men to play behind the line, and the present crushing "tandems" and "formations" would be impossible. These simple changes would bring back bold running and frequent kicking—always the most attractive features of football, and of old the very reason of its existence.

THE COLOMBIAN TREATY.

By bringing the negotiations for the Panama Canal to a successful close, Secretary Hay has gained a notable advantage for the country and new laurels for himself. His task was in any case one of great delicacy. It had become doubly difficult because of recent intervention by American marines on the Isthmus in a way to ruffle the sensibilities of the Colombian Republic. Any mishandling of the canal negotiations might have put off to the Greek kalends the transfer of the French concession to us. The manner in which Mr. Hay has reconciled the just pride of the owners of the Isthmus with the necessary preponderance of ourselves as owners of the prospective canal, is highly honorable. The Hay-Herran treaty, then, stands not only as a model of successful business negotiation, but also as a striking instance of fair, open, magnanimous, and conciliatory dealing with a weaker Power. The result is even better than had been looked for. After the long dispute over the annual rental to be paid to Colombia for the right of way, it was commonly supposed that reference to a commission or court of arbitration would be necessary to determine the amount. Such a proceeding, however, was full of danger, since the inevitable delay would infuse new life into the Nicaragua project, and might put an end to the Panama bargain altogether. The temper of Congress on this subject was very uncertain, and although the Canal Commission was more and more inclined to the opinion that a canal in Nicaragua was impracticable, the House of Representatives was strongly committed to the opposite belief. The danger incident to an arbitration having been passed, there is nothing to wait for except the Senate's ratification of the agreement.

The treaty grants an exclusive franchise for the canal for one hundred years, renewable at the sole and absolute option of the United States so long as the United States may desire, in consideration of the payment of $10,000,000 down and an annual payment of $250,000. The annual payments are to begin nine years after the date of the ratification of the treaty. The neutrality of the canal is declared to be perpetual, according to the terms of the Hay-Pauncefote Convention of 1901. This includes the right of all nations to use the canal without discrimination in tolls or otherwise. The right of the United States to land troops for the protection of the canal is conceded in cases where the Government of Colombia fails to afford such protection. General sovereignty over the zone of the canal is reserved to Colombia, but the United States is authorized to establish judicial tribunals in said zone, which shall have exclusive jurisdiction of all controversies therein between citizens of the United States, or between them and citizens of any foreign nation other than the republic of Colombia. Provision is made also for joint tribunals to have criminal jurisdiction of offences committed within the zone, and in admiralty cases. The treaty seems to have been drawn with the utmost care and in the spirit of perfect fairness. It would be difficult to point out any feature to which reasonable exception could be taken. The time for ratification expires September 22, 1903. If the present session of Congress should expire before ratification is voted on (which ought to be impossible), a special session of the Senate would doubtless be called by the President to complete the transaction.

Due acknowledgment should be made to the republic of Colombia for its jurisdictional concession, seeing that all the Spanish-American countries are extremely sensitive on this subject. Exemption from local jurisdiction granted to citizens of Christian countries resident in Mohammedan countries and in some other non-Christian lands goes by the name of extra-territoriality. This is not exactly what Colombia grants to us, since citizens of the United States residing in Colon, or anywhere in Colombia outside of the canal zone, are subject to the Colombian tribunals exclusively. The concession is limited strictly to the canal zone, but it is all that we could ask.

We are sure that this treaty will be heartily welcomed by the American people. We believe, too, that the best possible bargain, if not the only possible one, has been made to insure an interoceanic canal. It is the growing opinion of engineers, both official and unofficial, that De Lesseps was right when he chose the Panama route in preference to all others. If the Panama line is the most economical, both for construction and for operation, we have made a great bargain in getting the concession and property of the French Company for $40,000,000, which cost them many times that amount, and is now worth more than that to us, even if much money was wasted under the De Lesseps management. We may now for the first time look forward to the realization of hopes which have been entertained for three-quarters of a century, that the isthmus will be pierced and made available for the ships of all nations within a computable time. The period named in the treaty for the beginning of work on the canal proper is two years, and for its completion twelve years, with a proviso for accidents and unforeseen obstacles.

LATEST ASPECTS OF THE CUBAN TREATY.

The exclusion clause added to the Cuban treaty by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations provides that "no sugar, the product of any other foreign country, shall be admitted by treaty or convention into the United States, while this convention is in force, at a lower rate of duty than that provided by the tariff act of the United States approved July 24, 1897." The clause in this form avoids an embarrassment which might arise in case Congress should deem it advisable, at some time during the next five years, to reduce or repeal the duty on sugar. It does not tie the hands of Congress and the President in their legislative capacity, but does undertake to tie the hands of President and Senate as to treaty-making. If the Cuban treaty goes into effect, we pledge ourselves not to offer as good terms to any other sugar-producing country during five years. It is conceivable that the Democrats may carry the next Presidential election. It is possible that even a Republican President and Senate may find reasons for offering to Germany or France, in the way of reciprocity, the same terms that we now offer to Cuba, but they will not be able to do so. We do not marvel that Democratic Senators, who have heretofore favored reciprocity with Cuba, look with suspicion upon this clause, and all the more since it was not a part of the treaty as it came from the hands of the negotiators.

There has been some debate in the German Reichstag lately on the American interpretation of the most-favored-nation clause, and an understanding has been reached that Germany shall construe it in her dealings with us in the same way that we interpret it in our dealings with her. This, it should be remarked, is not a new decision on the part of Germany. Professor Moore of Columbia University has pointed out, in a discussion of this subject, that Germany recognized and assented to the American interpretation in a treaty which she made with Hawaii in 1879. She then agreed that special advantages in trade or navigation granted by one nation to another, in exchange for equivalent advantages, did not bring the most-favored-nation clause into operation as regards any third party. This has been the contention of the United States since 1817, when John Quincy Adams, as Secretary of State, formulated it in a note to the French Minister at Washington. Any gratuitous advantage given to one nation must be given immediately and *ipso facto* to any other which is sheltered by the favored-nation clause, and it can be claimed in return. But favors granted by treaty in the way of bargain for favors received do not come within this category.

The next question that presents itself is whether a country, A, acting under the most-favored-nation clause with B, is bound, when it gives special favors to C for a consideration, to offer the same to B for a like consideration. Good faith would seem to require such action. It may happen, however, that B is not able to give the same favors that C has

offered. B may not be the producer of similar goods, or she may have given previously and without consideration everything she had in the way of trading capital. That is England's position now. The most-favored-nation clause, as now interpreted, has nothing of value for her, and she can recover her rights under it only by building a tariff wall of her own, and lowering it here and there according to the bargains she may be able to make with other countries. There is a strong suspicion that it is the aim of her present Colonial Secretary to introduce that policy.

Germany, however, is not thus hampered. She has not given away her trading capital in advance. She announces that if the most-favored-nation clause is to be annulled by interpretation, so be it. She will admit the cereals of Russia and Hungary at a minimum tariff in exchange for their minima on other things, and then she will extend the same favors to us, not by virtue of the most-favored-nation clause, but by way of bargain. That will be perfectly fair, and we could not complain. So we come together to see how we can place ourselves on the footing of the most-favored-nations as an exporter of grain to Germany. The latter would be apt to ask for the admission of her sugar at our ports at the same rate of duty as that of Cuban sugar in return for suitable concessions to our grain or other exports. Here, perhaps, we run against a clause in our treaty with Cuba which binds us for five years not to make any concessions on sugar to Germany, no matter what consideration is offered in return.

Germany would be justified in considering this a violation of both the letter and the spirit of the most-favored-nation clause, since it takes from her the opportunity of recovering her trade footing with the United States by offering equivalent advantages. The case with Great Britain is much the same. Her West Indian colonies are entitled to as good treatment as we give to Cuba, and, considering how much we owe to England in connection with the war which set Cuba free from Spain, we ought not to shut and double-lock the door against Jamaica, Guiana, etc., as is proposed in this new clause of the Cuban treaty. It would be interesting to know what the controlling motive for this clause is. No tariff bill ever passes Congress without a private job in it, either concealed or open. The Cuban treaty is a tariff bill on a small scale. Perhaps an agreement has been made between the domestic and the Cuban sugar interests to divide the American market for five years to the exclusion of all other producers.

HERRING, LODGE, AND THE TREATY.

The herring are those that are smuggled into Massachusetts ports from Newfoundland; Lodge is the Massachusetts Senator under whose nose the smuggling is done; the treaty is, of course, the Hay-Bond treaty, which would turn the traffic in contraband herring into an honest industry. Our attention was called to the matter by an observation in a contemporary. Commenting on the statement made by a representative of the fish trade, that the passage of the Hay-Bond treaty would mean the loss of hundreds of thousands of revenue, the *Syren and Shipping* remarked tartly that, if this were so, the loss would be no greater than it had been for years past. The saying seemed dark to us—nay, mathematically impossible—but we had sufficient confidence in our well-informed contemporary to look up the whole matter of the Newfoundland coast fisheries. The results of this investigation show, in brief, that the winter herring entered free at Gloucester and Boston by American "fishermen" are bought of the Newfoundlanders, and hence are subject to duty; that free entry is secured by perjury; finally, that the Government winks at this illicit trade.

The methods of the herring smugglers may be thus succinctly set forth: Undermanned schooners ply from the New England ports to the coast of Newfoundland. There they buy herring of the natives at the legal rate of $1.25 a barrel; these herring are by false affidavits represented as "the product of American fisheries." The more scrupulous perjurers in the trade keep an old net, or even a boat that floats, on the Newfoundland coast. Some even send a sailor to watch the Newfoundlanders draw the herring nets. In these various ways they maintain the fiction that the fish are "taken by American vessels" assisted "by men and nets hired in a foreign port." Generally, however, no attempt is made to keep up the pretence of a fishing industry, and the trade is conducted for what it is—a trade. The loss to our customs is conservatively estimated at upwards of $125,000 a year.

How this open and organized smuggling has become an institution in the protectionist State of Massachusetts it would be interesting to inquire. It will surprise no one that the clause which puts American-caught Newfoundland herring on the free list, is found imbedded in the paragraph on "oils" in the Dingley Act (Sec. 626). But it will be surprising to learn that the winter-herring trade has been for years "protected" at Washington, that the Collector of the Port of Boston was in 1898 virtually reprimanded for enforcing the law in the case of the herring fishermen, and bidden to follow the benevolent "practice of the port of Gloucester." It may seem strange, too, that an easy form of affidavit (omitting the pregnant words of a previous Treasury decision—"fish taken by an American vessel") was supplied by the Treasury Department with a view to avoiding any undue strain upon the consciences of the North Shore and fish freighters. It would be interesting to know why all the political influence of the "banner" protectionist State has been exerted to facilitate the trade in contraband herring—and we suggest that the question be referred to Senator Lodge. Not that we think he knows what his smuggling supporters have been about, but first because he has for years, unwittingly as we must believe, played their game for them; and, second, because he has exceptional opportunities for ascertaining the truth, being able to whiff the contraband herring from his Nahant residence.

Will not some protectionist Senator from a State which has no organized smuggling industry of its own, or, failing that, a Democrat, put the following questions to Senator Lodge:

> "(1.) Why was a special report, ordered by the Treasury in 1896, which thoroughly exposed the fraudulent nature of the winter-herring trade, suppressed and no action taken?
>
> "(2.) Through what influence was the clause 'other articles the products of such fisheries' (*i. e.*, oil fisheries) in the McKinley Bill interpreted by the Treasury to mean herring?
>
> "(3.) Who brought it about that fifty cases begun in 1897 by the United States against 'fishermen' who had presented fraudulent manifests were terminated by an order of nolle prosequi?
>
> "(4.) Why did the Treasury Department in 1898 forbid the Boston Custom-house to enforce United States law, substituting therefor 'the long-established practice of the port of Gloucester'?
>
> "(5.) What reason had the Treasury, in issuing the order of 1898, to assume that Congress had 'full knowledge of the facts' of herring smuggling? Assuming this, why should the Treasury have taken it for granted that a protectionist Congress would wink at a particular kind of smuggling simply because it was 'the practice of the port of Gloucester'?"

If Senator Lodge should answer these questions gladly, the inquirer might be encouraged further to use his Senatorial courtesy and to ask:

> "Should a scholar in politics and a high priest of protectionism let himself be used by a pack of hardy smugglers? And should this same hierophant of the protectionist idea oppose any motion to make the honest import trade easier, until he has made the dishonest import trade in his own State harder?"

There are various ways in which Senator Lodge might answer these questions. He might, for example, draw the red herring of evasion across the trail of honest inquiry. But the most effective way to answer such questions would be to come out strongly for the Hay-Bond treaty, to speak for it, and work for it. This treaty, by removing the duty on Newfoundland herring, would make honest traders of all the herring smugglers in Mr. Lodge's vicinity. It is one of the very rare instances in which virtue may be imposed as by act of Congress, and the opportunity should not be neglected. Furthermore, the Hay-Bond treaty, by offering better bait and port facilities in Newfoundland, will do

much to further the real American fisheries of the Banks. On the contrary, if Senator Lodge and his fellow protectionists defeat the treaty, Newfoundland will undoubtedly retaliate in a way disastrous both to the heroic Banks fishermen and to their thrifty brethren of the winter-herring boats. In view of these facts Senator Lodge should feel that in putting him between the Newfoundland herring and the Newfoundland treaty we have only put him in his proper place, and merely indicated his proper responsibility.

WORKING THROUGH THE FILIPINOS.

So recently was Emilio Aguinaldo a contemptible revolutionist, a ridiculous fugitive, a man who had sold his country for gold and prated of a liberty which he could not understand, that it is surprising to find him now gravely quoted in the Imperialist press as an authority upon things Philippine. Yet this is what the War Department has brought about by giving out his carefully prepared views upon the terrible conditions now prevailing in the archipelago. Not only Mr. Root, but the President, seems to be anxious lest Congress adjourn without appropriating the three millions asked to keep the Filipinos from starvation. The House has not yet concerned itself with the matter. In order to induce Congress to act, therefore, Aguinaldo himself is cited to confirm Gov. Taft's sad picture of the straits to which our Filipino wards are reduced. A "remarkable presentation" is the way the *Tribune* describes Aguinaldo's petition, yet not one whit more remarkable than the fact of its seeing the light of day by grace of the same War Department which, five years ago, had no ears for anything that Aguinaldo or his countrymen might say.

We welcome this action of the War Department as a hopeful sign of a changed attitude on its part towards the Filipinos. The entire country is now in a better frame of mind to judge them and their aspirations fairly. The bitter feelings engendered by a needless and cruel war have begun to disappear, and with them an endless number of misconceptions and misunderstandings. There is an apparently growing desire to work through the Filipinos themselves in our efforts to restore the islands to the state of prosperity in which we found them in 1898. The War Department could, of course, never have intended to lend its sanction to Aguinaldo's intricate scheme for the relief of the suffering islanders. Even were it in sympathy with his particular plan, it would not venture to ask so much of this Congress as a careful and scientific consideration of the whole insular situation. It is rather, we take it, a desire to let Congressmen look at the problem through a Filipino's eyes that has moved Mr. Root to publish Aguinaldo's statement. Such a step would not have been thought of even two years ago. The growing tolerance elsewhere was well illustrated the other evening by Senator Dolliver's remark at a dinner in this city, that "the best thing that we had ever got out of the Philippines was the fact that we were getting out." Surely this utterance of a Republican Senator would have been high treason in 1900.

It is very likely that a perusal of the Philippine Commission's annual report had something to do with the War Department's action. In his summary of the situation as it presented itself on November 1, Gov. Taft bears strong testimony to the Filipinos who have been given high office. "The native governors, on the whole," he says, "have proven to be quite satisfactory. They take great pride in their provinces, and, with the exception of two or three who seem to be listless and fearful of making enemies, they are exerting all their influence, which is very great among the people, to foster industry and law-abiding habits." Gov. Taft believes that it will not be necessary to remove more than two or three. Surely, a people of which this can be said within a year after the cessation of a devastating war, may claim to be well along the road to self-government. Indeed, Gov. Taft's praise recalls the very complimentary things said about the Filipino Congress by John Barrett and other American observers in the summer and fall of 1898.

The work of Filipino officials is praised in other parts of the Philippine report. Of Col. Tecson, recently an insurgent leader and now Governor of Bulacan, it is said that he has organized and led a volunteer force so effectively that his province bids fair to be freer from lawlessness than ever before in its history. For the police of Manila it was found advisable to enlist many prominent insurgent leaders. It is reported now that the present efficiency of the native police is very largely due to the work of these men, against whose appointment there was at first a great outcry from the American press in Manila. As far as the provincial governments are concerned, it would appear that Governor Taft has been eminently justified in putting responsibility upon Filipinos as fast as possible.

In a recent paper read before the British Colonial Institute, Mr. Hugh Clifford called attention to the very great success achieved by the British administrators in the Malay Peninsula. Here a few officers have acquired the confidence of the Sultans, induced them to maintain order, prevailed upon them to use civilized methods of taxation, ended violence and interstate wars, and generally improved conditions, always by working through the natives and not, as in India, by means of a large body of English officials. As the *Spectator* has pointed out, this Malayan plan, which it properly calls the indirect method of governing a subject people, has many advantages. The state careers are left open to the natives; the governing class, as well as the toilers, is improved, and there is no dead level produced by the presence of a class of foreign office-holders. Furthermore, nothing characteristic of the native race is crushed out. This is the only proper way for the United States to do its work of rebuilding in the Philippines, with this distinction, that it should always keep before itself a higher ideal than England has set herself in Malaya or anywhere else—retirement from the archipelago within a very short time. If the War Department and Governor Taft are beginning to plan for the Filipinos along lines like these, their future is one of great promise, despite their present grievous plight.

THE NATION VS. INDIANOLA.

Last Saturday's debate in the Senate served to clear up the point really at issue in the case of the closed post-office at Indianola, Miss. It is only incidentally a question of the civil rights of the negro. Color prejudice and race exclusions enter into the matter merely by a side door. The challenge which the President took up was an unmistakable challenge of the national supremacy. What he had to answer was the question, so sharply put to him, whether he would allow an irresponsible mass-meeting in a small town to dictate to the general Government what Federal appointees, or what class of them, should be allowed to fill Federal offices. Mr. Roosevelt met this covert attempt at nullification, just as President Cleveland met Debs's in 1894 and Lincoln met South Carolina's in 1861, with the round assertion that the discharge of Federal functions depends, in no part of this Union, upon the whim or consent of a locality.

Senator Spooner, speaking for the Administration, left not a vestige of the case that had laboriously been built up by the opponents of the President's action in the premises. They have said that, with fanatic zeal, or with selfish political motives, he has been trying to force upon a respectable and law-abiding community a postmistress who is personally offensive. Nothing of the kind. He has simply refused to be a party to forcing her out of a national office by local intimidation. It has been said that his uncompromising attitude has imperilled the growing good feeling between North and South, and seriously embarrassed those who are laboring for the negro's real good. But to none of those things did the President look. He saw only the national sovereignty impugned. He saw the Constitutional appointing power usurped, or attempted to be usurped, by a body known to no

law, State or National; and he did but his sworn duty in taking the position that a Federal commission must be respected in every part of this country, whether the inhabitants of any particular locality are pleased or displeased.

The essential facts in the Indianola case were put in the Senate debate beyond dispute. Senator McLaurin's version of them did not differ materially from Senator Spooner's. It is agreed on all hands that the postmistress, Mrs. Cox, is an estimable woman personally. She and her husband are well-to-do, owning $10,000 or $15,000 worth of property. She has the respect of the entire community. That is admitted by all. So is it that her conduct of the post-office has been satisfactory. There are absolutely no charges of any kind against her. But a public meeting in Indianola determined that she must be no longer postmistress, and called upon her to resign by a day fixed. Mrs. Cox promised to resign, and did, in fact, soon forward her resignation to Washington; but the President, being fully advised of the facts, and perfectly aware that her action was taken under duress, refused, and still refuses, to accept her forced resignation. Now this woman happens to be colored. But if she were white or yellow or red, Mr. Roosevelt's duty would remain as clear and imperative. He cannot, with due regard to the national dignity or to the Constitution which he has taken an oath to maintain and defend, allow the Federal appointing power to be transferred from President and Senate to a public meeting in a Mississippi town.

Senator McLaurin darkened counsel by many words without wisdom in regard to the right of petition, and the guarantees surrounding peaceable assemblies met to seek redress of grievances. But, granting the grievance—which, in this case, is, confessedly, merely that of a dark skin—to whom was the petition addressed? To any ruler, State or National? To any legislative body whatever? No, but to the postmistress herself. And the particular significance of the "petition" sent to her may best be measured by a resolution introduced at the same public meeting and voted for by a large minority, calling upon a certain Dr. Dudley to leave the town. He was a colored physician who was building up a considerable practice among his own people in Indianola. This was an offence in the eyes of those Southerners who would shut the door of the learned professions to a negro (after boasting that they want to "educate" him) as rigorously as they would public office. At any rate, the hint was enough for Dr. Dudley, and he promptly fled. He knew what was implied in the "petition" addressed to him. It was a thinly veiled threat of ugly consequences to follow if he did not comply. It was precisely the same in Mrs. Cox's case, and she as clearly resigned under threats as did the colored doctor escape for his life. Such outrages upon the private citizen the Government at Washington cannot directly prevent; but if it did not prevent them against its own officers, it would deserve the contempt of all mankind. Once let the principle be established that local prejudice may rightly take upon itself forcibly to vacate a national office, and there is an end of Federal supremacy.

President Roosevelt has chosen an impregnable position. It cannot be carried, and he will not retreat from it. Indianola cannot be allowed to dictate to the United States. This is the simple yet broad issue. "Concede our right to name our postmaster," says the mass meeting in Indianola, "or we will not go to the post-office." "Very well," replies the President of the whole country, "until you submit yourselves to the lawful Federal authority, your post-office will remain closed." That is the whole case. It is not a negro in office, but the national supremacy, that is in question. And surely, the nation with a big N is as properly asserted in its own territory as it is in international diplomacy or throughout the islands of the distant seas. But that is all that President Roosevelt has done. He has simply placed the broad shield of national sovereignty over a member of the Federal Government. The fact that she is a woman, and black, adds to the pathos of the situation, and heightens the chivalrous aspect of the President's act; but the act itself was compelled by the highest considerations of legal and Constitutional right, from which there can be no dissent which does not strike at the heart of the nation's true grandeur.

TAXATION OF MORTGAGES.

In his annual message, Gov. La Follette of Wisconsin makes a long argument in favor of mortgage taxation, and presents nearly all that can be said for that tax. It is an advantage to have all the arguments thus grouped. The advocates of mortgage taxation in this State usually do not care to debate the question. "We know you are right in theory," they declare, when exemption of mortgages is urged upon them, "but our constituents do not understand it, and if we exempted mortgages they would think we were favoring the rich. We appreciate the truth of all you say, but we should not dare to go home and face those who sent us here, if we voted for exemption." Gov. Odell, in advocating a tax of four-tenths of one per cent. on mortgages, takes an equally inconsistent position. A year ago, he declared himself in favor of exempting mortgages. He now endeavors to preserve a formal adherence to that doctrine, while recommending a violation of it. Naturally, no great progress is to be made in that way. Gov. La Follette, however, is evidently sincere in his advocacy of the tax, and he does not lack ability to present the subject as he sees it.

His first point is that mortgages ought to be taxed because, if they are not, capital will invest in them and thus escape taxation. "That vast accumulations of wealth may be invested in interest-bearing securities, insuring large incomes to the holders who throw their share of the expense of maintaining streets, and schools, and public institutions, and all the burdens of municipal and State government upon the owners of factories and shops, and stores, and farms, and homes," he says, "violates every principle of equal rights and equal responsibilities guaranteed to each American citizen." In order to bring the mortgage to the surface, so that it could be assessed, he would have it taxed as an interest in realty, with the provision that if the tax levied is not paid by the owner of the mortgage, it may be paid by the owner of the mortgaged property, and deducted from the amount of the mortgage debt. To avoid the evil of double taxation, he would provide that the owner of the mortgaged real estate should have the valuation of his mortgaged premises reduced by deducting the amount of the mortgage.

Having thus disposed, to his own satisfaction, of two objections—namely, that the tax is practically uncollectible except from mortgages held by the trustees of widows and orphans and dependents, and that a tax on mortgages would constitute double taxation—Gov. La Follette proceeds to consider other criticisms. It is contended, for example, that by agreement or understanding between the maker of the mortgage and the holder, the mortgage tax may be evaded, and rendered a tax on the resources of the borrower. Very well, says the Governor, if this is a danger, make such a contract illegal; prohibit any such agreements. Another objection which he takes up is that the mortgage tax raises the interest rate. "This is disputed," says the Governor, but he fails to say where. Anyhow, he adds:

> "It is unjust to the great body of taxpayers, who are neither lenders nor borrowers, that the hundreds of millions invested in interest-bearing securities should be exempted from taxation in order to establish the lowest possible interest rate. If that is desirable above all things in legislation, it can be attained directly by a law prohibiting the making of a contract for the payment of interest above the desired rate point."

Such is the substance of Gov. La Follette's argument. It may be admitted that he has met some of the objections rather ingeniously; but he certainly has not been able to hide the fact that the tax would be a tax on the borrower, rather than upon the lender. It is all very well to talk about a law prohibiting

an agreement for the payment of the tax by the mortgageor; he would surely pay it in one form or another. The inability of a law to stand between the borrower and the lender is exhibited every day. It was brought out here in court, a year or two ago, that a certain borrower of $30 had paid in the course of time $300 in interest to the lender, and still owed the original $30. Yet there are usury laws upon the statute-books.

The interest rate on mortgages in this city is 4 or 4½ per cent. It is generally agreed that, but for the fact that mortgages may now be taxed as personal property if the assessor is able to find them, the rate would be at least half of one per cent. lower. Yet the legal rate of interest in this State is 6 per cent. It is obvious that a reduction of the legal rate, say, to 5 per cent., the lowest which has ever been seriously proposed in this State, would have no effect whatever on our mortgage-interest rate here. Besides, if the rate of interest could be arbitrarily lowered and the tax on mortgages then imposed, the result would be, not a large revenue and the collection of a tax on "vast accumulations of wealth," but instead, a withdrawal of money from the mortgage market, to the immediate distress of the borrower. Something of this sort, as is well known, is going on here under our present laws. Trustees and other persons who must make public report of their investments, do not place their money in mortgages, for the very reason that, if they do, the personalty tax will be applied. If this menace were taken away, vast sums would enter the mortgage market, to the certain advantage of the borrower.

The fact is, the mortgage tax is in its very nature a tax which must ultimately be paid by the property on which the mortgage is secured. It does not make any difference how many times the circumference of the circle is traversed, it is still the same circle. The machinery which Gov. La Follette proposes would greatly embarrass the borrower, and would render mortgages extremely unpopular with investors; but the property would still pay the tax. It is possible that, by deducting the amount of the mortgage from the valuation, and then taxing the property on its reduced valuation, and also the mortgage, the burden on a given piece of realty might be divided; but, nevertheless, it would all come back on the land, through an increase of the interest rate. This would be the result, despite all the legislative twisting and turning which Gov. La Follette or anybody else could devise. A successful, equitable tax must be simple, direct, and capable of uniform collection. The mortgage tax has none of these qualities. Such mortgage taxation as we have in this State results in flagrant injustice and but little revenue. The sooner it is wholly done away with the better.

OBSERVATIONS IN A BIG UNIVERSITY.

II.

January, 1903.

The educational problems were not the only ones that Agatha found herself studying. Those that concerned themselves with the life of the students on its social side were even more engrossing. Fraternity life, for instance; a woman could spend half of her life thinking about fraternities. It was the girls' fraternities and their workings that especially interested her. The evils of these seemed so great that it was only by holding the alternatives constantly in mind that she could keep from pulling them down. The only alternatives that suggested themselves to her were girls' dormitories and the ordinary boarding-house. To the former she objected as an attribute of the boarding-school, necessarily involving rules and a modification of the liberty of the individual—a step backwards, as it were. The evils of a co-educational boarding-house were too obvious to need defining. Fraternities were, in their initial idea, superior to either of these institutions, and the tendencies she objected to were not incapable of reform.

In the first place, she groaned in spirit over the waste of time and energy for which false ideas of social duties were responsible. None of the fraternities had any independence, but played follow-the-leader in stupid fashion. If the Beta Gammas or the Upsilon Alphas entertained a visiting celebrity, the Iota Sigmas did the same. Agatha often heard the girls in the fraternity she knew best lamenting the necessity of so much entertaining, but they had not strength of mind enough to accept her suggestion that the necessity was a delusion, the result of an inability to think for themselves. Their crowning argument was that they had been invited to more parties than they had given. Consequently, for at least two days, study was entirely suspended. The vast majority of girls were poor, and the fraternities were run on the most economical lines, with insufficient service and table linen, and a careful scrutiny of every penny.

The day of the reception the girls spent running about to their friends, borrowing glass, china, silver, linen, screens, lamps, tables, chairs, rugs, portières and other articles. They searched the gardens and woods for decorations, which they put up themselves. They arranged the tables, made lemonade, and supplemented the cheap caterer-supplied supper in every possible way. They canvassed the porches and hung Japanese lanterns everywhere. They altered, laundered or even made the gowns they were to wear. By the time the guests arrived they were tired out. After a few hours' sleep they woke the next morning to a topsy-turvy house and a whole day's work in the superficial putting of things in order. The borrowed articles were returned. The hasty, insufficient washing of the one Chinese servant had to be supplemented by a more thorough one before the glass, silver or china could be returned. The worst of the litter was cleared away, but the dust and dirt had to wait for Ah Lee's leisure.

O the stupidity, the silliness of it all! Nobody believed in fun for young people more than Agatha; but was this the way to get it? Was the enjoyment of a big reception in any way adequate to the work involved? And on what basis did the fancied obligation to give it rest? The girls took themselves and their social duties too seriously. A girl in college has no social duties, even if she does live in a fraternity. If receptions happened once a year or even once a term, it would be possible to forgive the waste of time involved; but Agatha knew one fraternity in which they gave three entertainments of various kinds in a single week. One girl spent a whole day making dinner cards for a dinner they gave. At first, Agatha was filled so full of righteous indignation that she would go out of her way to avoid meeting the various members; but soon she found herself pitying their ignorant waste of opportunities and misjudgment of values. And yet she grew indignant again at times, especially when a certain fraternity gave parties, knowing as she did that the girls had no fire, even on the coldest days, but studied huddled up in wraps. In the name of the whole university, she resented the gowns that had taken three or four days to make. A poor girl in college has no right to spend time, strength, and money in such ways. It is a sin against the university, it is a sin against every taxpayer in the State, it is a sin against her instructors and her classmates; it is, above all, a sin against herself.

Besides her moral sense, Agatha's taste was offended by their parties. They were not genuine; they were cheap imitations of more expensive entertainments. The guests were offered watery lemonade, dry sandwiches, milky ice cream, doctored coffee, and salad made of inferior materials. In her delicate, kindly way, Agatha tried once to suggest to the girls that they should give to their guests only perfect coffee and perfect sandwiches of various kinds. But no; the Beta Gammas and the Upsilon Alphas always had salad and ice cream at their parties. If she could only have made them see how greatly first-class calico was to be preferred to cheap satin!

This imitating of the standards of people whose means and opportunities were above their reach was to Agatha one of the greatest evils in fraternity life. The standards they set up were not the standards of the girls' own homes; they were not the standards of simple Western life. There was the matter of chaperoning. The chaperon of one of the fraternities told Agatha that when young men were calling, she sat either in the room or in the next room. This was an innovation that Agatha hated to see, though, on thinking the matter over, she had to acknowledge that it was expedient. The girls in co-educational universities, and especially the girls in fraternities, are so open to criticism that it is well to make sure that there is as little to criticise as possible. Agatha regretted this necessity so greatly that she laid it up against fraternity life. Each of these girls would go home with the chaperon fad, which is the exaggeration of the chaperon need, in her head; she would instil it into her younger sisters, into her own children, thus doing her part towards diminishing the glorious freedom of the American girl—a freedom so little abused as to be the marvel of the rest of the world. The freedom of the American girl is a principle as vital to the social life of the nation as the

Monroe Doctrine is to its political life.

Again it was to the doing away with the accredited schools that Agatha looked for the necessary reforms in fraternity life. This would lead to a smaller proportion of purely frivolous girls. They would be of a higher order of mind, and, consequently, more capable of thinking for themselves. Perhaps then there would be enough strength of mind gathered into one fraternity to start a crusade against the abuses of fraternity life. They would decree no parties that involved great preparations or pretence of any kind; no expenditure that was out of keeping with their daily living; nothing that was not simple and informal. They would decide, too, that their time was too valuable to be spent in dressing in their best clothes and making calls with card cases in their hands; they would receive the canon that the duties of a girl to society do not begin until after she leaves college. They would establish the law that their house was to be kept quiet except at certain times; that each member was to respect the work of the others.

The problems that concerned themselves with athletics troubled Agatha little. It was quickly obvious to her, as to any thinking person, that the benefits of athletics were so great that even the abuses of it were to be cheerfully borne. The consequent improvement in the health of the students was the least of these. No individual sacrifices, even where they concerned themselves with life and death, were too costly for a pursuit that had made abstemiousness a manly virtue and had set the fashion of temperance for a whole generation. No other power had ever succeeded in propping up weakness of will or in making the saying of *no* an easy thing. Agatha's father and uncles had gone to college in the old days when drinking, playing pranks, and making love were the only amusements of collegians, when superfluous spirits had to be worked off in such ways as conducting donkeys to the top of steeples; and from their stories she could realize what athletics had done for the moral tone of the college world. In all her life at Westerley, she never but once saw a student drunk.

The much agitated subject of co-education was naturally a great deal in Agatha's mind. Theoretically, she approved of it as a characteristic American institution. It was on a line with development in accordance with such American traditions as were factors in the evolution of that interesting and significant product, the American girl. That she never found herself in absolute sympathy with it in fact was, she decided, because of other modifying forces in the university that had practically no connection with co-education. What seemed to the superficial observer the evils of co-education were actually due to other causes—to the fact that the university was the culmination of the public-school system, to the class from which so many of the students come. The objectionable freedom of manner of many of the boys and girls was not due to their attending the same lectures and studying side by side in the library. Those boys and girls would have the same manners under any conditions. Co-education could never be fairly tested unless boys and girls from the classes that went to Harvard and Bryn Mawr were sent to college together. We had no right to compare the boys and girls that went to a free university with the boys and girls that went to expensive colleges, and then lay the deficiencies at the door of co-education. The advantages of the one class had, generally speaking, been vastly superior to those of the other. And so, when Agatha saw, as she frequently did, relations to be criticised between the boys and girls, she always tried to imagine the individual in his or her native environment, with the result of confirming her in the opinion that co-education is the scapegoat for much that it does not deserve.

Her strongest objection was based on the remembrance of her own feelings, knowing as she did that the boys would have been much more interesting to her than her books; but on the other hand, she always found herself remembering absorbing devotions of her own to various girls in her college days, as well as the numerous love affairs of her friends with the college men whom they met in the vacations. It is a necessity of that age to adore somebody. A certain amount of time and attention would go in dreaming under any circumstances, and no woman of insight would wish to curtail this, with the realization upon her of the limitations of the man or woman who has never been in love. What astonished Agatha, however, was not the extent to which they fell in love, but the apparent ease with which they seemed to keep out of it. She knew numbers of students, both boys and girls, who were apparently heart whole. If they had secret divinities, there were no signs of worship. She marvelled at this, remembering the days when, for stress of feeling, she could neither eat nor sleep.

The stock argument that co-education takes the bloom off a girl, that it "commonizes" her in the eyes of men by destroying the mystery, was always offensive to Agatha, as coming from an unenlightened point of view. If a woman is to be loved and admired in proportion as she is not known, what chance has she for happiness in married life when all mystery is made manifest? Such a theory implies that the mutual relations of men and women are to be intermittent, vague, shadowy. The only safe foundation for happiness in marriage is actual knowledge, and the reverence that rests merely on a delusion is better done away with. If a woman has not that in her that demands reverence, no doubt the deficiency will be discovered in the daily intercourse of the classroom. If the mystery is merely a trick, not an emanation of depth of character, it will surely be exposed. Four years of classroom life give a man a chance to learn to know women such as he seldom gets. Agatha's experience led her to conclude that the question of sex had little influence in the classroom, however much it might have outside. The boys and girls did not seem to meet there as boys and girls, merely as students. Her observation was confirmed by that of other people, though theirs sometimes implied a criticism: co-education would lessen the mutual interest of men and women. This objection was simply funny to Agatha, and set her wondering about the internal mechanism of the people who made it. Was there really any manner of device in heaven or earth that would lessen the all-absorbing mutual interest of men and women?

At all events, in State universities, co-education, as well as size, is a necessity, owing to the excessive cost of equipment to meet modern demands. The question before us now is not whether separate education or smaller institutions are preferable, but what is the best manner of modifying or overcoming the evils due to diversity and size.

ELIZABETH KNIGHT TOMPKINS.

A WINTER EXHIBITION OF LANDSCAPE AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, January 5, 1903.

The winter exhibition at the Royal Academy comes so near being a triumphant success this year that its failure is the more irritating. The Academicians, unexpectedly lighting upon a good idea, have not known what to do with it. Already, a few years ago, they were faced with the danger of exhausting the supply of old masters in the country, and the consequent necessity of providing some new interest to their winter exhibition. One way out of the difficulty that occurred to them was to rely less upon the splendor of individual pictures than upon the characteristic representation of some one painter, or school, or period; and indeed few plans, if successfully carried out, would be more useful to the student. But they have played with the idea, instead of realizing it seriously and completely as a body of their influence and wealth could and should. One winter they showed incidentally a few pictures by the Barbizon men; another, the work of Fred Walker, Mason, Cecil Lawson—would-be English Romanticists. Last year they got together a superb collection of Claudes, the true foundation of the English school; and the result is that now, when they undertake to make a special representation of English landscape, it is impossible to do more than borrow indiscriminately from different collectors and galleries, and hang without any attempt at order a few fine examples of the great English masters of landscape.

It may be said that if they have done this they have done a great deal, and that one masterpiece counts for more than the most perfect historical sequence and intelligent hanging. True, and, indeed, the glory of the Wilsons and Turners, the Constables, Cotmans, and Cromes in the first two rooms would silence criticism forever if the exhibition began and ended with them. But, unfortunately, its organizers have gone further and aimed at historical sequence. They have endeavored to suggest the foreign inspiration of the English landscape that began, in full perfection, with Wilson; they have endeavored also to follow the fortunes of English landscape down to the present day. Claude, having figured so largely a year ago, could not appear again so soon without an effect of repetition, and, as a substitute, no one better was forthcoming than Cuyp, to whose landscapes, together with a slight sprinkling of his portraits, an entire room is devoted.

Few of the Dutch painters are so tedious as Cuyp. Occasionally, in Amsterdam and at The Hague, one chances upon a picture by him that seems, in its straightforward and honest study of light, to justify his reputation. But it must be confessed that

the average Cuyp is, on the face of it, nothing better than a pot-boiler, and the result of seeing so many together is disastrous. One leaves the gallery more firmly convinced than ever that his famous golden light, his sky—above all, his clouds—are as much studio properties as his cattle and cowherds and cavaliers. Besides, if he influenced any one, it was not Wilson and the succeeding masters, but the English painters who are best forgotten. Some of his "cattle pieces" look like glorified editions of Sydney Cooper, the painter whose great old age made him the popular hero of recent summer Academies, though, now he is dead, he is not thought worthy a place in a winter exhibition of landscape. But when it comes to the moderns who are represented, and upon whom two rooms are wasted, the result is a still worse disaster.

Only four are included, Brett, Henry Moore, Vicat Cole, and Ridley Corbet, and the reason for their inclusion is no sympathy of aims, absolutely no relation to the great masters of the early half of the nineteenth century, but merely the fact that they all happen to have died within recent years. Nor are the steps leading to the degeneracy for which they stand in any way explained in the absence of the men whose works would be so many links in the long chain connecting Wilson with the painters of to-day. How, from Constable, there was ever evolved Vicat Cole, for example, would be hard to understand were it not for a big landscape by Linnell, who came so near being a good painter that one is the more conscious how lamentably he fell short of it. But his "Storm in Harvest," a large and ambitious work, is here, and it explains much. In the distance is a wide, undulating plain under the shadow of the storm, well generalized, with a truth and dignity that suggest careful study of Constable; in the foreground is a corn-field (with figures), which, in all its commonplace detail, would not be unworthy of Vicat Cole. Perhaps it is really because this picture does explain so much that it is banished to the last room of all opened, apparently to no better end than to provide a lodging for the odds and ends that had to be crowded in somehow, out of compliment to the collectors who lent them.

These, then, are the faults of the exhibition: failure in the attempted historical sequence and arrangement, and a preponderance of the work of second and third-rate men that might more profitably have been omitted. The great merit is in the beauty of the paintings by the little group of masters. Wilson, undeniably, was the follower, the student of Claude, but he was the inspired student, and his canvases could well stand the test of comparison to which Turner, though less qualified, exposed his own on the walls of the National Gallery. Wilson, like Claude, always sought and found in nature a certain convention—the convention we now call classical. But it never blinded his eyes to natural beauty, while it taught him the value of expressing this beauty in rhythmical lines and well-balanced masses. And he too helped to "set the sun" in the heavens. The most characteristic of his landscapes now shown is his "Apollo and the Seasons," the figures merely the detail that Claude had already made them, that Corot was to make them later, in a perfect landscape where the lake and its tranquil shores, the hills and inevitable temple, are filled with a glory of light that the experiments, based on chemical truths, of the scientific painter have as yet failed to rival. But Wilson's convention did not mean sacrifice of all character. He could adapt it to his subject so that when, as in "Woburn Abbey," he left the Italy he loved or the land that existed only in his imagination, for a purely English scene, he could still weave his lines into perfect rhythm, make trees and hills part of a well-ordered design, and yet be absolutely true in the English quality of light and atmosphere, the English character of tree forms, wooded slopes, and architecture.

If Turner in his later work was more daringly original, never in his excursions into heretofore untouched problems of light was he at once so accomplished and so really splendid as in the landscapes and marines painted when the conventions inherited from Claude and Wilson kept him within bounds. His masterpieces at the Academy now are his "Harlech," first exhibited in 1799, complete in itself and free from the detail of later pictures that may have meant much to Ruskin but mean nothing in his compositions, serene with the serenity never yet achieved by mere experiment, however clever; and his dramatic "Boats carrying out Anchors and Cables to Dutch Men-of-War in 1665," dating back to 1804, with the wonderful movement of the water, the action of the boat emerging from the very trough of the sea, and the tragedy of nature under the heavy, purple-black canopy of the storm-cloud. It is before pictures like these that one takes off the hat to the master, rather than before the "Modern Italy," into which he strove to paint an entire country on a single canvas, or "The Approach to Venice," which, brilliant as it may once have been, has suffered the fate of so many of his pictures, and is now probably but a pale phantom of itself.

A number of Constables are shown, most of them too well known to call for description. But, no doubt by chance, the two that have become the most familiar through frequent repetition or reproduction have been hung just where they best help to emphasize the weakness and strength of the painter. I have always thought "The Rainbow," more often called "Salisbury Cathedral," the most unsatisfactory of all the large Constables—its foreground overloaded with the detail of the water and the reeded banks, the horse and cart dragged through the stream, the odd figures—while the picture itself, when you finally get beyond the foreground to the cathedral and its surroundings, is involved in composition and disturbed by the glittering dots which were Constable's means for obtaining desired effects of light. The canvas now is close to Wilson's tranquil "Apollo and the Seasons," and to contrast the two landscapes is to realize only what was lost when Constable abandoned convention for a more exact rendering of nature. But then, on the other hand, the most satisfactory of the large Constables is the "Dedham Lock, or the Leaping Horse," and it hangs next to Gainsborough's "Fallen Tree." There are other Gainsboroughs, but I have said nothing of them, for not one quite accounts for his own preference for his landscapes, though I have seen, elsewhere, several that do. As for "The Fallen Tree," it seems in its present place for no better reason than to show what was gained when Constable, throwing over all the old stock-in-trade of the studio—brown tree, ruins, withered branches, and the rest—went straight to nature, where, sometimes, he found a beautiful composition ready-made as at Dedham Lock. Gainsborough's canvas is but a flat, not particularly lovely pattern, compared with this fine, open countryside, bathed in light, enveloped in air, where the wind blows the clouds and masses of foliage into long, beautiful flowing lines, and the figures are in their appointed place, not because tradition required them just there, but because Constable thus saw horse and boy taking the spirited leap, of which he has caught the action and the feeling so marvellously. And, full of incident as the canvas is, the relation of the different passages is so right, the "sparkle with repose" at which Constable aimed is given so perfectly, that the picture both sanctions his ambition as a "natural painter," and preserves the harmonious tone and noble serenity of Wilson's convention. Constable did not often, in his large landscapes, reach this high point of achievement. Directly opposite is his "Opening of Waterloo Bridge," with its restless, overcrowded foreground, and utter failure to render or suggest the majesty of St. Paul's towering over all London in the distance—a picture that goes far to confirm one in a growing doubt as to whether Delacroix and the other Frenchmen did not overestimate the genius of Constable. It is really in his smaller sketches and studies—and a few are here—that he more nearly realized his own high conceptions of the ends and aims of landscape.

What the French Romanticists did was to demonstrate the value of generalization, of concentration, of unity in a landscape. The English painters, even the greatest, were apt to try to put too much into one canvas—far more than one canvas can possibly hold—and this despite Crome's enlightened doctrine of the necessity of "seeing the whole picture at a glance." It is the defect in Cotman's big "St. Malo," which consists of three distinct compositions—the town to the left, the sea to the right, the group of fishing-boats (the ingenious connecting link) in the centre. The eye wanders from one to the other without ever receiving any impression of a pictorial whole. And yet there were times when Cotman, disdaining to make any concession to methods in vogue, did not allow himself to stray from one fine central motive, and then he created the masterpiece; for instance, the noble "Homeward Bound," where the ship that sails toward you from out of the sunset fills the canvas. And what a sunset! Turner, in his sensational skies, sometimes amazes you so by the means that you lose sight of the effect they were to produce. But Cotman lets you see nothing, feel nothing, but the glory of the sombre golden light tinged with flame, out of which his splendid ship comes sailing, laden with romance. This picture is an exception, however. Cotman was far oftener bewildered by light and color, and his "Heath Scene," though well composed, is too hot to be pleasant.

Crome, here certainly, seems more matter-of-fact by Cotman's side, but his two versions of "Mousehold Heath," if not as

masterly as the third in the National Gallery, are so full of the life and animation of nature, so successfully painted "for air and space," so true in the relation of their planes, so brought into unity of aspect, and therefore of tone, by the all-enveloping light and atmosphere, that they make me, at least, wonder more than ever why the great English traditions of landscape should have all but perished in the modern Academical slough of commonplace. Bonington is not particularly well represented. The two surprises of the exhibition are a little romantic woodland scene by Reynolds, the first and only landscape by him I have seen, and a fine stretch of plain and hillside that shows De Wint almost rivalling Wilson in dignity, tranquillity, and sobriety of vision. After this, a few indifferent David Coxes, and one or two large canvases by William Müller, that look like Constables gone mad, bring the collection of landscapes down to the moderns, upon whom space need not be wasted—except, perhaps, to point out that the complete emptiness of Henry Moore's marines, when seen in company with that magnificent Turner, make one appreciate more fully than ever the low standard of the summer Academy, where these same paintings used to seem almost distinguished.

There are other pictures, by old masters, that are not landscapes or marines, but they have the air of having been dragged in to fill up the walls and not disappoint a public that dislikes nothing more than change or innovation in either its winter or summer Academy. The most important are the two large Tintorettos from Hampton Court, the "Nine Muses in Olympus," and "Esther Fainting before Ahasuerus"; and it is interesting to see them where they really can be seen. A Rembrandt, a Rubens, and a Franz Hals, lent by Mr. Pierpont Morgan, are a new argument in favor of the proposal made in the *Nation* recently for a training school for art collectors. The Hals, the portrait of a woman, is the best of the three, and there are fine passages in it; but it shows Hals in his more perfunctory, less animated moments. Some of the portraits by Reynolds, the celebrated Mrs. Pelham feeding her chickens, and the Countess of Powis, are charming. But a couple of Romneys are of indifferent merit, and altogether this part of the collection could have been dispensed with.

More superfluous still—that is, as a section of the regular Academy exhibition—is the series of drawings, photographs, and so on illustrative of Mr. Arthur Evans's excavations in Crete, arranged in a room quite apart. The series is of enormous interest, as every one knows who has followed the researches that have brought the Labyrinth to light. But simply because the series is so interesting, it should not be treated as a mere side-show, which, it may safely be said, the great majority of visitors to the exhibition will never enter. N. N.

Correspondence.

LYNCH LAW ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A year ago, on the appearance in the *Atlantic Monthly* of an article in which the originator of lynch law was identified with Charles Lynch of Virginia, I wrote to the author saying that he had not given proof of such identification and asking for further facts. I received a courteous reply, but not the needed proof. About the same time was published the Annual Report of the American Historical Association for 1900, containing a monograph on "Sectionalism and Representation in South Carolina," in which, in reference to the Regulators of 1768, it was stated that "the settlers agreed to rely on lynch law, which received its name at this time" (i. 337). To the author of this monograph I also wrote, saying that I knew of no facts which would lead to such a conclusion, and asking for his authority. From his reply it appeared that the author had relied too implicitly on his memory, and that Gregg, by whom he thought the statement had been made, so far from asserting that the *term* arose during the Regulator movement in South Carolina, had merely said that "they called themselves 'Regulators,' and thus 'Lynch law' had its origin at this period" ('Hist. of the Old Cheraws,' 1867, p. 128). Eight years earlier Dr. R. W. Gibbes had written: "The Regulation, an association of respectable planters, took the matter in hand, and enforced order by a system of Lynch law" (in J. B. O'Neall's 'Biog. Sketches of the Bench and Bar of S. C.,' vol. i., p. x.).

Having, therefore, done something towards relieving both Charles Lynch and South Carolina from the odium of unproved charges, I was somewhat chagrined to find that Gen. McCrady (*Nation*, January 15) had so far misunderstood my previous letter (*Nation*, December 4, 1902) as to speak of my "apparent inclination to find in the action of the Regulators on Lynch's Creek the origin of the term lynch law." In that letter my aim was to give as many facts and as few opinions as possible; and the only personal opinions I was conscious of expressing were: (1) that no one of the conjectures as to the origin of the term "is wholly satisfactory"; (2) that the *Atlantic* writer "assumes but does not prove the connection between Charles Lynch and lynch law"; and (3) that the derivation of the term from Lynch's Creek "has yet to be proved." General McCrady feels quite sure that "nothing to connect the term 'Lynch Law' with that of 'Regulation' or 'Regulators' in Carolina will ever be found." While I hesitate to commit myself so unequivocally, not knowing what future research may yield, yet certainly nothing of the sort has yet been found.

But while it is pleasant to find myself in agreement with General McCrady on this point, one statement made by him cannot be allowed to pass unchallenged. He says: "It is not until 1841, as appears by Mr. Matthews's collection, that the two terms [lynch law and regulator] are found together, and then they are used in regard to affairs in Texas and Arkansas." Space forbade my giving more than a few of the many extracts before me, and naturally those were chosen which best showed the changes in meaning which lynch law had undergone. The terms "regulating" and "regulator," sometimes by themselves and sometimes in connection with lynch law, turn up before 1841.

"These regulators are self-appointed ministers of justice, to punish or destroy those whom the law cannot touch." 1819, Dec. 16, W. Faux, *Memorable Days in America* (1823), p. 318. Faux had spoken on Nov. 26 of "Lynch's law," and was now alluding to "the Rowdies of Kentucky."

"On such occasions therefore, all the quiet and industrious men of a district form themselves into companies, under the name of 'Regulators.' They appoint officers, put themselves under their orders, and bind themselves to assist and stand by each other." 1824, W. N. Blane, *Excursion through the U. S and Canada*, p. 234. Though Blane does not employ the term lynch law, yet he describes the practice.

"No commentator has taken any notice of *Linch's Law;* . . . the citizens formed themselves into a '*regulating company.*' . . . Sometimes the sufferers resorted to courts of justice for remuneration, and there have been instances of heavy damages being recovered of the *regulators.*" 1828, Judge J. Hall, *Letters from the West*, pp. 291, 292.

"The Regulators, as they were called, I have every reason to believe, were an eminently useful race of men, and it may be maintained in most cases, just, withal." 1835, C. J. Latrobe, *Rambler in America* (1836), i. 96. Latrobe is speaking of Kentucky.

In my former letter I merely pointed out that the terms "regulating," "regulation," and "regulator" were in use in the Carolinas in 1768, that illegal whippings were at that time inflicted by the Regulators, and that a meeting of the Regulators took place at Lynch's Creek. Whether there is any historical connection between the Regulators of the Carolinas and the regulators who flourished along the frontiers in and after 1819, is one of the many obscure points in the early history of lynch law which await elucidation. Albert Matthews.

Boston, January 18, 1903.

EDUCATIONAL DIVERSITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of December 11, I read with much interest an editorial, under the title "Educational Diversity," which seemed to me particularly sound and well-timed. It appears somewhat remarkable that the iconoclasts of late breaking into the midst of our educational ideals and idols of culture should be generally those entrusted with their care, and that, among the protestants most earnest and interested, should be found in the lead those who have been often regarded as the most dangerous enemies of liberal forms of education.

The fact would seem to be that the foremost universities and the most justly famous colleges are yielding too completely to the pressure for a revolutionized curriculum. While it may be true that Greek constituted a "college fetish" when Charles Francis Adams delivered his immortal philippic, it certainly was, and remains, true that Greek constitutes, just as much as in the days of Horace Mann and Francis Wayland, an ideal linguistic and intellectual discipline and a noble source of moral power. For the man of leisure, and for the scholar, it has just as much value as ever, and its importance in the education of these men is quite as great as it was adjudged to be by the greatest educators of the last generation. The same is true of Latin, in its field, with the further argument in its favor that it is an element of fundamental importance in a larger number of educations, as in law, in medicine, and in philology and pedagogy, and in natural science. The need of the day is not that the old

curriculum of the "liberal" education should be abolished, but that the spirit of tolerance which has come so largely to pervade theological spheres should become characteristic of the educational world, and that it should not only be admitted that there are and should be many educations, but also that they should be provided as a part of the system of educations which modern life demands and which the modern state should furnish. We want many new educations; but we need and should sacredly preserve the old—even the "classical." The pendulum is, as usual, swinging too far.

In the view of one who has been a pioneer, and who has surrendered a working lifetime to the promotion of some of the needed new educations, some serious mistakes have been made in the course of this later evolution in education. The giving of A.B. for all courses, and in every form of academic education, seems a radical and unnecessary departure from the older and more logical custom of giving A.B. to the student of the ancient classical course, Ph.B. to the scholar making philosophy his distinguishing work, B.Sc. to the worker in science, and B.L. to the man aspiring to high rank in letters. The pendulum will probably swing back, in time, to its normal arc—an arc suited to the times.

The movement, now so threatening, favoring a two-year or a three-year college curriculum seems another of these extravagant efforts at meeting a demand which is misunderstood by those upon whom the demand is made. Carried to its logical result, it would abolish all college educations because some able and honest business men declare that, for the purpose of money-making simply, the years of college life are less valuable than the same years spent in the shop, the office or the field. They are probably wrong; but, if right, give the ambitious and intellectually strong young man his choice. He will probably choose an education, and will later prove its value and the error of the now favorably received proposition. We are here sending out a hundred young men every year to disprove that fallacy—and they are doing it—in a single branch of professional college work. The college man is often at a disadvantage for a time; but if made of the right stuff, in the end (other things being equal) he usually marches in the van. It is along his chosen line among the various educations now offered by the larger institutions of learning that the poor boy, as always, is more and more frequently finding his way to the front, even in departments of business which are considered least dependent upon learning, scientific or other, for prosperity.

It is unquestionably very desirable that every professional man should also be an "educated" man. In these days he *must* be professionally educated, to succeed. It is also important that he should have as "complete and generous" an education, as Milton would say, as he can afford. But it would be a supreme injustice to assert, and to enforce, the dictum that the man who cannot afford a "liberal" education preliminarily to his professional training, should be forever barred from the profession. That would be a cruel and shameful injustice. It is entirely proper that the acquirement of all the education that time and means permit should be advised every aspirant to professional life; but neither expediency nor justice dictates compulsion or exclusion.

Neither should the course be shortened for all. This latter problem is, in fact, comparatively easy of solution. Let the student, in his A.B. work, elect all the mathematics, the languages, the science, and the special subjects, apart from the professional, that may be properly brought into his course. He will cover a very large fraction of the essential, though non-professional, work of the professional course. He will then secure his A.B. in the usual and proper form and time, and may next obtain his professional degree in two or, at most, three years. We have many men taking this course, and usually securing a reduction of one-third in the length of the normal total college period, and the equivalent, in this respect, of the arrangement proposed by the most radical of advocates of the dwarfing of the A.B. course.

R. H. THURSTON.

ITHACA, N. Y., January 20, 1903.

BROWNING'S NEGLECT OF ENGLISH SCENERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is somewhat remarkable that so able a critic as Mr. Stopford Brooke, in speaking of Browning's neglect of English scenery, should have overlooked a passage which, for vivid description of that serene and restful beauty so characteristic of "England's best," might alone establish for its author a high rank among "Earth's praisers."

Of the description in "The Inn Album" of an English elm-tree, Mr. Brooke says: "[This] is interesting because it is the third, and only the third, reference to English scenery in the multitude of Browning's verses. The first is in 'Pauline,' the second is that poem, 'O, to be in England,' and this is the third." He then proceeds to quote from "The Inn Album":

"The woman never once has ceased to gaze
On the great elm-tree in the open, posed
Placidly full in front, smooth bole, broad branch,
And leafage one green plenitude of May.
. . . . . bosomful
Of lights and shades, murmurs and silences,
Sun-warmth, dew-coolness—squirrel, bee, and bird,
High, higher, highest, till the blue proclaims
'Leave earth, there's nothing better till next step Heavenward!'"

The passage which Mr. Stopford Brooke has omitted from his enumeration of Browning's tributes to English nature, is, to my mind, the most beautiful of all, and it is found in the same poem. It may well speak for itself:

"So much describes the stuffy little room—
Vulgar, flat, smooth respectability:
Not so the burst of landscape surging in,
Sunrise and all, as he who of the pair
Is, plain enough, the younger personage
Draws sharp the shrieking curtain, sends aloft
The sash, spreads wide and fastens back to wall
Shutter and shutter, shows you England's best.
He leans into a living glory-bath
Of air and light where seems to float and move
The wooded watered country, hill and dale
And steel-bright thread of stream, a-smoke with mist,
A-sparkle with May morning, diamond drift
O' the sun-touched dew. Except the red-roofed patch
Of half a dozen dwellings that, crept close
For hill-side shelter, make the village clump
This inn is perched above to dominate—
Except such sign of human neighborhood
(And this surmised rather than sensible),
There's nothing to disturb absolute peace,
The reign of English nature."

Could any words be chosen more effectively to portray the English landscape? We feel the inrush of light and freshness in contrast with the little stuffy inn-parlor. We lean into the "glory-bath of light and air," and, with the poet, we get such a view of an English landscape that, if we have not forgotten our visits to the mother country, we find ourselves exclaiming, in Browning's own words, "Oh to be in England—in England now!"

Yours respectfully, M. G. M.

BALTIMORE, January 23, 1903.

Notes.

Macmillan's spring announcements include 'A History of the United States since the Civil War,' volume i., by William Garrott Brown; 'A History of the Confederate War,' by George Cary Eggleston; 'The Impeachment and Trial of Andrew Johnson,' by David M. DeWitt; 'A Few of Hamilton's Letters,' selected by Gertrude Atherton; 'Historical Lectures by the Late Lord Acton,' in two volumes; 'Biographical Sketches,' by James Bryce; 'Queen Victoria: A Biography,' by Sidney Lee; 'The Life of Charlotte M. Yonge,' by Christabel R. Coleridge; 'The Life of Sir George Grove,' by C. L. Graves; 'The Life of the Late Lord Bishop of Durham,' by his son, the Rev. Arthur Westcott. From the Cambridge Historical Series we select 'The Colonization of South America,' by E. J. Payne. In the English Men of Letters Series every title is of interest: 'Crabbe,' by Alfred Ainger; 'Jane Austen,' by H. C. Beeching; 'Browning,' by G. K. Chesterton; 'Hobbes,' by Sir Leslie Stephen; 'Lowell,' by Dr. Henry van Dyke; 'Emerson,' by Professor Woodberry; 'Franklin,' by Owen Wister. In this connection belong also the second volume of Prof. William Ridgeway's 'Early Age of Greece,' and Sir James H. Ramsay's 'Angevin Empire: the Reigns of Henry II., Richard I., and John.' Another class opens with Sir Walter Besant's 'London in the Eighteenth Century'; 'Greater Russia,' by Wirt Gerrare; 'Poland,' by George Brandes; 'Letters from the Holy Land,' by Lady Butler (Elizabeth Thompson); 'Quebec: The Place and the People,' by Sir Gilbert Parker; 'The Island of Formosa,' by James W. Davidson, United States Consul there; 'Italy,' by Prof. W. Deecke. From the outing works we take 'Photography for the Sportsman Naturalist,' by W. E. Carlin. 'The Illustrated History of American Art,' to be edited by Prof. John C. Van Dyke, will comprise 'Sculpture,' by Lorado Taft; 'Painting,' by Samuel Isham; and 'Music,' by Louis C. Elson. Our countryman, Dr. Charles Waldstein, will treat of 'Art in the Nineteenth Century.' Drs. Garnett and Gosse's 'Illustrated History of English Literature' will start off with volumes i. (from earliest times to 1500) and iii. (from Milton to Johnson). Add: 'A Lexicon to the Poetical Works of John Milton,' by Laura A. Lockwood, of Wellesley College; 'The Age of Shakspere,' by Thomas Secombe and J. W. Allen; 'The Moral System of Shakspere,' by Prof. Richard G. Moulton; 'Representative English Comedies,' edited by Prof. Charles Mills Gayley of the University of California; 'The Works of Edward FitzGerald,' edited by W. Aldis Wright, in seven volumes, limited to 250 sets (the letters, by the way, arranged in chronological order, and no longer in groups), and sold only by subscription. Finally, we will mention, with the story not half told, 'Heredity and Social Progress,' by Prof. Simon

N. Patten; 'Railway Legislation in the United States,' by Balthasar H. Meyer; 'Custom and Competition,' by Prof. Richard T. Ely; 'A History of American Theories,' by C. Edwards Merriam; a new edition of Prof. Lucy M. Salmon's 'History of the Appointing Power,' with 'History: Suggestions as to its Story and Teaching,' by the same writer; 'Irrigation Institutions: A Discussion of the Economic and Legal Questions Created by the Growth of Irrigated Agriculture in the West,' by Elwood Mead; 'Climatology,' from the German of Prof. Julius Hann; 'The Story of Rome as Greeks and Romans Tell It,' by George Willis Botsford and Lillie Shaw Botsford; 'Happiness: Essays on the Meaning of Life,' by Prof. Carl Hilty of Bern; 'Yesterday's Madness,' a new novel by Alfred Hodder; and 'The People of the Whirlpool,' by the author of 'The Garden of a Commuter's Wife.'

Early in March, Harper & Bros. will have ready Mrs. Humphry Ward's 'Lady Rose's Daughter.'

Little, Brown & Co. have in preparation 'The Indians of the Painted Desert Region,' by George Wharton James.

A handbook, 'Money and Banking,' by Prof. Wm. A. Scott of the University of Wisconsin, designed for educational purposes or for private reading, will be published immediately by Henry Holt & Co.

Forthcoming from the Baker & Taylor Co. are 'Pictorial Composition and the Critical Judgment of Pictures,' by H. R. Poore; 'With the Trees,' by Maud Going; and 'My Woodland Inmates,' by Mrs. Effie Bignell.

'The New America,' a study of the imperial republic, by Beckles Willson, is in the press of E. P. Dutton & Co.

'Among the Palms,' life along the Atlantic Coast, by Nina Larré Duryea, will be issued by J. F. Taylor & Co.

Duckworth & Co., London, invite subscriptions to 'Chelsea Old Church,' by Randall Davies, in a limited edition. It will contain much unrecorded Chelsea history, both of the church and of the principal houses in the old village. There will be thirteen illustrations, including Holbein's drawing of the More family at Chelsea, 1527, now at Basle. The fifth and sixth chapters are given up to More and his property and its subsequent owners for two centuries. Genealogical data abound.

The architectural details of an English village church often yield the most unexpected pleasure. The church at Ickford, diocese of Oxford, is an instance in point. It is very ancient, and an uncommonly fine specimen of the early English work of the beginning of the thirteenth century. The tower is probably unique, with its saddleback roof and very beautiful windows. Unhappily, being in a region hard hit by agricultural depression, this little church is in such woful disrepair that he who would see it must be quick about the matter. Only $2,000 of the $8,500 required to preserve it from collapse have so far been subscribed, although the University of Oxford has been generous, moved, no doubt, by the fact that Archbishop Sheldon, who built the Sheldonian Theatre at Oxford, was once Rector of Ickford. Americans have at least a sentimental interest in the preservation of such beautiful country church models as England still contains. It is therefore worth recording, perhaps, that contributions may be sent to G. Bennett, Esq., Tiddington House, Oxford.

A third, revised edition of Robert S. Barrett's 'Standard Guide to the City of Mexico and Vicinity' is announced by the Modern Mexico Publishing Co. of this city.

There is little change in the twelfth edition of Baedeker's 'Northern Italy,' which reaches us through the Scribners; nor was much change required in this sterling handbook. Here and there the text has been retouched; the latest surmises of the Morellians are duly recorded in the paragraphs on the paintings at Florence, Venice, and Milan; and up-to-dateness again appears in the lines on the fall of the Venetian Campanile. A slight mechanical improvement is the glazing of the thin red covers, which gives stiffness and presumably greater resistance to wear and tear.

With the appearance of the third part of H. Inigo Triggs's 'Formal Gardens in England and Scotland' (London: Batsford; New York: Scribners) that excellent work is brought to completion. As we pointed out in a notice of the first part, the book shows, by means of a series of studies of some of the most complete of the historic gardens remaining in the British Islands, the principle involved in their planning and in their arrangement in relation to the house. The distinguishing note of the book is the admirable series of plans and bird's-eye views of gardens drawn by the author. Collections of photographs of English gardens are now fortunately within the reach of all, but no collection is accompanied by plans which approach in clearness and accuracy those made by Mr. Triggs. The drawings and photographs of the third part are accompanied by text descriptive of the houses and gardens to which the work is devoted. These notes are of sufficient length to bring out whatever is essential to an understanding of the drawings, but they avoid the wearisome historical details which so frequently encumber descriptions of old English houses.

It strikes us that the time and pains spent by Mr. T. F. Thiselton-Dyer in producing 'Royalty in All Ages' (London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Scribners), a collection of anecdotes and gossip of the whims, follies, superstitions, amusements, etc., of royal personages, might, even though the sources drawn upon are accessible and familiar, have been better employed. Still, there are readers who make their literary repasts on the principle favored by Little Jack Horner; and these, no doubt, will find this book entertaining. A little more care in its preparation would not have been amiss. Typographical errors can be saddled, we suppose, on the proof-reader; but such a phrase as "the grace and popularity which marked her early but ill-fated life"; the repeated references to Frederick II. of Prussia as "the Emperor"; the statement that King James's alleged *menu* for the devil's dinner is to be found in his 'Counterblaste,' seem to be mere carelessness. The book is embellished with six handsome etched portraits "from contemporary engravings." We should extremely like to know something more about the contemporary engravings of Edward I. and Edward III.

In 'The Lords Baltimore and the Maryland Palatinate,' by Clayton Colman Hall (Baltimore: John Murphy Co.), originally a series of lectures delivered by request before the Maryland Society of the Colonial Dames of America, we have not only brief biographies of the Proprietaries, but also a succinct history of the Province down to the Revolution. Besides being agreeably written, this work is extremely accurate, the author, with a conscientiousness which we wish were possessed by all writers in this field, having gone to original and authentic sources for his statements of fact, and having no bias or prejudice, religious or other. The only inaccuracy which an attentive reading has discovered is the statement on page 156, that the dispute about the western boundary was settled in 1852. It is true that in that year commissioners from Maryland and Virginia agreed upon a line, but Virginia never ratified their report as the act required, and the question is now in litigation before the Supreme Court. We can commend this little book to all who are interested in our colonial histories.

Mr. E. W. Kemp's 'History for Graded and District Schools' (Ginn & Co.) is a book which follows a somewhat unusual plan. Beginning in a very simple strain with the infancy of the Aryans, it advances from grade to grade until, in the last chapter, which deals with the development of the American nation, it addresses minds of considerable maturity. There are eight grades, and the book seeks to provide for the historical needs of "children from six to about fifteen years of age." Whether a single small volume will supply all the reading that a young enthusiast demands, may be called a doubtful question; but if we once admit that most school children are not enthusiastic historians, another complexion is put upon the matter. Mr. Kemp says: "The effort has been made to present the material in such connection throughout the grades that it would gradually develop in pupils' minds the idea of the *unity of history*, and then finally lead them to feel that history is an unbroken stream of life, of which the present in general and their lives in particular contribute an important part." As might be expected, the picturesque aspects of ancient and mediæval life are those to be chiefly chosen, while from the close of the Crusades colonization and self-government hold the field. Mr. Kemp's book is not only an ingenious experiment, but, placed in the hands of a good teacher, may well be of benefit to those who are so unfortunate as to be driven to the public school for a kind of instruction in history and folklore that the favored gain at their mother's knee.

A pamphlet of sixty-six pages, with a disproportionately long title, gives the result of Dr. J. Geddes's researches into the language and literature of French Canada during the last few years. In spite of ample and accurate bibliographical tabulation, this essay is scanty in comment except in the matter of phonology applied to the determination of pronunciation as heard in various parts of French-speaking Canada; and when we note the phonetic equivalents offered for sounds familiar to those who live in that country, we doubt that the scientific investigator's ear has all the finer delicacy apparently taken for granted. The subject is one concerning which French-Canadians often show a keen, almost morbid, sensitiveness; but a three weeks' wandering about Normandy and Picardy will

speedily convince the competent observer that French as spoken in Canada (sometimes even by educated men) is for the most part *un parler de paysan*. We are further disposed to think that the majority of students have little idea how rapidly the French of towns becomes Angliciżed; the examples suggested in the essay are not nearly exhaustive. The two following, heard recently by the present reviewer, are typical—*sortir*, in the sense of 'to go out into society,' and "Ton *brake* est *jammé*." A stenographer in a public office explained his spelling of a word in the striking barbarism of "J'use une capitale."

Chateaubriand's prose masterpiece suffers no detriment in Mr. Teixeira de Mattos's splendid translation of the concluding volumes of the 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe' (Putnams). To render the brilliant color, glow, and rhythmical swing of the original in an English version free from any but the most trifling blemishes, implies not only exceptional bilingualism, but a sense of finer quality in style fully comparable to that of Professor de Sumichrast in his kindred work with Théophile Gautier. The explanatory biographical notes are careful and accurate, if possibly too thickly strewn for the average educated reader, who would willingly dispense with date and fact concerning Tertullian, Brutus, and Silvio Pellico, though he might welcome the suggestion that "Sir Ashwood," mentioned by Président des Brosses as taking part in irreverent ceremonies at Rome in 1740, was no other than the notorious Sir Francis Dashwood, the crony of John Wilkes and the rest of the blaspheming crew of Medmenham Abbey. To Chateaubriand's concluding profession of faith, religious and political, to his championship of ideals followed steadfastly through fortunes good or bad, and to the fervor of his impassioned speech, his present translator has done ample justice.

In two additional volumes of 'Pages Choisies' (Paris: Colin), M. Paul Bonnefou undertakes Beaumarchais, while M. Samuel Rochblave seeks to give an adequate impression of Mme. de Staël in about 300 pages of extract and commentary. With the selections there is little ground for criticism, except that for Beaumarchais's letter on the failure of his "Barbier" we should have preferred the dissertation on sentimental drama, so much more coherent than Diderot's essay on the same subject. The biographical introductions to both volumes are reasonably compact and free from marked partisanship.

To readers familiar with Mr. Bolton King's 'Italy To-day,' the recent sketch of Italian conditions entitled 'Notes sur l'Italie Contemporaine,' by Paul Ghio (Paris: Colin), offers little that is really new, for the two books cover virtually the same ground, profess closely kindred views on a number of questions, and differ chiefly in bulk and fulness. We note that, among the authorities cited by M. Ghio, his predecessor's work fails to occur; and yet Mr. King's book is far from being a negligible quantity. But the more recent writer's socialist sympathies are possibly his most striking characteristic; they lead him to the length of saying that the general strike at Florence in 1902 "a démontré, une fois de plus, la cohésion *morale* qui existe parmi les ouvriers des villes." It is unfortunate that ambiguity should lie in an adjective. In a professedly sketchy work, imperfectly verified statements are bound to occur; yet who will vouch for the assertion (p. 53) that the land in France is "certainement moins fertile" than in Italy? Palmerston held differently.

The sumptuous serial folio edition of 'Amsterdam in the Seventeenth Century,' now in process of publication (The Hague: Van Stockum), has reached its twentieth "aflevering" or division. Besides being a superb typographic triumph, the portraits being especially well reproduced, it gives a very lively picture, in the century of its richest bloom, of the city that rose like Venice out of the waves and mire. In many ways this work is a thesaurus of data for Manhattan origins, and explains much of the thought and real life of the first settlers of New York. The part just issued treats of the religious, literary and artistic side of cosmopolitan and tolerant Amsterdam, in which Jew and Gentile, Papist and Protestant, free-thinker and Anabaptist, found homes and prosperity. Above all other cities, Amsterdam had the Erasmian temper, restrained the violent ecclesiastics of the State church, and welcomed all industrious persons who behaved themselves with ordinary decency. Spinoza, Arminius, Bekker (who put witchcraft to flight), are here represented, together with realistic Jewish and other "interiors," some bearing witness to the commendable system of charities for which Holland was and is noted.

'Osaka and the Exhibition of 1903' is the title of a neat handbook, published by Ichizo Miwa, which sets forth information concerning the fifth national exposition of arts and industry in "the Venice of Japan." After Tokio in 1877, 1881, and 1890, Kioto in 1895 (in celebration of the eleven-hundredth year of its foundation) held such an exhibition. Now, Osaka, always the great commercial centre of the empire, with easy railway communication with all ports and cities, a population of 922,000, and an area of 8.6 square miles, will keep open house from March 1 to July 31, 1903. The site chosen is in the extreme southern section of the city, and close to the theatres and places of amusement. It covers about eighty-one acres. The ten large edifices will be devoted to agriculture, forestry, marine products, industry, machinery, education, fine arts, transportation, live stock, and the aquarium. A special building will be erected for the display of foreign samples. Prince Kanin no Miya is the honorary president. Along with congresses of science, there will be a grand celebration by two thousand Buddhist priests, in full canonicals, of the thirteen-hundredth anniversary of the death of Prince Shotoku, the virtual founder of Japanese Buddhism, and the casting in his honor of a bell, to weigh 89 tons and be 26 feet high and 16 feet in diameter. Much other information concerning places near this historic focus in Japan is given. The little book shows that the Japanese have mastered the art of advertising, and understand "Who's Who."

A tasteful little pamphlet from the Heintzeman Press, Boston, embodies the annual report of the Germanic Museum Association for 1901-2, with views of the Museum itself (the quondam Harvard gymnasium), externally and internally, and of the statue of the Great Elector in Berlin, a full-size cast of which is a portion of Emperor William's gift to this budding institution. A list of the objects already in place and on public view consists of fifteen items or classes, including monuments from Hildesheim, Bamberg, Strassburg, Regensburg, Schleswig, etc. Important additions, the gift of Prince Henry, will arrive in the spring. Meanwhile the directors offer a list of desirable objects in facsimile with prices at which they are procurable annexed, ranging from reproductions of ivory diptychs at four for a dollar, to a cathedral chandelier in gilded copper at $5,000. The enterprise now seems most happily launched, and appeals to the German and the *Kultur* sentiment of the entire country. Professor Francke is the Curator, at Cambridge, Mass.

Earthquake observations and their revelation of the physical nature of the earth's interior and its surface changes are treated luminously by Prof. John Milne in the *Geographical Journal* for January. He estimates that "on the average every year 30,000 earthquakes take place, each of which disturbs from ten up to several hundreds of square miles." One practical value of these observations, made at 38 stations in different parts of the world, is that engineers and builders in earthquake-shaken countries now build to withstand known forces. In Japan, where about 1,000 shocks are recorded every year, the Government maintains at its University "a professor and assistant professor of this subject, whose duties in part consist in giving to students of engineering and architecture a course of instruction bearing upon their future profession." An interesting seismic map of the world accompanies the paper. In some notes on the new boundary between Chile and the Argentine Republic recommended by the Arbitration Tribunal it is stated that, though Chile has gained something in area, this being mainly unprofitable mountain slopes, "the actual extent of the award on either side has no significance." It is believed that the peaceable settlement of the dispute will cause a great increase in the raising of cattle and the production of wool, the farmers having been afraid, from want of a secure title, to invest capital in their holdings.

The principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number twelve, is a summary of facts collected from voyagers' narratives from Dampier down in regard to two small islands, still little known, in the Bismarck Archipelago. The other contents are accounts of the physical structure of southeastern Anatolia, of the results of Sverdrup's polar explorations, of the archæological discoveries of Sven Hedin, and of the recent volcanic eruptions in Martinique, with the conclusion of Stavenhagen's history of Russian cartography.

The Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women is prepared to offer a fellowship of the value of $500 for the year 1903-04, available at home or abroad, with a preference for women from Maryland and the South. Applications should be presented before March 30. Blank forms may be had of the President, Miss McLane, No. 1101 North Charles Street.

—A new series of histories for secondary schools (American Book Company) is beginning to appear under the supervision of Prof. A. B. Hart. There are to be four

volumes, and the word "essentials" which occurs in the title of each gives us at once a hint of the editor's idea. We have before us 'Essentials in Ancient History,' by Dr. A. M. Wolfson, and other contributors are to furnish 'Essentials in Mediæval and Modern History,' 'Essentials in English History,' and 'Essentials in American History.' In Professor Hart's words: "The titles of the volumes sufficiently suggest the point of view; the effort will be to bring out the things which have really been significant and vital in the development of the race. Personalities and events, however striking in themselves, which have not had a clear and definite effect in the movement of the world, are omitted in order that, in the brief space available, the essentials may be more clearly presented." Short bibliographies are provided, and sets of topics for review and study also appear at the end of each chapter. We should add that, in the choice of questions, Professor Hart seeks to provide for the needs of those who will read but little outside the text, and of those who are willing to read more at large. Altogether, the scheme shows signs of having been prepared in the light of the most modern pedagogical opinion. The opening volume, which is supplied by Dr. Wolfson, begins with the Egyptians and descends to Charlemagne. It has the virtues of clearness and simplicity, besides being a vehicle of sufficient information. The most striking feature of Dr. Wolfson's treatment is his copious quotation from ancient authors. Snatches from Thucydides and Plutarch, from Livy and Appian, occur at frequent intervals, and introduce an element of pleasing variety. We are particularly glad to welcome any device which aims at the restoration of Plutarch to the place he once filled, but has lost in the last hundred years. The book is illustrated by well-chosen cuts and well-printed maps. The bibliographies, though not extensive, may be called adequate to the purpose. Professor Hart himself will contribute the volume on 'Essentials in American History.'

—The second volume of Mr. J. P. Gordy's 'Political History of the United States' (Holt) merits, in general, the same approbation bestowed on its predecessor. The period covered is the twenty years from 1809 to 1829. The treatment of the important events which fall within these years is not, indeed, very even either in space or in fulness of detail. The account of the embargo and non-intercourse episodes, for example, is especially full and enlightening, while the Missouri Compromise and the beginnings of the slavery controversy are much more lightly touched. Half of the volume is devoted to the six years ending with 1815. We are not wholly clear, either, as to just what Mr. Gordy means by "political" history. Apparently, if we may judge from the volume before us, he means principally the history of what was said and done in Congress. Considerable portions of his book, for example, are filled with little else than summaries of speeches and accounts of proceedings in the Senate and House of Representatives. Doubtless, for the period here dealt with, Congress was the most important centre of political activity, but there were other forces shaping political action into which Mr. Gordy does not much go. Thus, he tells us little about Presidential campaigns, little about State politics, little about the economic and social changes which, in the period after 1815, so radically altered the current of political thought and the course of party politics. Still, an author is entitled to choose his field, so only that he works it thoroughly; and within its limits Mr. Gordy's book is an excellent performance, and one heartily to be recommended. We make but one other general criticism: we think that Mr. Gordy is too severe on the Federalists, and does not sufficiently bring out the reasons for their attitude as a party of opposition. We note that the running-title of the volume is "Political Parties in the United States"—a title which, as applied to the first edition, is said in the preface to have been found to be "inapt."

—'The Power of Taxation, State and Federal, in the United States,' is the subject of a treatise by Frederick N. Judson, published by the F. H. Thomas Law Book Company (St. Louis). The author's aim is to show the limitations of the taxing power of the State and of the Federal Government, as declared and expounded by the Supreme Court of the United States. Decisions of the State courts and inferior Federal courts are cited as applying and illustrating the limitations thus declared. The only book with which it can be readily compared is the now classical work of Judge Cooley; and, as the last edition of that treatise appeared in 1886, Mr. Judson's volume may be considered as being, in some directions, a continuation and supplement of it. For instance, we may find in Cooley the earlier view of a "direct" tax under the Federal Constitution; but to enjoy the illumination shed on the subject by the Supreme Court in the recent income-tax cases, we must go to the pages of Judson. The later author wisely imitates the courts in refusing to discuss the questions which have come up for adjudication in any other light than that of the law. As was observed in the great case of Knowlton vs. Moore, a tax may be a direct tax economically, yet an indirect tax Constitutionally. "No microscopic examination as to the purely economic or theoretical nature of the tax should be indulged in for the purpose of placing it in a category which would invalidate the tax." Indeed, we may venture to go further and say that, under the principles of construction avowed by the Supreme Court, a tax may be a direct tax in fact, and yet an indirect tax in law. An inheritance tax, for instance, is not a direct tax Constitutionally, though no one who ever paid an inheritance tax ever found anything indirect in it. Mr. Judson brings out what, to some minds, have appeared the inconsistencies of these decisions, without attempting to reconcile them with either economic theory or the grovelling facts of everyday life. Mr. Judson's work seems, so far as we have been able to examine it, accurately and well done.

—The fifth volume of Doubleday, Page & Co.'s Variorum and Definitive Edition of the Works of Edward FitzGerald comprises his two dramas after Calderon, viz., "The Mighty Magician" and "Such Stuff as Dreams are Made of," and not only the preface to his 'Polonius' (as in Wright's three-volume edition of the Literary Remains of 1889), but the whole body of that "collection of wise saws and modern instances." This is as it should be, not merely because of the thread of connection which FitzGerald here and there supplies to other men's posies, or the translations and verse which he anonymously intercalates, but because the choice itself is the man. When this warm-hearted recluse twice quotes "Be not solitary, be not idle," who can question that he sought in reading and in composition to observe the precept, however shut out from the world? Twice he holds up plain living and high thinking, which was the mirror of himself; and we recognize both the admirer of Crabbe and the recorder of Suffolk folk phrases in the section on the poor and on the need of happy English laborers and a "bold peasantry" (borrowing here from one of Bewick's moralizing vignettes). Written surely by his own somewhat insular musical hand is the sentence, "One may conceive that Handel is wholesomer for a people than Bellini." "Taste is the feminine of genius," again, is Fitz upon Fitz. And that the two extracts involving references to Voltaire are both slants at him, surely indicates a personal bias. Bacon, Carlyle, Lavater, and Rochefoucauld are conspicuous contributors to this collection; there are two quotations from Tennyson and two even from "Daddy" Wordsworth. From Carlyle nothing is, for FitzGerald, more grimly autobiographic than the extract in confutation of Diderot's cynical view of the marriage covenant: "'Thou makest a vow,' says he, twice or thrice, as if the argument were a clencher—'Thou makest a vow of Eternal constancy under a rock which is even then crumbling away.'" In respect of Bacon, it is interesting to remark the footnote (here on page 203): "And might not a passage like the following make one suppose Shakspere had Bacon in his eye as the original Polonius, if the dates tallied?" This was printed in 1852, and the idea haunted FitzGerald in 1874, when he wrote: "I used to tell Spedding that Polonius was meant for Lord Bacon; but I doubt the Dates won't bear me out." The single extract from Montaigne is taken from a copy in which FitzGerald had inscribed it; but we cannot believe he wrote "une jeune homme," as in line one of page 245; and we apprehend that "q'une" on page 284 is not reprinted faithfully from the Pickering edition. In fact, both the French and the Greek of this volume are sadly in need of revision—which is a pity where all else is sumptuous.

—The strongly Germanic section Lief—Lock of volume vi. of the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde) presents, under Mr. Henry Bradley's editorship, a varied interest. Take the legal term "lien," for example. In England three modes of pronunciation are in vogue, two disyllabic (lee-en and ly-en) and one monosyllabic (leen). This last is allowed to be the prevailing one in the United States. How phonetic spelling-reform would deal with such a case is not obvious. What would it do, again, in the two countries with "lieutenant"? "Leftenant" is all but exclusively heard in England, and all but universally unheard here. The origin of the English pronunciation is perplexing. "The hypothesis of a mere misinterpretation of the graphic form (*u* read as *v*), at first sight plausible, does not accord with the facts," we are told. "Lutenand," "luf-tenand," "leeftenanunt," and "lieutenant," are the

first four forms cited (date, 1375, 1387, 1390). In the compound word "lieutenant-general," by the way, it is remarked that though the second member is historically an adjective, the plural is now formed at the end and not in the middle. The American development of "locate" and "location" is recorded without scorn; it furnishes, in fact, an excellent instance of flexible adaptation to new conditions. In the case of the verb we have the field (and it is a pretty broad field) nearly all to ourselves. The use of the verb "loan" in the sense of 'to lend' is labelled "now chiefly U. S."—emphasis on now—and the quotations show that no Englishman can throw stones at us for that most natural and regular derivation of the verb from the substantive. Mr. Bradley does not tax us with the invention of "loaf," the verb, saying that its origin is obscure, and that Lowell's conjecture that it is connected with the German dialectic *lofen* (*laufen*), 'to run,' is without foundation, that verb not having the alleged sense of 'saunter up and down.' "Loafer" occurs first in Dana's 'Two Years before the Mast,' in 1840, when he styled it "the newly invented Yankee word." "Lobby," of monastic origin as a noun, is another striking instance, in this section of the Dictionary, of American creation and extension in verbal application. England has not disdained to follow after us in this.

—The use of the conjunction "like" for "like as" or "as," which among Americans is either local or the sign of underbreeding, is under the ban in England; yet, as any one may observe and Mr. Bradley points out, is chargeable to "many recent writers of standing." Its evolution is traceable to "an anacoluthic use (somewhat common in the sixteenth century)" exemplified in Spenser's "Like to an Eagle . . . hath spide a Goshauke" (1596). Darwin is the first author quoted (1866) after 1792. The adverbial employment of "lief," principally with "would," "originated chiefly from the misinterpretation of phrases like *I had as lief, I had liever*, in which *would* appears instead of *had* as early as the thirteenth century." Did this misinterpretation proceed from colloquial "'d" (=had, would)? "Literary," in its present acceptation, first turns up in 1749; Dr. Johnson ignored it (1755-1775). To "limber up" is found in Charles Lever in 1843. In the discussion of the suffix "-like," it is remarked how extraordinarily fond the late Philip James Bailey was of words of this formation. More than sixty may be counted in his 'Festus.' The Brahmanic fortune by which words come to express opposed and contrary meanings is shown in the case of "liege," which is both the lord and the vassal. "Lights," like its equivalent "lungs," takes its name from its comparative corporeal weight. "Lift" is to move up into the air (an obsolete "lift" meant 'sky'). "Lobster" and "locust" trace back to the Latin *locusta*, which designated a crustacean before it was transferred to the insect. "Locale" (substantive) for "local" is one of several instances of a pseudo-French ending to preserve the French stress and pronunciation (compare *morale*). We break off with a notice of the superfluous possessive in Mason's and Dixon's line (under Line, p. 307), as the sole quotation shows.

—The Archæological Report for 1901-1902 of the Egypt Exploration Fund contains no account of Professor Petrie's work at Abydos, since the twenty-second volume of the Memoirs of the Fund (Abydos, Part I.), in which a full report was published, is already in the hands of subscribers. The Archæological Survey has been busied chiefly with the making of careful copies of mural paintings in the northern group of tombs at Tell el-Amarna, and specifically in the tomb of Meryra (No. 3 of Lepsius). A volume containing plans, drawings, and photographs of this tomb will be published in the autumn of 1903. The first volume of the Tebtunis papyri has been distributed among the subscribers to the Græco-Roman Branch of the Fund. The most productive new work of this branch, under Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt, has lain among the tombs of the Ptolemaic period at Hîbeh, a town on the east bank of the Nile, well known to travellers by the river steamers on account of its massive walls and palm-sheltered temple ruins from the time of the XXIId dynasty. Here a considerable amount of papyrus cartonnage was obtained from mummy-wrappings of the third century B. C., and has been sent to Oxford for study. The first instalment of these papyri will be published the present year, and promises to be of exceptional interest, containing, besides the two columns of a new comedy, the discovery of which has already been chronicled, a large number of classical fragments, including parts of two new odes of Pindar, and a piece of the lost *Cesti* of Julius Africanus. A Greek sepulchral inscription found on the site, and a number of fragments of papyri of the Roman period exhumed from rubbish heaps, indicate that the Greek name of Hîbeh may be *κώμη Φιλονίκου*. A large number of papyrus documents of about the middle of the first century B. C., both Greek and demotic, were also found in the wrappings of mummied crocodiles at Khamsîn, near Tebtunis. The Report also contains the usual excellent summaries of progress in Egyptology reported from other sources.

LIFE AND LETTERS OF MAX MÜLLER.

The Life and Letters of the Right Honourable Friedrich Max Müller. Edited by his Wife. In two volumes. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

The essentially pious character of this collection of familiar letters written and received by Müller would make unnecessary any extended review in the *Nation* were it not that 'Life and Letters' calls in question the correctness of a certain statement made in the *Nation* itself at the time of Müller's death, to the effect that the latter's edition of the Rig Veda, for which he was wont to claim sole credit, was not really his at all, but the work was done by a German scholar, Aufrecht, who was the editor of the *editio prima*, the title claimed by Müller; and that Aufrecht deserves the chief credit for Müller's own edition.

This statement is not so "extraordinary" as is made to appear in 'Life and Letters'; nor does the fact that it was published "anonymously" and "after Müller's death" affect the question, when one considers that it was not very novel, that it made part of an obituary notice, and that such notices in the *Nation* are usually unsigned. Doubtless, however, all adverse criticism seems malicious to friends, and these points, together with the final reproach that the statement emanates from America, require no special comment. The affair is now half a century old, and the reviewer believes that *nil nisi bonum* must yield to *nisi verum* in matters of history. That the Right Honorable F. Max Müller let others do his work for him was, as will appear, privately admitted even by himself. That in public he took the credit, he who runs may read in Müller's popular books. This is the sum of the charge.

The defence in 'Life and Letters' is based partly upon a one-sided statement of the facts, and partly upon a wilful misunderstanding of the indictment. Where the reviewer said that the work for which Müller was wont to claim credit was not really his at all, the defence somewhat disingenuously, or passionately, twice italicizes *all;* and, interpreting this to mean that Müller had absolutely nothing to do with the edition, triumphantly claims that such an allegation is false. But if Kipling is hired to write a poem, and, after doing one stanza, hires some one else to keep on with it, contenting himself with adding the last stanza and examining the whole before it goes to press, the critic is quite justified in saying "this is not Kipling's work at all." Nor is it a sufficient answer to say that Aufrecht's work was "fully recognized." Where is it recognized? If one looks through the prefaces to the various Sanskrit volumes, one may find that Aufrecht's assistance is after a fashion formally acknowledged; but even here it is never stated what was the true relation between the employer and his "secretary." On the contrary, in summing up, in the last volume, Müller, with the usual perfunctory civility of a scholar indebted to his friends, mentions the "advice and active coöperation" of "Aufrecht, Fitz-Edward Hall, and Haug," as if the three stood in the same class in giving assistance; while in the preface to the third volume it is said, in the same way, that much of the correctness and accuracy of the last volumes (*sic*) is due to the co-operation of Aufrecht and the assistance of Wilson. Who could imagine from this that the whole volume had been prepared for him by Aufrecht's own hand?

Yet the reviewer had in mind not so much the formal partial payment made in little-read prefaces of Sanskrit texts, as the lack of all due acknowledgment in works intended for the public. Here it must be repeated very emphatically that, as no adequate acknowledgment of Aufrecht's services was ever made by Müller even in the prefaces to the various Sanskrit volumes, where caution alone made imperative some polite statement, for the general public there was no recognition of Aufrecht's work. In his 'Chips,' for example, Müller does not even mention Aufrecht's assistance, but in the 'Autobiography' he alludes sneeringly to the fact that "another scholar, who had assisted me and had the use of my manuscripts, anticipated part of the last volume of my edition," leaving it to be inferred that some underling assistant had pilfered from him, and that the criminal's name was magnanimously suppressed. "I have received great credit for my edition of the Rig Veda," Müller says in 'Last Essays' (p. 313), "and people wondered at the time how it was done." But he never told them, though the ex-

planation might have been given in one name.

For what are the facts? Müller was hired to bring out the Rig Veda. A part of the work had already been done by Rosen. This part of the text, together with the commentary, Müller brought out without Aufrecht's assistance. But Müller had already grown weary of this scholarly toil. He spoke of it as "slavery," and said that, in his opinion, life was meant for more than the "drudgery of collating manuscripts." So, for part of the next volume and for all of the third volume, he hired Aufrecht to do his work for him, though it was just the work he himself had been hired to do; for a task of this sort is entrusted to a scholar *quâ* scholar, and not to be handed over to his secretary. But, sick of the work he had undertaken, Müller first left the drudgery to Aufrecht, and then, after the latter had got through working for him (first as "secretary" performing the laborious toil of preparing books three, four, five, six, and part of seven, and then as collaborator helping him with books seven and eight), dropped the undertaking in despair, neglecting it for years (his own confession) for more congenial employment. There remained, however, only two books more to do, and since in the meantime Aufrecht had published independently the complete text, including these two books, Müller at last, after a pause of ten years, aided now by younger scholars who had grown up since the work was begun, brought out these books also, with the commentary.* Thus while Weber in ten years published text, Brâhmana, and Sûtra of the Yajur Veda, with sufficient commentary, and did it without parade or assistance, the Rig Veda with its commentary dragged along for thirty years, the vacant interval of ten years beginning the moment Aufrecht stopped working for Müller. The *editio prima* or *princeps* of the complete text was published independently by Aufrecht in 1861-1863. The Müller-Aufrecht edition (with commentary) was published in 1849-1874. In later years, when charged with misappropriation of the title "first edition," Müller's defence was that this referred to the commentary!

But it must not be supposed that an anonymous writer in America was the first to feel troubled at the apportionment of credit due to the editors of the Müller-Aufrecht edition. The warmest friend Müller ever had—his behavior estranged from him all the best Sanskrit scholars of the Continent—was Bunsen, who writes to him thus: "Mögen Sie nur sich nicht abschrecken lassen von dem Versuche, andere für sich arbeiten zu lassen in Handwerkssachen. Sie haben der Sache ja nun Ihr Siegel aufgedrückt." The manual labor thus delicately alluded to was the toil of copying and collating manuscripts, the very work Müller had engaged to do. Bunsen's fatherly advice, given in 1855, at the time the "secretary" was hard at work for Müller, was dutifully followed. Müller let others do his work for him and stamped it with his own seal. "He consoled himself," says a very friendly foreign biographer, "with these words of Bunsen, when he was reproached for letting others do his work." This biographer says in innocent explanation (but without italics): "Müller *had already begun to let others do his work in editing the Rig Veda*, and he must have written to Bunsen that it went against his conscience."

*How Aufrecht's share of the work represents but "one-third," as asserted in 'Life and Letters,' it is difficult to understand. Probably the index is here made to fill the scale for Müller. It takes up the latter half of the last two volumes, but it is no credit to its compiler, being both unintelligently made and incomplete, though Müller assured Bergaigne that it contained every word and form in the Rig Veda!

A GREAT SCHOOLMASTER.

Edward Bowen: A Memoir. By the Rev. the Hon. W. E. Bowen, M.A. Longmans, Green & Co.

The complacent ultra-patriots who assume that the English people are a long way behind us in their interest in education, would do well to take note of the publication of this book, even if they have not the time to read it. Edward Bowen was for forty-two years an assistant master at what we should call a "preparatory" school, and never held any more conspicuous position. Our periodicals are full, almost to the point of weariness, of discussions of educational method, yet what American publisher would think it worth while to issue a memoir recording the career of a man who spent his whole life as a mere teacher of boys?

The important dates in Edward Bowen's life may be given in a few lines. He was born in 1836, the son of an Evangelical clergyman. He went up to Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1854. After winning several undergraduate distinctions, he took his degree in 1858 as fourth classic, and in the following year was elected to a fellowship. During his Cambridge course he was a prominent speaker at the Union Society, of which he became president. In 1859 he went to Harrow as an assistant master. In 1863 he undertook charge of a house. In 1869 he was entrusted by the head, Dr. H. M. Butler, with the organization of a "modern side." At the general election of 1880 he stood unsuccessfully for Hertford against Mr. Arthur Balfour. In 1901 he died suddenly in France while on a cycling tour in company with his old friends, Mr. and Mrs. James Bryce. The memoir, which is written by Edward Bowen's nephew, the son of Lord Bowen, the eminent judge, is supplemented by reprints of a few essays, mainly on educational subjects, and of the school songs which will make their writer's reputation coeval with Harrow itself.

This volume appeals, of course, primarily to Bowen's numerous friends and pupils, who will prize it as refreshing their memory of a personality of unusual power and charm. But it will have a wider value as an authority on the English "public school" system in the second half of the nineteenth century. The pictures here given of Bowen at work—and at play—with his boys afford a clearer insight into the real character of that system than could be obtained from any formal discussion of it. Incidentally, either in the memoir or in the appendices, light is cast upon almost every educational question that is in dispute—the limitations of a master's authority over school games, the permission of "cribs," the most effective means of discipline, the curriculum, etc. Yet even the shrewd judgments pungently expressed on many such subjects are of less worth than the spectacle of the "public school" ideal incarnated in Bowen himself. It is indeed a living picture. We must remember that Bowen's personal qualities were exceptional, but with this reservation his memoir may be commended as perhaps the best guide to the understanding of what is meant by that particular type of education which Harrow represents.

Edward Bowen pooh-hoohed the idea that a schoolmaster could make himself popular by joining the boys in their games. "To play is no more popular in a man than in a boy. To play genially, modestly, good-temperedly, is popular in both; the more so, perhaps, if the player is really worth looking at for his skill, though this is of quite secondary value." Accordingly, he would recommend a master to join in school sports only on condition that the boys liked his doing so, and that he was perfectly sure of keeping his temper. In his own case no hesitation was imposed by either condition. He took his share in the football field until within a few weeks of his death, and as late as his fifty-ninth year saved the game for the Harrow masters, as against the Eton masters, by a supreme effort as a "back." Walking was another favorite pastime. In his youth he once tramped from Cambridge to Oxford in twenty-six consecutive hours, and in later life he went around the entire coast of England and Wales.

As a teacher, he had little faith in the new ideas about professional training, County Council inspection, and the like; and it may indeed be admitted that if all teachers were like Bowen, there would be no need of improvements in the educational mechanism. Of the teacher's function he once said:

> "To convince boys that intellectual growth is noble, and intellectual labor happy, that they are travelling on no purposeless errand, mounting higher every step of the way, and may as truly enjoy the toil that lifts them above their former selves as they enjoy a race or a climb; to help the culture of their minds by every faculty of moral forces, of physical vigor, of memory, of fancy, of humor, of pathos, of banter, that we have ourselves, and lead them to trust in knowledge, to hope for it, to cherish it; this, succeed as it may here and fail there, quickened as it may be by health and sympathy, or deadened by fatigue and disappointment, is a work which has in it most of the elements which life needs to give it zest."

"Zest" was not too strong a word to describe his own relation to his teaching, nor is "enchantment" an exaggeration in depicting its influence on his pupils. "I don't know how it is, sir," it would often be said by a boy to one of Bowen's colleagues, "but if Mr. Bowen takes a lesson he makes you work twice as hard as other masters, but you like it twice as much and you learn far more." He especially possessed, we are told, both the inspiring and the driving powers which separately make so imperfect a teacher, and the combination of which is so rare.

Although a layman—a fact which militated against the proposal to make him head master when Dr. Butler resigned in 1885—Bowen gave religious instruction both to the members of his form and to the boys of his own house. One is surprised to find that more than twenty years ago his pupils were learning the rudiments of Old Testament analysis and separating Genesis into two documents for themselves. At the time of the Colenso panic, Bowen had shown himself, in articles in the *Saturday Review* and elsewhere, an uncompromising advocate of the critical school. A Harrow old

boy, now a distinguished Biblical scholar, testifies that, although Bowen's attitude to Scripture took his breath away at first, "to have begun scientific Biblical study under a teacher always fearless and always reverent has been to me an experience for which I cannot be too thankful." The account given here of Bowen's treatment of the most difficult problems of school ethics is full of suggestion and help to the teaching profession.

His candidature for Parliament is sufficient evidence of Bowen's breadth of outlook. He was a warm supporter of the chief domestic reforms proposed by the Liberal party, and a determined opponent of the Jingoism of Lord Beaconsfield. He hated war and militarism, and the formation of rifle corps in connection with schools provoked his intense aversion. He suffered great distress at the loss of some of his favorite pupils in the Boer war, which he believed to be both unnecessary and unjust. At the same time he was an ardent student of military history. He visited almost every important battlefield in Europe, and in 1870 followed within a few days the line of the French retreat to Wörth. In 1871 he spent his Easter holidays in Paris, which was then under the control of the Commune. Among the appendices of this memoir is the report of a lecture in which he maintained that the common idea of the character of that administration is quite mistaken.

Of Bowen's school songs Dr. Butler truly says that they were possibly his own precious, and assuredly his most enduring, contribution to the life of Harrow, and that they will take no second place among the best lyrics of this order. Even an outsider, with no local sentiment to help him, and without the assistance of John Farmer's music, can scarcely read such verses as "Forty Years On," "Byron Lay," "Queen Elizabeth," and "Giants" without a thrill. It is no disparagement to the skill of the biographer to say that, after all, the most vivid impression of the unique personality of his subject is made by the self-revelation of these school songs. After reading them, we can understand how an old pupil could declare that the tragedy of Bowen's death was not, as often in the case of other men more famous but more ordinary, that he left a great thing undone, but simply that he had ceased to be.

From Grieg to Brahms. By Daniel Gregory Mason. The Outlook Co. Pp. 225.

Five years ago a German named Fuchs wrote a book in which he classified 2,576 composers as neatly as if they had been insects and he an entomologist. Wagner and Brahms were grouped together as fourth-rate, while the fifth class included Chopin and Mascagni, with nineteen others, some of whose names are barely known to the public. Herr Fuchs took himself perfectly seriously; he even threatened to perpetrate a second volume, justifying his wondrous classification; but, so far, this further contribution to comic literature has not appeared on the horizon. One is reminded of Herr Fuchs on perusing Mr. Mason's 'From Grieg to Brahms.' Why this title, since Brahms was born in 1833 and died in 1897, while Grieg was born in 1843 and is still living? The mystery is soon solved. Mr. Mason is not a chronologist, but a classifier *à la* Fuchs, though, to be sure, on a much smaller scale. He selects for biographic and critical treatment the half-dozen composers who, in his opinion, "have done most for music in our day." These are Grieg, Dvorák, Saint-Saëns, César Franck, Tchaikovsky, and Brahms, arranged in an ascending order of importance and merit.

To judge by the bumptious, sophomoric character of the two essays on the "Appreciation" and the "Meaning" of music between which the six critical biographies are sandwiched, the author (who dedicates his book to his uncle, Dr. William Mason) must be quite a young man. His placing Brahms first and Grieg last shows, however, that he is a born musical critic; at any rate, he has the qualities which have always been the distinguishing traits of musical critics—the inability to recognize genius, the mistaking of bigness for greatness, and the ludicrous notion that because modern form is different from the form of Beethoven, it is therefore inferior—in fact, practically no form at all. This has been the shibboleth of German musical criticism, in particular, for long and wearisome decades; in adopting it, Mr. Mason shows himself sadly behind the times—his book is already antiquated. The new spirit of German criticism, which recognizes the right of every genius to create forms of its own, and which does not fancy a painted barrel to be a greater work of art than a Japanese vase simply because it is bigger and "more universal," is exemplified in the two latest histories of nineteenth-century music, Riemann's and Grunsky's, which may be commended to our author's attention.

In a magazine article, Grieg once compared the typical critic to a wet poodle who comes into the parlor and selects the best piece of furniture to lie on. Mr. Mason does this in regard to Grieg's music. He praises the early pieces, written while Grieg was still largely under German influence; but finds little merit or charm in the later compositions, in which the Norwegian has really given us his very best. It is thus that the critics used to praise the early at the expense of the later Wagner, and the drawing-room Chopin at the expense of what Mr. Huneker has happily called the Greater Chopin. It is very wearisome. The fact noted by the author that amateurs adore Grieg and that professionals shrug their shoulders at him, while the reverse is true in regard to Brahms, would have opened Mr. Mason's eyes as to the topsy-turviness of his rank-list had he been familiar with the history of musical genius. Whenever there has been such a disagreement, the amateurs have invariably worsted the professionals.

It is to be greatly regretted that Mr. Mason lacks the insight to appreciate Grieg's peculiar genius, for his book is the only one in our language that has the Norwegian's name in its title; admirers of Grieg who are attracted by that will find it but a misleading guide. Oddly enough, even in the case of Brahms, Mr. Mason does not single out the best of his works for praise. His articles on Dvorák, Saint-Saëns, Franck, and Tchaikovsky are more commendable, although they contain nothing new; but his placing of César Franck ahead not only of Grieg, but of Dvorák and of Saint-Saëns, again reminds of us of our friend Herr Fuchs.

Ohio and her Western Reserve. With a Story of three States, leading to the latter, from Connecticut, by way of Wyoming, its Indian wars and massacre. By Alfred Mathews, Member of the Ohio State Archæological Society, etc. Illustrations and Maps. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

The leading contention of Mr. Mathews may be stated as follows: Puritanism, which in England had congealed into a frozen creed, in New England continued as ardent as ever, and was engrafted with progressivism. The selected wheat was best winnowed when resown in Connecticut, which, by best working out human liberty and political righteousness, became the most democratic and religious of all colonies, and through all migrations and transmigrations has retained its identity. Her grasp and grip on that part of Pennsylvania which lay within her latitude—authorized by a literal interpretation of her charter—led to an interstate war for fifty years, 1757-1807, as conscientious on both sides as our national civil war, half as comic as an *opéra bouffe*, half so tragic that one of its scenes was an Indian massacre of more victims than at any other in American annals. The squatters, seven times evicted, were adjudged trespassers by the highest authorities, yet their heirs recovered exemplary damages, and their mother State, greedy as Cerberus, secured a sop bigger than herself—the Western Reserve. There, spacious in the possession of dirt, she had free course and has been glorified. Thanks to the Ordinance of 1787, the new departure not only was saved from slavery, but had more than magnetic attractions for those come-outers from every slave State who felt that slavery, if not a crime, was at least a blunder. Accordingly, Ohio was swiftly settled; its limits were made broad owing to political necessities, and it was early an abolition hotbed. Champions of freedom there had ideal routes for underground railroads; and though—or because—sometimes martyred, they had their reward, while their political successors have been most successful in obtaining and retaining offices, downward from the Presidency to the lowest depth.

The points now outlined—Connecticut, born of Massachusetts, having a new birth in its original dominion, militant on the rivers of Pennsylvania and triumphant in the West, not only in the Reserve, but in all Ohio—are the theme of Mr. Mathews, which is treated with energy, eloquence, and plausibility, with provincial prejudice and personal enthusiasm, and will interest many who in not a few particulars cannot agree with the author's views. His story of three States grew out of one address and two magazine papers—indeed, it is largely a rehash of the three—a combination for which the clumsy title-page shows it was hard to devise a name. The speech before the Wyoming Commemorative Association at Wyoming was ideal for its time and place; but all the three sources of the work before us are rhetorical rather than historical in style and make-up—they are the special pleading of an advocate rather than the fruits of judicial impartiality. References to authorities, dates, and exact statements, more and more demanded from the time of Gibbon, are conspicuously absent.

The volume is one of a series called the "Expansion of the Republic," and Con-

necticut's claims overlap those of all its neighbors, West as well as East. They must provoke much damaging criticism, and sometimes be confronted with refutations as complete as the Quaker State, when fairly stirred up, made of the Nutmeg's usurpations of her soil. Massachusetts will maintain that Ohio's debt to Cutler is greater than to any man of Connecticut, and will resent the statements that her children who founded Connecticut were superior to their parents in the township idea, or in churches and schools, either doctrinally or practically; and will compare Connecticut boasting of her improvements to an infant perched on its father's shoulder, and exclaiming, "I am taller than papa!" Vermont will be indignant at the portrait of Ethan Allen, with the statement that Connecticut "sent him into the field." It was not in the name of Connecticut that the surrender of "Ty" was demanded. The Quaker State will hold Franklin as worth more to her than any score of Connecticut interlopers; six-sevenths of Ohio will say that too much is arrogated to their other seventh, the "Connecticut corner." On comparative study, then, something of the glories which have been heaped upon the threefold Connecticut will fare like the jackdaw's plumage in Æsop, until there is a more careful restatement and readjustment of interstate relations, obligations, and contributions.

Euclid: His Life and System. By Thomas Smith, D.D., LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. 12mo, pp. 217.

Dr. Smith's style is light and easy, *plena litteratæ senectutis oratio;* for the author is one who can speak of the quantification of the predicate as a novelty (it was only introduced in 1827), and who, in the words, "In our time, Gauss has shown," etc., refers to a publication of 1801. He has not forgotten his Greek, for he reads Proclus, and he constantly reminds us most winningly of what the education of a gentleman used to be. *Quid enim est jucundius senectute, stipata studiis juventutis?*

The little volume is not intended for scholars, but for those who know no more of Euclid and his science than they learned in the high school; and where the reader's attention may threaten to tire, he is refreshed by something of a facetious turn until he is ready to resume the more serious discourse. One will naturally not expect the author to have the least inkling of the way of thinking of modern mathematicians about the 'Elements.' He treats the "theory of parallels" in the good old way, taking his stand with those who were valiantly resolved to demonstrate that the theorem that the three angles of a plane triangle are equal in sum to two right angles, follows as a necessary consequence from certain premises concerning a plane, although it stared them in the face that these premises are equally true of the surface of a sphere, while the sum of the angles of a spherical triangle exceeds two right angles. Stated in this way, their undertaking was manifestly predestined to eternal failure. One-half of this state of things was clear to the mind of Euclid. That is to say, his confusion of thought about one-half of it arose from two subconscious assumptions, the recognition of which would have made him wholly right. One of these was that space is immeasurably great. That he assumed this appears (among other places) in his supposed proof (I. 16) that the angles of a triangle are not *greater* than two right angles; and that he assumed it irreflectively is shown by the language of his second postulate compared with the use he put it to. It reads that a terminated straight line can be produced continuously (*κατὰ τὸ συνεχές*); but he applies it as if it read "can be prolonged beyond any assigned length." His other unconscious assumption is that all the figures with which he deals are finite. This is shown by his axiom (called the eighth) that the whole is greater than its part. For, of course, Euclid knew well enough that a straight line terminated at one end only, and endless in the further direction, is not made any shorter by cutting off a finite part of it, since what remains can be shoved along to cover the extension occupied by the whole, and, being endless, leaves no part uncovered. These two assumptions not being explicitly made, his proof of the sixteenth proposition which we have just (substantially) quoted, remains imperfect. To prove that the sum of the angles of a plane triangle is not *less* than two right angles, he plainly saw that a special assumption was necessary, and stated this in his fifth postulate (which Professor Smith calls the twelfth axiom) in such a form that it should manifestly appear the matter of fact it really is, and not a matter of pure reason, or an axiom. The whole tribe of old laudators of Euclid (of whom our author is one), though they all but deify him, fail to give him credit for understanding this matter, which they do not understand themselves; but, on the contrary, regard the postulate which proclaims his understanding of it as the greatest blemish upon his work.

This booklet is not intended for people who care to gain a profound understanding of Euclid, or to acquire any minutely accurate information, and therefore small slips are innocuous. But we should deceive our readers if we did not warn them that such slips there are, and thick as leaves in Vallombrosa. For example, we are told in sundry places that Euclid the mathematician was not Euclides "of Megæra." That is true, since that dreadful personage had no Euclid. But neither was our Euclid that eristic philosopher who lived in the town that had come to be called the "Edifices"—Τὰ Μέγαρα, the quantity of which Dr. Smith, with his Greek, will perceive if he thinks of the chatter of Penelope's suitors.

"*μνηστῆρες δ' ὁμάδησαν ἀνὰ μέγαρα σκιόεντα.*"

With singular obliviousness, he says that Alexander survived his master, Aristotle, for a year, although in different places in the book the dates of both deaths are rightly given. It is the same with the mathematical work. On p. 208 he begins an attempted demonstration of a proposition which has been fully proved to be indemonstrable. Here is a bit from which to judge it: "The triangles ABC, BAD have . . . an angle DAC . . . = angle ACB." Now, even without a figure, it is pretty clear that DAC is not an angle either of the triangle ABC or of the triangle BAD. It is no misprint, but a slip that brings the whole demonstration to ruin. Dr. Smith has four triangles, formed by the two diagonals and four sides of the quadrilateral ABCD, and it was requisite to show that the pair of triangles he mentions were equal. He has become confused among the four, has inadvertently substituted a different triangle for one of them, and the whole demonstration is, consequently, a blunder. A "proof," substantially of the same thing (though the author appears not to see that it proves this or nothing), on page 213, is even more plainly inconclusive.

England is the only civilized country where it often happens that an educated man will write a book in which he makes it plain, sometimes even blandly confesses, that he has not taken the trouble to acquaint himself with the most accessible and pertinent facts. We must not blame an individual for following the established customs of his own country, but we are bound to instance at least one case among many in which Professor Smith shows himself the thorough Briton that he is in this respect. There is a considerable account and criticism of Legendre's treatment of parallels, which was certainly called for by the general plan of Professor Smith's book. But this account and criticism is based exclusively on Brewster's translation of Legendre's 'Éléments de Géométrie.' Now Legendre became dissatisfied with his original treatment of the matter, and in his third edition completely revolutionized it. Subsequently, he decided that his new demonstration was invalid, and in his ninth edition returned to the method of Euclid. Still later, he imagined that he had found a way out of the labyrinth, and in the fourteenth (and no doubt in some intermediate editions to which we are unable at this moment to refer) he made a new attempt, very curious and subtle, as it had to be to deceive Legendre, but quite worthless as a proof—namely, he distorts his triangle, so as to make one of the angles smaller and smaller, while the sides are so lengthened that the area of the triangle remains unchanged; and he thinks he proves that this process can go on until, that angle vanishing, all three sides lie in a straight line, *although the area of the triangle remains finite*, and without investigating to what limit the values of the other angles tend. Legendre, in an appendix, gives a still different attempt at a demonstration, which really begs the question, and in one edition is substantially admitted to do so. Of all these changes, Dr. Smith knows nothing, and his criticisms of what he does know of Legendre's work (concerning which two opinions are no longer possible for competent men) admit points that ought to be denied, and deny what ought to be admitted.

A particularly amusing case of writing in complacent consciousness of lacking proper information is a certain speculation about entirely known facts regarding the commentary on Euclid by Campanus—a speculation provoked by a similarly ignorant passage from a certain 'Short History of Mathematics,' which pushes the national custom to a conspicuous eminence. But we cannot give more space to this.

There is much in the volume about the educational value of elementary geometry. In the broad sense that mathematics is good mental discipline, and that modern mathematicians are the only men who reason with precision, we think the author quite right. That is as far as we can go along with him. To judge of the matter

it would be indispensable to inquire how far elementary metric geometry reasons correctly, and whether or not, in rendering its reasoning sound (without which it must be positively mischievous), it would not necessarily become far too difficult for the average boy. There is a way in which, by easy exercises, geometry would gradually develop great logical strength in almost any boy; but it supposes such a revolution in the methods of presentation and of instruction as would be practicable only in a country where teachers were more genuinely educated and had more leisure and stimulus to study than they have in ours. In default of that, the very inferior, but much easier, subject of the theory of numbers affords a far sounder discipline of the logical powers.

Handbook of Birds of the Western United States. By Florence Merriam Bailey. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

Bird students have long wanted a comprehensive manual of Western birds that should correspond to Mr. Frank M. Chapman's authoritative and attractive manual of Eastern birds. The book just published by Mrs. Bailey meets the need in a highly satisfactory way. The author records original observations on nearly every page, and she has thoroughly explored the literature of Western birds even down to publications of which the ink is hardly dry. Though the book is in the main a systematic work, it begins with short essays on the migration, the distribution, the economic value, and the protection of birds, and methods of studying them and of preparing specimens. Several local lists and a bibliography complete the introductory matter. The main body of the work takes up systematically every species and subspecies of bird in the United States west of the hundredth meridian. An important feature is the system of keys similar to that employed by Chapman and Ridgway. Illustrations are given for nearly all the birds, many of them from drawings by the best of our bird artists, Mr. Louis Agassiz Fuertes. Some of the other illustrations, particularly those made from photographs of skins, do not quite reach the nicety of execution otherwise uniform in the book.

The keys and the numerous illustrations make the work of identifying birds comparatively easy. Suppose that the student has in his hand a certain bird closely associated "with the fields of dry cornstalks and the smoky, budding wood-lots" of early spring, and with the frosty stubble and sere thickets of autumn. The key shows him, by the character of the bill and the size and position of the hind toe, that the bird belongs to the order of gallinaceous birds. Turning to the special key to that order, he finds that because his bird is without spurs, metallic plumage, and naked head or vaulted tail, it is excluded from the family of turkeys and pheasants, and falls into that of grouse, partridges, and quails, the Tetraonidæ. There are a dozen genera in this family, but a key supplemented by marginal drawings of the diagnostic parts of birds of the different genera is a sufficient guide. Of the two main divisions of the family, this bird belongs, not to the group in which the legs are feathered down to the base of the toes, but to that in which the contrary is true; further, it belongs to the subdivision that has no ruff, thus being separated from the ruffed grouse; still further, it fits into the minor division having the tail more than half as long as the wing, and the claws moderate. Since its head is not crested, however, it is excluded from the group of partridges. There remains for it, then, only the genus Colinus, and because it has a white throat and under parts lightly and irregularly barred, it must be *Colinus virginianus*, the common bob-white. For identifying birds in the field, without specimens, a "field key" is appended to the book.

Under each species the author notes color, measurements, and general structure, distribution, food, and character of nest and eggs, and generally adds an original description of the bird's appearance, habits, and landscape setting. In this last work, which is the most attractive part of the text, Mr. Vernon Bailey has given considerable assistance. The following extracts show the interesting style of the descriptions:

"The magpie is a feature of the landscape, whether seen in flight as a black air-ship, with white side-wheelers and long, black rudder moving against a background of red cliffs in the Garden of the Gods, or seen standing as a lay-figure on a stone wall in a Mormon village. There is always a freedom and largeness about his proceedings. Sometimes he will take wing so near that you see the green gloss on his back, flying with even water-level flight far and away, till he becomes a black dot and disappears beyond your field of vision. His masterful, positive character is not lost even when he goes squacking about his daily business. Whatever he does or says, he claims the attention of the neighborhood, except when he has a secret to hide. . . .

"The road-runner is one of the most original and entertaining of Western birds. The newcomer is amazed when the long-tailed creature darts out of the brush and races the horses down the road, easily keeping ahead as they trot, and, when tired, turns out into the brush and throws his tail over his back to stop himself. Even the oldest inhabitant likes to talk about the swift runner, whom it takes a "right peart cur to catch,' and who eats horned toads, comes to drink and feed with the hens in the dooryard one day, and the next may be hunted vainly in the dense chaparral or cactus where it makes its home." . . .

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barnes, Anna M. The Red Miriok. (Containing also Shan Folk-Lore Stories, by W. C. Griggs.) Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Beylié, L. de. L'Habitation Byzantine: Les Anciennes Maisons de Constantinople, Supplément. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Brooks, J. G. The Social Unrest. Macmillan.
Buchheim, C. A. Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Rev. ed. by Hermann Schoepfeld. (Clarendon Press Popular Classics.) Henry Frowde.
Budge, E. A. W. A History of Egypt, from the End of the Neolithic Period to the Death of Cleopatra VII., B. C. 30. 8 vols. (Books on Egypt and Chaldæa.) Henry Frowde.
Burton, William. A History and Description of English Porcelain. London: Cassell & Co.; New York: A. Wessels Co. $10.
Carlyle, Thomas. The French Revolution: A History. Introduction, etc., by J. H. Rose. 3 vols. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $9.
Daley, J. G. The Rose and the Sheepskin. W. H. Young & Co. $1.
Eberhardt, Max. Gedichte. Chicago: Koelling & Klappenbach. $2.50.
Fernald, J. C. Scientific Side-Lights. Funk & Wagnalls.
Flint, Robert. Agnosticism. Scribners. $2.
Grimm, Herman. Unüberwindliche Mächte. 2 vols. Berlin: J. G. Cotta'sche Buchhandlung; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Hooker, Richard. Of the Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity. The Fifth Book. Macmillan.
Hulbert, A. B. Indian Thoroughfares. (Historic Highways of America.) Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
Jordan, D. S. The Philosophy of Despair. San Francisco: Paul Elder and Morgan Shepard.
Leadbeater, C. W. Man Visible and Invisible. John Lane.
Lee, Sidney. Queen Victoria. A Biography. Macmillan. $3.
Lockwood, G. B. The New Harmony Communities. Marion (Ind.): G. B. Lockwood.
Mead, Elwood. Irrigation Institutions. (The Citizen's Library.) Macmillan. $1.25.
Memoirs of Francois René, Vicomte de Chateaubriand. Vols. V. and VI. (Translated by Alexander Teixeira de Mattos.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Mortimer, A. G. The Creeds: An Historical and Doctrinal Exposition of the Apostles', Nicene, and Athanasian Creeds. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.80.
Nietzsche, Friedrich. The Dawn of Day. (Translated by Johanna Volz.) Macmillan. $2.50.
Norris, Frank. The Pit. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Oliphant, T. L. K. Rome and Reform. 2 vols. Macmillan. $7.
Perry, W. C. The Boy's Iliad. Macmillan. $1.25.
Phillimore, J. S. Sophocles. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne. Vol. VI. Oxford (Eng.): Oxford Historical Society.
Shea, J. G. Early Voyages Up and Down the Mississippi. New ed. Albany: Joseph McDonough.
Smith, J. T. The Art of Disappearing. W. H. Young & Co. $1.50.
Spalding, J. L. Socialism and Labor, and Other Arguments. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 80c.
Stinson, S. S. Whimlets. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co.
Von Zittel, K. A. Text-Book of Palæontology, Vol. II. (Translated by C. R. Eastman.) Macmillan. $2.75.
Wolfson, A. M., and Hart, A. B. Essentials in Ancient History. American Book Co. $1.50.
Works of Jane Austen. 5 vols. (The Hampshire Edition.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.
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NET ASSETS, January 1, 1902,		$62,649,582 92
RECEIVED IN 1902.		
For Premiums	$5,271,681 42	
For Interest and Rents	2,889,893 08	
		8,161,574 50
		$70,811,157 42
DISBURSED IN 1902.		
For claims by death, matured endowments, and annuities,	$4,377,328 44	
Surplus returned to policy-holders,	1,314,850 11	
Lapsed and Surrendered Policies	500,549 71	
TOTAL TO POLICY-HOLDERS,	$6,192,728 26	
Commisions to Agents, Salaries, Medical Examiners' Fees, Printing, Advertising, Legal, Real Estate, all other Expenses	983,856 97	
TAXES	394,522 89	
Profit and Loss	57,257 98	
		7,628,366 10
BALANCE NET ASSETS, Dec. 31, 1902		$63,182,791 32
SCHEDULE OF ASSETS.		
Loans upon Real Estate, first lien		$24,256,739 50
Loans upon Stocks and Bonds		2,300 00
Premium Notes on Policies in force		641,884 78
Cost of Real Estate owned by the Co.		11,932,836 80
Cost of Bonds		24,937,291 94
Cost of Bank and Railroad Stocks		803,454 00
Cash in Banks		598,252 71
Bills receivable		2,404 04
Agents' Debit Balances		7,627 55
		$63,182,791 32
ADD		
Interest due and accrued	$895,018 35	
Rents due and accrued	11,558 38	
Market Value of stocks and bonds over cost	1,202,252 86	
Net uncollected and deferred Premiums	353,015 80	
	$2,461,845 39	
Less Bills Receivable and Agents' Debit Balances	10,031 59	
		$2,451,813 80
ADMITTED ASSETS December 31, 1902,		$65,634,605 12
LIABILITIES:		
Amount required to reinsure all outstanding Policies, net, Co.'s standard	$57,576,391 00	
All other liabilities	1,678,221 69	
		$59,254,612 69
SURPLUS (including contingent real estate depreciation mem. account, $420,540 57)		$6,379,992 43
Ratio of expenses of management to receipts in 1902		12.05 per cent.
Policies in force Dec. 31, 1902, 69,752, insuring		$165,858,225 00

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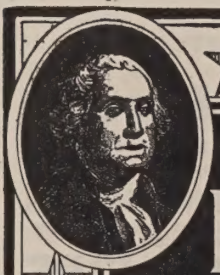

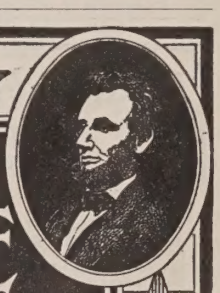

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 5, 1903.

The Week.

The repeated and disappointing delays in the Venezuelan negotiations, culminating on Monday in news of what is practically a deadlock between Minister Bowen and the allies, are vexing but not necessarily alarming. As we understand the situation, an agreement to refer the whole matter to the Hague Tribunal will be fallen back upon in case the direct intervention of Mr. Bowen, as plenipotentiary of Venezuela, should wholly fail. Chancellor von Bülow, in his speech in the Reichstag of January 20, spoke of President Castro's having "recognized in principle the demands of the three Powers," and having given his "assent to the preliminary conditions for the reference of the dispute to the Court of Arbitration at The Hague." There, we infer, the case will go if no short-cut settlement can be had at Washington. While this is happily true, we think, however, that a review of the whole affair down to the present will not heighten one's idea of the wisdom with which it has been managed by England and Germany. Their new way of collecting old debts, *manu militari*, has not proved a great success, nor is it likely to be followed as a fortunate precedent. Reduced to the ordinary commercial terminology, their plan has been first to destroy a good part of the assets of their debtor, and then to incur such heavy expenses of litigation that they are certain to lose by the whole transaction, no matter what they may be able to recover in the end. If any one says that there was national dignity to be vindicated as well as payments to be exacted, we would ask what evidence there is that English or German national vanity has been flattered by the mortifying incidents of the Venezuelan blockade.

As if to emphasize the blunder of the Anglo-German way of collecting Venezuelan debts, a full account is now given of the success of the French in submitting their claims to arbitration, getting a just award, and having the money in sight. Mr. Bowen was not far wrong in saying that to compel such creditors to come in after those who had plunged into a *bouffe* war would be an "offence to civilization." A trading world cannot afford to put a premium upon violent interruptions of commerce. Indeed, the chief instruction to be had from the whole affair is that peaceful methods of settling international differences are more profitable, as well as more civilized, than an impetuous appeal to arms.

The announcement has been made at Washington that neither President Roosevelt nor Secretary Hay had any agency in adding the monopoly clause to the Cuban treaty, and that neither of them favors it. The clause provides that, during the five years that the treaty remains in force, the United States will not make a treaty with any other foreign country admitting sugar at rates of duty lower than those of the Dingley tariff. This amendment is supposed to be the price demanded by the beet-sugar men for allowing the treaty to be ratified at all. On its face it looks like an additional clause in favor of Cuba which the Cubans did not ask for; but, in fact, it is a clause inserted for a private interest in the United States. It could not fail to be injurious to the consumers of sugar, and embarrassing to the executive branch of the Government in case it should desire to negotiate with other sugar-producing countries. Its most unseemly feature, however, is its gratuitous stab at England, the only friend we had in the war with Spain, and without whose moral assistance in that crisis our difficulties might have been much greater than they were. The British islands in the West Indies are small, and the amount of sugar produced by them is inconsiderable; but they depend upon the American market, and they buy from us as much as they sell to us. We ought not to shut the door of reciprocity in their faces, and we cannot decently do so when we consider the fact that England is not only the best friend we have in Europe, but much the best customer we have in the world.

The vulgar language used in the Senate debate last week about the murder of Father Augustine should not obscure the right and wrong of the discussion. The Democrats were speaking for the honor of the country and the army; the Republicans for a policy of secrecy and suppression, and for connivance at crime. In defending Capt. Brownell against the charge of murdering Father Augustine, Mr. Proctor admitted that he was guilty of the water-cure torture. Alleging mysterious crimes on the part of the priest, Mr. Proctor declared him more guilty than many a man executed by drumhead court-martial in 1861-1865. He had a fit companion in Senator Beveridge. For reasoning, this gentleman substituted pitiful mouthings about defending the army; with calumniations of the men who would punish criminals, whatever their rank or uniform. There is no getting such as he to face the facts: "Do you deny the charges?" "Oh, but you are slandering the army!" "Is it not true that a foul murder was done?" "How can you so vilify the boys in blue?" But if Beveridge and his kind shirked the issue or beclouded it in the interest of the criminals, it must not be forgotten that the War Department admits Capt. Brownell's guilt in the death of Father Augustine. Yet it finds itself unable to act, and Father Augustine's murderers go about without the brand of the criminal.

The annual farce of trying to get the Senate to accept consular reform came to grief in the usual way—the amendment was ruled out on a point of order. Points of order in the Senate, we observe, are valid only against reform measures. The occasion was seized by Senator Beveridge to emit some words —he would call them ideas—on the need of keeping our consular service in a constant state of flux in order to increase its efficiency. His philosophic eye had observed that whenever a consul feels sure of his place, "his energy gives place to indolence," and his "pushing power in the public interest is minimized." Hence the consuls must be in a perpetual "shake-up." This is certainly a novel doctrine of business efficiency. We have no objection, however, to seeing Senator Beveridge's chalice commended to his own lips. He is evidently in need of those "fresh surroundings" which, he says, are so vital to the public servant. He feels too "sure of his place," and, on his own principles, ought to give way to some one else. We should be glad to see him make such a test, in his own person, of his doctrine that a greenhorn is always better than a man of experience.

It is a severe but wholesome rap over the knuckles which President Roosevelt has received in the vote of the Senate Judiciary Committee to reject his nomination of Addicks's man Byrne as District Attorney for Delaware. We have no desire to rub salt into Mr. Roosevelt's wounds. To be held up to the country as less delicately scrupulous about the administration of justice than Senators are, and to be impliedly rebuked, even by the Senate, for his dalliance with the most notorious political corruptionist of the day, constitutes punishment enough. The President must now have his Addicks lesson by heart. It was Mr. Roosevelt's apparent willingness to deal at all with this political pariah, whose touch is contamination, that stunned the decent people of the nation when they first heard of it. He promptly retreated when he found out what public sentiment really was, but held on

to Byrne. Now that the tool of Addicks has proved too much for even the stout Senatorial stomach, the President should withdraw the nomination altogether, and join heartily with the honest men of Delaware in their determined attempt to bury Addicks and all his works.

The House passed last week the Senate bill to increase the salaries of the Federal Judges. Under this act, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court will receive $13,000, the Associate Justices $12,500, the Circuit Judges $7,000, the District Judges $6,000, the Chief Justice of the Court of Claims $6,500, and Associate Justices $6,000. The Justices of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia are also to benefit by the bill, as their salaries are made $6,000. It cannot be said that these increases are revolutionary in character. At present the Chief Justice of the United States receives $10,500, and his associates in the Supreme Court $10,000 each. The Circuit and District Judges will gain $1,000, and those of the Court of Claims $1,500, in addition to their present salaries. Any law which makes it possible to obtain better men for these high positions is heartily to be approved. It is impossible to expect, of course, that Federal judicial salaries can of themselves compete with the financial attractions of private practice, but the increases just provided are in keeping with changed financial conditions in the legal profession, and are also warranted by the enlarged business of all the courts concerned. Compared to the $17,500 received by the Supreme Court Justices in this city, none of the salaries can be said to be exorbitant; but these local payments are exceptional and probably unequalled throughout the United States. The dignity and permanence of the Federal positions are still so attractive as to make them the supreme objects of ambition to the legal profession as a whole.

The Washington correspondent of the *Evening Post* epitomizes a report made, but not printed, to the Treasury in 1894 on the subject of the Newfoundland herring fisheries. This report showed, first, that dutiable fish bought in Newfoundland were customarily admitted free of duty at United States custom-houses, although in many cases the statements of the masters of vessels showed that the herring could not have been caught by American fishermen. The loss of revenue for the particular season investigated, that of 1894-5, was $84,000. The investigation has brought out on the part of many United States officials a curious reluctance to interfere with this form of smuggling. In fact, the Treasury, since the report of 1894 was filed, has acted upon it only by way of reversing its own decisions which may have embarrassed this illicit trade, and of making it easier for the alleged fishermen to forswear themselves. Republican politics in Massachusetts, and especially the influence of Gloucester, must be credited with this extension of Republican "protection" to a smuggling industry. It will be apparent that the Massachusetts herring freighters who at present pay no duty, should not oppose the Newfoundland reciprocity treaty, which will merely legitimize a traffic at present irregular. The Treasury has already stretched conscience to the breaking-point for these alleged fishermen and actual importers; and the Senate, when it takes up the Hay-Bond treaty, should not feel that they are entitled to any additional favors.

The blindness of the Treasury Department to the operations of the smugglers of herring on the New England coast is in glaring contrast to its keenness of scent for duties on books imported at New York. Herring caught by Newfoundland fishermen and sold by them to Massachusetts skippers have been admitted free of duty for many years, whereas the importers of books have been paying the legal rates of duty computed on the actual cost of the books in the foreign market. Now, however, the customs service has discovered that in some instances foreign books are sold to American buyers at lower rates than to the home buyers. So the customs authorities raise the invoice value of the imported books, and put a penalty on top of that; but the herring smugglers meet no such difficulties. It makes all the difference in the world whose ox is gored! Of course the appraiser of books at the port of New York is not the appraiser of fish at Gloucester, Mass. Each functionary of the Government must answer for himself at the bar of court, at the bar of history, and at any other bar he frequents. But is it not a curiosity in tariff administration that the Government should show so much greater activity in hunting down honest book-buyers than dishonest smugglers of fish?

Political economy would never have been called "the dismal science" had Secretary Shaw been the only economist. In his address in this city on Thursday Mr. Shaw gave the full-blooded old arguments for protection with an enthusiasm and conviction now rare. He reprehended "school-masters" and free traders for their habit of thinking of the "human race as a unit." Statesmen, on the contrary, must think of "the United States as a unit," and presumably as something quite distinct from the human race. On the subject of tariff revision, Secretary Shaw was equally lucid. He admitted imperfection in the present schedules, but denied that such imperfection called for correction. "Some one, some industry, some interest ought to show an actual hardship, before present conditions are disturbed." A little later Secretary Shaw proved that such "hardship" could arise only through tinkering the tariff, and said very prudently, in the light of previous revisions of the tariff by its friends, that in case of further meddling by the Republicans "no one dare insure against the tariff schedules being made worse." These were words of wisdom. Meanwhile he exhorted his audience to rejoice in their increasing "consumptive power," by which he meant their ability to pay high prices for American-made goods. No one who has recently scrutinized his coal dealer's and butcher's accounts quite wishes congratulation upon the enhancing of his "consumptive capacity." But apparently the West Side Republicans to whom Secretary Shaw spoke are given rather to sentiment than to mathematics; for they were equally edified by his congratulations and by his anti-revisionist Q. E. D.

Two significant events in the educational world are worthy of note—the incorporation in Washington of the General Education Board under an act of Congress, and the decision of the Trustees of the Peabody Fund to work hand in hand with the new organization, so that there shall be no duplication of effort. The General Education Board, in a statement to the public, announces that it is now organized to receive funds and to act as trustee for the disbursement of such sums as may be given it for Southern educational purposes. The Board, like all who have looked into school conditions in the South, is emphatically of the opinion that "no wiser or more patriotic opportunity for philanthropy is before the people of the United States." Mr. Rockefeller has given the Board the sum of $100,000 a year for ten years, but this is only a small part of what is needed, and the Board's appeal should meet with a prompt response from all who are philanthropically inclined. As already stated in these columns, the Board aims to be a general clearing-house and investment headquarters for all who desire to contribute to this worthy cause.

Under the terms of Mr. Peabody's will, the Peabody fund could have been wound up and the principal distributed some five years ago. The trustees wisely decided then to keep up their policy of distributing the income. This method of aiding the institutions which it has helped to support is far more stimulating to them in the way of getting them to help themselves than would be the distribution of the total as an endowment fund for various institutions. Eventually, of course, the Peabody Fund will be distributed, perhaps through the agency of the General Education Board itself. At present, however, the trus-

tees merely seek closer relations with the Board. One action taken by them on Thursday last is significant of the changed conditions in the South since the fund was originally constituted. They voted to found and maintain a "Peabody College for Teachers." Good Southern teachers are among the crying needs of the hour, which both the General Education and Southern Educational Boards have recognized by aiding normal schools and summer schools of instruction for teachers. Such an institution as is planned by the Peabody trustees would make its influence felt throughout the South in a surprisingly short time.

The supporters of the 1,000-ton barge canal have united on a bill which provides for deepening the Erie and Oswego canals to twelve feet and the Champlain Canal to seven feet. It also provides for the necessary widening, and for lengthening of locks so that canalboats of the desired capacity can be accommodated. The route proposed for the main canal from Lake Erie to the Hudson River is that of the present Erie Canal, modified at certain points to make use of the Seneca and Oneida Rivers and a part of Oneida Lake, as well as the Niagara River from Tonawanda to Buffalo. Changes in the route, as a result of which the canal will no longer run through the business centres of Utica, Syracuse, and Rochester, have been made. The estimated cost of all the improvements called for in the bill is $82,000,000. This figure is based upon the carefully prepared statistics contained in the report of State Engineer Bond, whose surveys and estimates were made after the most minute investigation by experts. The total of $82,000,000 includes an allowance of 20 per cent., added by Engineer Bond to all his estimates to cover increased cost of labor and material, and other unexpected or incidental charges. The bill provides, of course, that the whole project shall be submitted to the people at the election next November. The referendum is required by the Constitution. Under the Constitution, bonds for public improvements cannot be issued to run for a longer period than eighteen years, but the Legislature has already adopted a joint resolution proposing an amendment to the Constitution which would permit the bonds to be issued for a fifty-year period. This resolution must be passed by the present Legislature, and the amendment submitted to the people, before the long-term bonds can be authorized; but no doubt the amendment will be adopted if the canal project is.

In this connection it is interesting to note that the Erie canal has still a considerable balance to its credit in its dealings with the State. At the close of the year 1882, at which time tolls were abolished on the canals, the revenues collected by the State on the Erie exceeded all sums paid out upon it for any purpose whatsoever, including original cost, by $42,599,718. This amount, of course, has been reduced by the cost of maintaining and repairing the canal since tolls were abolished, and by the $9,000,000 expenditures authorized in 1895; but in 1899, when the Roosevelt Commission made its report, there was still a balance in favor of the Erie Canal of more than $20,000,000 paid into the State treasury, in excess of the entire cost of the canal from the turn of the first spadeful of earth to the date of the report.

The asserted inferiority of British workmen has been in a measure disproved by a recent building enterprise at Manchester, which also brought out strikingly the superiority of American methods of building. When the Westinghouse Company decided to build a plant at Manchester, the contract was given to Mr. J. C. Stewart, who accomplished the work in something like half the time estimated by British contractors. Mr. Stewart, however, worked entirely with English sub-contractors and laborers, and his success was due largely to his energy in keeping various shifts always at work on the building, and in offering a handsome increase of wages for all work done over-time. A similar demonstration followed in the same city in the case of the terminal hotel of the Midland Railway, the largest in Great Britain outside London, the construction of which is, in eight months, as far advanced as it was to have been in twelve. It will be finished in a little more than a year, though two was the smallest estimate of the British experts. These two instances of rapid building have attracted much attention in England, and are viewed with something of that mixture of admiration and disquietude which greeted the shipping of the Atbara bridge from American forges to the upper Nile.

It is at once an implied compliment to the United States, and a noteworthy sign of the times, that a strong movement for revising the French Constitution is on foot, with the aim of giving the Court of Cassation powers equivalent to those of our Supreme Court. France has had no such judicial check on unconstitutional legislation, or violation of the rights of the private citizen by act of Parliament. Like the Commons of England, the French Chamber has had full power to pass what laws it pleased, with no judge to say it nay. How small a part the judiciary plays in the political institutions of France may be seen in Mr. Bodley's 'France,' in which not so much as a single chapter—apparently not a full page—is devoted to the subject. Compare the many pages which Mr. Bryce surrenders to a study of American courts in reference to our Constitution and lawmaking. That thoughtful Frenchmen should perceive the need of some norm of legislation and of an independent court to apply it as a test to the enactments of the Parliament, suggests once more that deep instinct of conservatism in the French political character which survives so many startling changes and radical proposals.

Austria and Russia have now joined Germany and France in adopting higher tariff duties as against all countries which do not give them favorable commercial treatment. This is the very news that Senator Lodge was in search of the other day. Could it be, he asked in a pained resolution, that any country on earth was preparing to enact high customs duties against the United States? Well, all the leading nations, except England, appear to be getting ready to do that very thing. And we fear that they will only laugh if our Senate attempts to play the rôle of injured innocence. That Senate, which is the foster-mother of the highest of high tariffs, which secretly strangles to death every reciprocity treaty that is sent to it, is surely not in a position to cry bloody murder when others execute the villany it has taught them. For Uncle Sam to exclaim in horror at the sin of protective tariffs in *other* countries, is certainly to make the old gentleman unnecessarily ridiculous.

Reports of massacre and even worse outrages in Macedonia emphasize the need of European intervention, and cast grave doubt upon the efficacy of the joint proposals of Austria and Russia recently made to the Porte. The plan formulated by Count Lamsdorf after his recent trip through the Balkans has, in fact, this weakness, that it seems to benefit only the Christian subjects of Turkey. Accordingly it bears the look of unwarrantable coercion at Constantinople. The Sultan may agree to it as he has done to many other plans of reform; but that he will carry it out faithfully nobody believes. A correspondent of the London *Times* has lately pointed out a principle heretofore strangely overlooked, that reform in Turkey must comprehend the Muslims as well as the Christians. This the Russo-Austrian proposal of schools and a gendarmery officered by Christians fails to do, and daily infliction of atrocities on the Macedonian Christians may be accepted as the real answer of the Porte, whatever its diplomatic reply may be. The present disorders are probably only an earnest of those that will ensue with the coming of spring. Then it will be seen whether Russia still has such a hold over the Macedonian revolutionary committees as to postpone again a settlement which must soon be made—even at the risk of repeating the history of 1877-8.

THE NEW SILVER MOVEMENT.

President Roosevelt has asked Congress to give him power to lend the support of the United States to "such measures as will tend to restore and maintain a fixed relationship between the moneys of the gold-standard countries and the silver-using countries." This authority is asked without any suggestion, and apparently without knowledge, of the fact that a large part of our political and diplomatic activity during the past quarter of a century had been directed to that very problem—the problem, namely, how to cause two things to be of equal value when they are of unequal value. This was the underlying question in three international monetary conferences, and also in the Wolcott Commission of 1897.

The resemblance of the latter to the plan now recommended by the President, if we may judge from the accompanying documents, is rather striking. Mr. Wolcott and his colleagues went to England not expecting to bring about any change in the monetary standard of the United Kingdom, but to induce her to lend India to some experiment for supporting the price of silver. The Salisbury Ministry, being little skilled in the subject, and having very imperfect knowledge of the state of public opinion in either India or England, assented to the project, stipulating, however, that the single gold standard should be maintained in the United Kingdom, and stipulating also that both the United States and France should open their mints to the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 15½ to 1. On those conditions Lord Salisbury, in the innocence of his heart and the paucity of his knowledge, agreed to recommend that the Government of India should reopen its mints to the free coinage of silver, and that the Bank of England should keep silver in its vaults to the extent of one-fifth of its metallic reserve. When these facts were fully made known, there was such an overwhelming protest of public opinion in both England and India against it that Lord Salisbury was obliged to say that he could not go on with the negotiation. It was a mortifying failure.

Yet the Wolcott Commission had a much more promising start than any which could be set on foot now to accomplish the like task. That task, as we have said, is to make two unequal things equal to each other. It is so declared in the papers submitted with the President's message. The joint communication of the Ministers of Mexico and China presents their wish in these words:

> "It is desired that the Governments of gold-standard countries having dependencies where silver is used, and the Governments of silver countries shall coöperate in formulating some plan for establishing a definite relationship between their gold and silver moneys, and shall take proper measures to maintain such relationship."

"Definite relationship between their gold and silver moneys" means holding the values of the two kinds of money at a parity. This may be done by one country for itself alone. Indeed, it is done by the United States at this moment. It is done by limiting the amount of silver money to the needs of retail trade, and compelling its use in such trade by abolishing other money of small denominations. But how this is to be done internationally—that is, by concert of action between a number of countries—we defy anybody to point out. The attempt to accomplish this end in the four or five countries of the Latin Union was a total failure. As soon as a divergence took place between the legal ratio and the market ratio of gold and silver, the cry of *sauve qui peut* was raised, and each of the countries concerned made haste to stop the coinage of silver. France limited her coinage secretly in 1873, openly in 1874, and stopped it altogether in 1876. The other countries were glad to escape in the same way from the agreement they had made to establish "a definite relationship between their gold and silver moneys."

Yet there was a much better opportunity to carry out this scheme in the case of the Latin Union than in the one now mooted in Washington. The Latin Union countries had a common currency at the start. They began with a legal ratio that was coincident with the market ratio. They were adjoining countries territorially, and they were, in point of intelligence, the equals of any nations in the world. They were not the colonies of any other countries, and hence were not obliged to take their decisions from distant masters whose action they could not anticipate. How different are the conditions of the peoples which it is now sought to link together in a monetary union. In the first place, the legal ratio which they wish to establish is that of 32 to 1, whereas the market ratio is far different, and fluctuating violently. The countries concerned are certainly not of a high range of intelligence, and only one of them can be properly called self-governing. Mexico is, in a sense, self-governing—that is, government is not imposed from without—but China can hardly be called such. The Philippines are governed at Washington, the Straits Settlements at London, and Tonquin at Paris. A monetary union to be made of such a hotch-potch is inconceivable. We have had one foretaste of its difficulties in the disagreement at Washington on the Philippine Currency Bill of last session and again in the present session. The new movement will amount to nothing except the salaries and expenses of the commissioners. Meanwhile, it will revive in this country the obfuscation and perversity on the subject of bimetallism for which we have paid, and are still paying, so dear.

The House Democrats voted, the other day, in favor of the gold standard for the Philippines, and all the Republicans, except the financial leaders, voted against it. That the "limping standard" bill proposed by the House Philippine Committee, and which was voted down by the House, was a part of the larger silver project brought forward by the Mexican and Chinese Ministers in Washington, appears from the fact that it is referred to in their communication to our Government under date of January 15. The House had not then taken action on the Philippine Currency Bill, but the Ministers of those two Governments said in their communication: "One such plan has already been proposed in both houses of the Congress of the United States with reference to the Philippine Islands." These Ministers do not call upon us to "*materially* change our currency system," but they hope that something may be done through our treatment of subsidiary coinage to bolster up the price of silver. Now, the only way we can do this is by resuming the purchase of silver bullion, whereas we have enough silver on hand to supply our wants for subsidiary coinage for a hundred years. Would it not add zest to the political campaign next year if the Republicans should be the party "bulling silver" and the Democrats should be contending for the single gold standard?

THE POWER OF THE SENATE.

"They [the Senators] call the offices *their* offices, not the country's offices; and the power of nomination *their* power, not the President's," says Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson in an interesting article in the *Century Magazine* on "The Overshadowing Senate." He shows very clearly how the increasing and dangerous power of "the Senate trade union" depends upon the right of vetoing Federal appointments. It is this control over the offices that makes every treaty and every administrative bill stand or fall by the bargain which the President can drive with the Senate—a bargain in which the advantage is always with the Senate; and it is again this power over the patronage that almost inevitably renders the Senators of a State its political bosses also; this gives them, too, power of political life and death over the Representatives. Thus the Senate has, on the one hand, the President by the throat, and on the other the lower house individually under its thumb; and it would be no great exaggeration to say that it lies with half a dozen of the older Senators to block any useful law or just treaty.

It is needless to say that the framers of the Constitution never intended to vest such power in the Senate. They imagined it not the virtual appointing power, but a reserve check upon a pos-

sibly corrupt or inefficient President; not the treaty-making power, but simply the guarantor of a reasonable publicity and consultation in all foreign affairs; not the preponderating force in legislation, but one coördinate with the House of Representatives. Very likely the Federalists who shaped the Constitution foresaw and deliberately provided for a certain preponderancy of the "upper house." They must have seen that the long term of office, indirect election, and compactness of the Senate, meant stability and consequently influence. What they apparently did not foresee was that, while the Senate was to serve as a check upon the Executive and the popular house of Congress, and even, through the power of confirmation, upon the national judiciary, no effective check upon the Senate had been provided. At this point, apparently, the wise distrust in political human nature which had everywhere else actuated the fathers failed, and they planned a Senate as if there were never to be a Quay or an Aldrich, a Hanna or a Platt.

The exaggerated power of the Senate, as Mr. Nelson has very strikingly shown, comes from a silent conspiracy, which has only of late years been perfected, for the control of Federal appointments and of bills which favor a particular locality. It has come to be unwritten law that the majority party in the Senate will refuse to confirm an appointment to a Federal office in a given State if it be opposed by their party colleagues, the Senators from that State. The "system," as one would call it in speaking of the New York Police Department, has indeed a deplorable similarity to the "all for one and one for all" principle upon which police plunder was distributed in this city.

Of course, no reform of the Senate is likely to come about short of breaking this silent compact for patronage. This should not be a hopeless task, for the compact itself, in its present elaborated form, is of recent growth. Four or five fearless Senators could do much to shatter the unholy alliance. If even two Senators from a single State, realizing how petty and unworthy is this dealing in offices, would break the agreement and expose fearlessly every unjustified hold-up of a Presidential appointment, they would make the Senate chamber temporarily uncomfortable for themselves, but they would undoubtedly make it more uncomfortable for the "Senate trade union." An appeal to the Senate to drop pettifogging and small trading would be simply an appeal to reason, and it will always be in the power of a handful of generous statesmen to establish such an apostolic succession of statesmanship as now exists of office-broking.

The difficulty about reform from within is that it is increasingly harder for high-minded statesmen to pass into the Senate. That body, under the present conditions, draws to itself chiefly the more presentable bosses and the mediocre sort of successful business men who fill the party chest and do the boss's bidding—"wealth unguided and uninformed, untempered by a patriotic and statesmanlike regard for the general welfare." When the real power of the Senate oligarchy is fully understood by the plain people, we shall probably have a Constitutional amendment and popular election of Senators. This will be no sovereign remedy for the ills we have spoken of, but it should at least improve the personnel of the Senate. Under such a system a Platt would have to present himself to the scrutiny of his unbought fellow-citizens. He could not slip back to the Senate through the perfunctory and joyless vote of the creatures whom he had made. Until this unquestionably remote and difficult measure of reform be attained, our hope must be first in better leadership in the House, in courage on the part of the President which shall make him say plainly "Thou art the man" to a Senator who wilfully opposes a fit appointment, a needful bill, or a just treaty; finally, in such concentration of public opinion upon the Senate that it shall be afraid to use wantonly the power it has acquired almost by chance. The preponderancy of the Senate, which carries with it certain advantages, will be in every way less alarming when it is more fully realized. Hence, the present duty of the press is to bring home on all occasions Senatorial responsibility for wrongdoing.

AUTHOR-CONGRESSMEN.

Adam Smith had a low opinion of the business capacity of authors as a class, but he never encountered the author-Congressman. When that member of the irritable genus drops into literature, he is apt to display a skill and a fertility of method which can only leave the ordinary writer wondering why he had never thought of such schemes, and whether he could bring himself to adopt them if he had. Gen. Grosvenor, whose unhappy attempt to write history instead of making it is just now exciting a good deal of unfeeling hilarity, might well have alleged illustrious precedents. Benton and Blaine, Cox and Sherman—were they not all author-Congressmen? And his object, too, not only was blameless, but has good literary warrant. If Scott wrote to build the pile at Abbotsford, why should not Congressman Grosvenor aspire to erect with his pen, not a monument more enduring than brass, but a plain brick house in Athens, Ohio—every brick, of course, being made by Americans for Americans, and laid by union labor?

With examples and aims thus honorable, it is a thousand pities that Gen. Grosvenor has been so misunderstood. It has been said, for example, that an unfortunate air of *de luxe* attaches to this son of the people when he puts out a volume which sells variously at from $25 to $250. But is there not, in this sliding scale itself, a fine considerateness? To the shorn lamb of Wall Street, Gen. Grosvenor handsomely tempers his wind down to $25. As for the rich whom he kindly selects as "patrons" and asks to give a trifle of $250 or $500 for a book whose contents foot up nearly 1,000 cubic inches, it is clearly not their money but their own good that Gen. Grosvenor desires. Books for the million exist in abundance, but where is there a supply of literature for millionaires? The Ohio Congressman has, we are convinced, wholly benevolent designs upon the unlettered wealthy. Let who will make the laws of a nation, is his obvious motto, provided that I may write the volume which will be found on the deck of every private yacht, and which will open the fairy world of literature to the neglected multi-millionaire.

Note, too, the adroit flexibility of Gen. Grosvenor's plan of bringing the comforts of historical composition home to the most despairing magnate. 'The Book of the Presidents' is his title—redolent of patriotism, fairly instinct with the old flag and an appropriation. But the name, like the book itself, is elastic. If you are yourself a President of a railway, or a Trust, or a Republican Club, how insinuating the suggestion that the work is not yet a finality, and that a blank page or two might yet be filled with your biography! It would be a mean-spirited financial nabob who would not pay well for the privilege of thus being jumbled up with Washington or McKinley—all Presidents in the "very miscellaneous assembly" of Gen. Grosvenor's heaven.

Indeed, the literary project of the Ohio Congressman seems to us so meritorious that we are puzzled at a certain timidity and evasiveness of his own in referring to it. At first, he had the usual lofty "nothing to say" to the reporters, who told him that some of his "patrons" considered themselves very much in the light of victims. Then he began to disavow all connection with the sale of the book. He had written it on contract, and there was an end of it, so far as he was concerned. Later, it appeared that he was a financial backer of the publishers—they had a name of which the trade was singularly ignorant. Gen. Grosvenor was "warning every one not to be taken in," telling the public that it "should beware and not buy"—this at the very time that his misinformed agent in this city (the gentleman elegantly known as "the Committee in Charge") was saying that the book was "intended to be a monument to Gen. Grosvenor," and that, of course, "the General's name is the whole thing"! Meanwhile, the *Evening Post* had printed facsimiles im-

plying active, not to say pressing and impudent, interest in the work on the General's part down to a very recent date. To this he sets up the defence of forgery of his signature, and taxes that journal with sinister motives against himself, "a Republican and a protectionist."

On the whole, much as we value Congressman Grosvenor's unselfish intentions, we fear that he has made a mistake. A plain Ohio Representative should hardly have ventured into folio form and "high-art printing." It was sure to lead to misunderstandings. He should have recalled what Voltaire said about its not being the great tome but the little cheap brochure which was the fit tool of the political writer. And as regards brick for his house, he would have been wise to take a hint from Sydney Smith's advice to his vestry, who were debating how to lay a wooden-block pavement—"Just put your heads together, gentlemen, and the thing is done."

MR. CHAMBERLAIN IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Audacity is sometimes, like wisdom, justified of her children; and Mr. Chamberlain's greatly daring plan of going to South Africa in person to confront the problems which the Colonial Office must solve there, has thus far been highly successful. If he is thought of merely as a consummate politician, the cleverness of this move of his cannot but be admired. Even at the Cape, he holds the centre of the stage in England. His speeches are cabled in full and read with breathless interest. His progress from city to city is followed with unflagging attention. While the Prime Minister has to nurse himself at home, and to bear the odium of the unpopular and blundering alliance with Germany, the Colonial Secretary goes on from victory to victory, and his prestige seems to be heightened just in the proportion that that of the Ministry as a whole declines.

It is as a statesman, however, that Mr. Chamberlain's labors in South Africa may fairly entitle him to be judged. If he is acting a part, it must be conceded that he is doing it with extraordinary ability, and deceiving even the very elect of his political opponents. His bearing and his proposals have won public praise for him from such stanch Liberals as Lord Rosebery and Mr. Asquith, and from men who form their judgments on other than party grounds, Liberals though they call themselves—such as Mr. Bryce, John Morley, and Augustine Birrell. Mr. Birrell, in a recent speech, said that Mr. Chamberlain's task was one which required "great courage," and that he had "worthily maintained the reputation he already enjoyed." Further, that the Liberal party would "in no way dishonor the obligations he might enter into in South Africa, always presuming that they had for their main object the peace and prosperity of that quarter of the globe."

Colonial Ministers seldom seek a first-hand knowledge of the colonies they administer. During all the years that Spain owned Cuba, for example, no Minister for *Ultramar* ever set foot in the island. One Colonial Minister did set out to visit Cuba, but the Cabinet fell while he was in transit, so that the first news he had on reaching Havana was that he was no longer in office. There were special reasons, however, in Mr. Chamberlain's case why he should wish to see the field in South Africa with his own eyes. The High Commissioner, Lord Milner, had made himself unpopular both with the loyal colonists and with the conquered but sullen foe. To supersede him would have had a bad effect, it was thought, but to take the reins out of his hands on the spot, as Mr. Chamberlain has quietly done, might lead to good results if a strong man assumed the control. And it was plainly a case where direct dealing with a member of the Government might have the happiest effect upon the discordant populations and conflicting interests which somehow must be welded into a workable whole in South Africa.

That Mr. Chamberlain has had remarkable success in conciliating local opinion and in advancing towards a final settlement, cannot be denied. In meeting the Boers, he has displayed signal tact without any loss of dignity. He has greeted them as brave men who had fought for what they believed the right, and whose hand every Englishman could now clasp with the readiness to let bygones be bygones. At the same time, he has preached the gospel of the British Empire with great fervor, declaring that all separatist tendencies must be for ever ended, whether at the Cape or in the Transvaal or Orange River. The natives he has told that they must work; the English colonists he has indoctrinated in the truth that brains will beat muscle; while the Dutch he has exhorted to contemplate absorption in the Empire as the greatest good that could befall them.

Aside from the triumphs of his personal reception, which have been great, Mr. Chamberlain achieved notable success in arriving at terms of financial settlement. Just how much the Transvaal was to pay, how the money was to be found to make good the ravages of the war, have been burning questions ever since peace was signed. As the exact proposals made by Mr. Chamberlain have been in dispute, we will quote his own words at Johannesburg on January 17:

> "We undertake to submit to Parliament a bill to guarantee a loan of thirty-five millions sterling on the security of the assets of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony, which are being united for this purpose. I should describe it as an investment loan, for it will be devoted to paying the existing debts of the Transvaal, to buying the existing railways, to providing for the construction of new lines in the two new colonies. It will allow for the necessary expenditure upon public works, and will also provide for the land settlement.
>
> "The second part of the agreement is this: As soon as possible after the placing of the first loan, another loan of thirty millions will be issued, to be called up in annual instalments of ten millions. This loan will be treated as a war debt, secured on the assets of the Transvaal. There is no doubt in my mind, or in that of any of those with whom I have conferred, that the assets and revenues of the Transvaal will be ample to provide for the service of this debt; but as proof of their faith in the solvency of the country, that group of financiers who are specially connected with South Africa has undertaken to subscribe the first ten millions, and not to take any commission or any preferential security for the remainder of the loan. By this they have, in my opinion, rendered the success of the loan on the London market beyond all doubt."

Great as is the work already done in binding up the wounds of the war, a vast labor remains, and it will require much time. The enemies which Great Britain still has to overcome in South Africa are greed, indifference to the rights of the blacks, race hatreds, inordinate love of dominion. Those foes will not be wholly put down in Mr. Chamberlain's lifetime, for they represent a problem for the whole world, not merely for South Africa. But his course has thus far been so wisely chosen, his temper so conciliatory, and his plans so sagacious, that his tour in South Africa may be said to have made all the amends now in his power for the rash diplomacy which brought on the untold miseries of a needless war.

PSYCHOLOGY OF THE SALESROOM.

The public sale of a great art collection, like that of the late Henry G. Marquand last week, brings out certain principles, regulating the value of articles, which fall a little outside the scope of political economy. An auction sale of objects of art lacks certain features of the ordinary market, for a market presumes, on the part of buyer and seller, a pretty accurate knowledge of the present value of the thing sold. This is true at an art sale only of a small class of dealers and connoisseurs, and of them in a very limited degree. Prices are regulated by bidders who have no notion whatever of current values, and buy according to their means or their enthusiasm; while the situation is further complicated by the presence of agents who have unlimited orders to buy—directions which must be interpreted by the agent's audacity, and his confidence in the pertinacity of his principal.

These vagaries of the auction room are studied to better advantage in New York than anywhere else in the world. With us great art sales are still a rarity, and the custom of the auction room has not hardened into a code. An auction at Christie's, in London, or the Hôtel Drouot, in Paris, is like a battle according to military law. The non-professional bidder has been entirely eliminat-

ed, and the combatants are impassive dealers who fight according to rule, sternly and without enthusiasm. Nobody knows whether the placid bidder whose every nod means hundreds of guineas or thousands of francs represents an American millionaire with a bottomless purse, a Russian museum, or simply his own sense of speculative values. An American auction, on the contrary, resembles a mêlée in which the regulars are always likely to retire in favor of confident collectors, casual contestants, or merely ignorant persons of wealth. It is these varying passions, disguised in Europe, but fully displayed in America, which make a sale like the recent one of great interest to the student of human nature.

The lover of art looks at the spectacle with somewhat different emotions. He feels, perhaps over-nicely, a certain indignity in making the choicest works of art the prize of the salesroom cock-pit. This feeling grows when he observes that the beauty—that is, the artistic worth—of an object bears only a remote relation to its price. This principle was frequently illustrated at the Marquand sale. For example, the mezzotint engravings after Reynolds brought, on an average, more (one reaching $1,300) than exquisite figurines of Grecian make, and (to take the class of prints by itself) perhaps five times as much as the price for Rembrandt's masterly etchings, or three times as much as Seymour Haden's most important plates. Again, speaking roughly by averages, the conscientious but quite uninspired architectural prints of Haig fairly equalled the Hadens, and left two very beautiful Whistlers well behind.

We shall not be accused of a prejudice against the delightful art of mezzotint engraving (nor, indeed, against the worthy craft of labored architectural etching) if we submit that no copy of a Reynolds, however sympathetic, and no portraiture of a modern cathedral, however faithful, is for a moment comparable to a fine Greek terracotta or a good example of our best modern painter-etchers—not to mention the slightest authentic tracing of Rembrandt's needle. And it should be noted that in this case it is not simple rarity—such as we see in the exaggerated prices paid for "peachblow" porcelain—that makes the less beautiful object command the higher price.

It would perhaps be possible to analyze that complex of the caprice of great collectors and the diplomacy of great dealers which constitutes a fashion in works of art. The moralist and the impecunious will fall back upon the comforting reflection that the fashion is almost always wrong—and always when at its height. There is a kind of law by which the unskilled always buy in the highest market. This is as true of the fashionable collector in the art market as it is of the outsider in the stock market. It is doubtful if a "record" price has often been paid for an object that is the best of its kind. The late Duc d'Aumale for that tiny panel, "The Three Graces," the National Gallery for the "Madonna degli Ansidei," and Mr. Morgan for the "Madonna with St. Anthony of Padua," have successively set the record for paintings by Raphael. Yet none of these pictures is of anything like Raphael's best quality. Similarly the British National Gallery, taking up tardily the Ruskinian fervor for Italian painting of the fifteenth century, paid its highest prices for the more dubious examples now on its walls.

The moral of all this, for such as are not collectors but lovers of art and disinterested observers of the battles of the auction rooms, is: Disregard the relatively more expensive and most abundantly advertised things, and concentrate upon those of middle state. It is there that the abiding things will usually be found. This is, of course, as right a rule for buyers as for onlookers. *In medio tutissimus ibis* seems to be the law of the auction room, as it is of life. It is a satisfaction, also, to remark, as each new auction sale emphasizes the transiency of the fashions of collectors, that artistic value is no more measured by price than is moral worth by the commercial registers.

CONNEMARA, LAND AND PEOPLE.

CONNEMARA, January, 1903.

In a single night, last week, forty thousand mackerel were caught outside the little harbor of Cleggan in Connemara. As the fish-dealers, by their arrangement with the Government, pay for all mackerel, at this season, at the rate of ten shillings per hundred, at least four hundred pounds was earned that night by not more than twenty rowboats. One fisherman admitted having cleared thirty pounds in the week. Yet the rare tourist who should drive through Cleggan would carry away an impression of what he might consider typical misery and squalor. The squalor and dirt are undeniable and are typical enough, for the money of the English and American fish-dealers that pours so freely into the hamlet finds its way into the half-dozen public houses that are conveniently near the little quay built by the Government. Of the ten houses in the little street, six are licensed to sell whiskey. On the morning after pay night last week a fisherman was found drowned within the quay wall under the very windows of the inn where he had been drinking. Nor are the opportunities of buying bad whiskey at a ruinous price likely to decrease while the local shopkeepers are in the majority as rural magistrates. For that is what local government means in Ireland—the predominance of the small shopkeeper, and the consequent withdrawal of the educated classes from local and national politics. In this part of Connaught the shopkeepers have gradually acquired from the country people the tenant-right of a great part of the land, and are beginning to form a middle class from which their descendants will emerge as gentry.

The present distribution of the land in Connemara is a good illustration of the inability of the Irish to keep their footing on their own ground. Half a century ago, the Martins were called the "Kings of Connemara," and boasted that their avenue was forty miles long, since the road for that distance passed through their land and led only to their castle of Ballynahinch. Not many years ago there was still legible over the west gate of Galway the inscription which the Martins and Joyces wrote there in the sixteenth century:

> "From the ferocious O'Flahertys
> Good Lord deliver us."

In those days Connemara, with its outlying islands, was still held by a few Irish chieftains who recognized no law and were well able to maintain their independence of English rule. They looked to Spain and the promised Armada to free them from the annoyance of the encroaching English, who had seized the fortified town of Galway. By land, the mountain passes and dangerous bogs made Connemara inaccessible to the invader. By sea, the pirate galleys of the famous O'Malleys were easily able to outwit the British cutters, which could not follow them through the intricate maze of islands lying off this dangerous coast. Spanish influence was paramount mainly through the prosperous trade of Galway with Spain, and it was not until the failure of the Armada that Connemara began to make terms with the English. "To hell or Connaught" was an oath still in vogue with the soldiers of Cromwell.

The "ferocious O'Flahertys" derived their epithet from their method of getting rid of rival chieftains by the simple Homeric device of inviting them with their retainers to dinner, and slaying them "as one kills an ox at the stall." They and the O'Malleys, with whom they intermarried, long since sold their lands to English owners and disappeared. The ruins of their sea stronghold in Bunown harbor are still a landmark. Though the Martins survive and have maintained their rank, their Castle of Ballynahinch (with the greater part of their vast estates) has passed by the inevitable steps into English hands. The castle of the D'Arcys, who founded Clifden, the capital of Connemara, stands empty, and is falling into the rapid decay that waits on neglect in this damp climate, where a house that stands empty for a year must be practically rebuilt to be habitable. The Joyces, who gave their name to a large tract still marked on the map as "Joyce's Country," are represented by some of the poorest cabin people. Throughout Connemara the same conditions hold. The landowners are English. Hence it is that there are no Catholic gentry, and that all the Catholics walk to one church on Sunday, and all the Protestants drive to another—one of the most significant sights of Irish country life.

This country is the paradise of the sportsman who prefers rough mixed shooting with a great variety of game to organized "drives." The sea and lake fishing is excellent, while the salmon rivers are the best in Ireland. Ireland is, as a whole, more given over to the delights of sport than any country in the world. A keen interest in hunting, racing, coursing, and all the minor forms of sport pervades

every class of society. But to maintain a sporting estate in the west of Ireland one must not be dependent on a revenue from the soil. Fifty years ago, when the district was thickly populated and the rents were unfair to the tenant, the Irish landowner could live from the land; in these days of Land Bills, when the tenants are greatly reduced in number by emigration, and the rents are unfair to the landlord, he must have a fortune independent of his estates. The varied industries that are open to a thrifty worker in these parts are seldom properly estimated by the experts who are sent by the Government to adjust the rents. Every fifteen years, under the recent bill, a tenant may carry the question of his rent into the land courts; the expert comes down, and, being usually unaccustomed to local conditions, underestimates the possibilities of the holding, and the landlord loses still more of his much-reduced rental. The Irish of the peasant class love litigation and will seldom neglect the opportunity; the landlord has everything to lose. With the present conditions of dual ownership, by which the landlord cannot get rid of a tenant however undesirable so long as he pays his rent; with the ever-imminent prospect of some experimental Land Bill which will oblige him to sell on ruinous terms the best portions of his demesne, it is not surprising that a landowner in this part of Ireland regards the possession of land as a hazardous luxury. If a bill should be passed giving the tenants the option of buying the freehold at a few years' purchase, few landowners in this part of Ireland will remain on their estates, which will be ruined for the sporting purposes for which nature seems to have designed them. It is not surprising that, with this in view, those who can afford it have in some cases already bought out the tenant-right from their tenants, preferring a present certain loss to complications in the future. Compulsory purchase in Connemara would be a short-sighted policy for the tenants, because the landowners, who now provide them with regular work by which they eke out their holdings, would promptly desert a district which would provide them with neither income nor sport.

Meanwhile, the promised Land Bill is awaited here without much anxiety. With all his greed of land, the Connemara peasant knows too well that the presence of a landowner who spends money freely on building and improvements means more to him than a few more acres of poor grazing land. That is the reason of the failure of the Land League to gain converts in this district. The solitary "Land-Leaguer" in Cleggan is an object of some distrust and derision among the country people, while the priests, for once, are here, at any rate, on the side of order and the ultimate good of their people. W. C. F.

REBELL'S BALZAC, STENDHAL, AND MÉRIMÉE.—I.

PARIS, January 13, 1903.

It was a singular idea on the part of M. Hugues Rebell to find a bond of unity between the writers named in the catching title of his 'The Inspirers of Balzac, Stendhal, and Mérimée.' It must be declared at once that these inspirers are women; better than men they draw the attention of a frivolous public. The bond I have spoken of is thus defined in the short preface: "Pure chance did not unite these three figures. Though they understood and spent life in such different manners, they have this in common, that they sought nowhere but in themselves for their standard of morality, that they did not live for a crowd or for a group, but for the free development of their imagination, of their sensibility, of their intelligence." And the author adds at the end: "As love is the most vivid and complete passion, which employs all the energies of our being, it reveals better than any other the master faculty, the primordial soul which guides us from youth to death. The pages which it suggests to our writers will help us, better than any document, to imagine their souls."

M. Rebell studies Balzac not only in his novels, but also in the two volumes of his Correspondence. During all his life, Balzac had female correspondents. He confides to an unknown lady, who signs merely Louise, his troubles, his hopes, as if she were an old friend. Madame de Berny had a great place in his life; she had a real devotion for him. When Balzac was in serious money troubles she helped him with her own money, and induced his family and friends to pay the debts of the printing-office which Balzac had imprudently bought. "For twelve years," writes Balzac, "an angel robbed the world, her family, her duties . . . of two hours, which she spent with me, nobody knowing anything about it—two hours, do you hear? Without her I should have died." Balzac was the confidant of Madame de Berny's troubles—the ill conduct of a son, the madness of a daughter, the brutality of a husband. He painted her under the name of Madame de Mortsauf. "Madame de Berny," writes Balzac afterwards to Madame Hanska (who became his wife), "was not young; and, believe me, youth and beauty are something. My dream at that time was incomplete." It was in order to please Madame de Berny that in some of his novels he pleaded the cause of faded beauties, of the "femme de trente ans." Madame de Berny was the daughter of Hinner, who played the harp for Marie Antoinette. After the death of her husband, Madame Hinner married the Chevalier de Jarjayes, one of the men who plotted to save the Queen. Madame de Berny was naturally thrown into royalist society; she knew the Duras, the Castries, the Fitz-James; she rendered Balzac familiar with the feelings, the traditions, of the aristocratic part of France, and she thus furnished him many useful documents for his novels, and probably helped to form his politics, if Balzac can be said to belong to a political party.

We will not speak of several ladies whose names are given by M. Rebell, as they seem to have had very little influence on Balzac's mind. It was not so with the Duchess de Castries, whom he painted under the name of Duchess de Langeais. "She was," says M. Rebell, "perhaps, of all his friends, the one who inspired him with the truest and most human passion." She was a tall woman, with magnificent blond hair, with a Roman and somewhat hard profile; ironical, proud, with much coquetry and some impertinence, having, by contrast, in her eyes, like most invalids, something tender and beseeching." She had had a bad fall on the hunting-field, and had to spend most of her time on a sofa. After having read the 'Peau de Chagrin,' she wished to know the author, and Balzac soon became one of the visitors at the Hôtel de Castries, in the Rue de Varennes. This acquaintance was an event in his life. He continued to work as hard as ever, but he became more worldly, bought two carriages, took two male domestics. He followed his friend to the waters of Aix. Their friendship, to use the words of Madame de Sévigné, was interrupted by storms (*la grande amitié vit de querelles*). Balzac wrote to Madame Zulma Carraud, his constant and devoted friend:

"I have come here for much and for little: for much, as I see a gracious, amiable person; for little, as I shall never be loved by her. . . . She is the finest type of woman, a better Madame de Beuaséant [one of Balzac's heroines]; but are not all these pretty ways assumed at the expense of the soul? I say to myself that a life like mine ought not to be tied to a woman's petticoat, that I must follow my destiny."

The acquaintance ended in a sort of worldly and somewhat dissatisfied and disappointed friendship. Two years after a small incident which had caused some coldness between them, he wrote to her, in answer to a letter of compliments which she had written him:

"You have added a little bitterness to what you have the goodness to say to me regarding my book. I should have preferred to have you look upon my book and my pen as things belonging to you, rather than to receive such eulogies. But I cannot tell you all my soul—it would perhaps astonish you; it would need some veils and some leisure, and I must, poor workman as I am, return to my work. I hear the bell in my cloister, and I must finish for the Review the picture of a sentiment so great in itself that it can resist perpetual wear; it is a spring at which ingratitude can drink without ever drying it."

The relation of Madame Hanska with Balzac began, as was usual with him, with a letter. It came from Odessa, and was followed by many others, all written in relation to his works. It was a somewhat factitious correspondence; but Balzac was a man of imagination. The unknown lady gave him a rendezvous at Neuchâtel; he saw her there, and persuaded himself that he had found a successor to Madame de Castries, a new inspirer. She belonged to the Polish nobility, had been married to Count Wenceslas of Hanski, and had a young child named Anna. The Count was very wealthy, but was twenty years older than herself, and of a disagreeable character. She spent the greater part of the year in a château in the Ukraine. Balzac was more fortunate with Madame Hanska than he had been with Madame de Castries. When she returned to Poland, he wrote to her incessantly. He idealized her, called her his star, his adored mistress; but he often had nothing to say to her—the correspondence was almost a fatigue. He wrote eighteen hours every day, and was proud to say so. He described to Madame Hanska the incidents of his toil, of his struggles. One day, when he had found 6,000 francs at his bookseller's, he says: "I am free for the day; my payments are being made; I am tranquil for a month. *Ecco, signora*, my very faithful spouse, don't I owe you this faithful picture of your ménage in Paris?"

Count Hanski at times became uneasy, and Balzac had to contrive special letters in which he explained that his letters to

his wife were mere literary compositions, which she asked for. When the Count died, his wife became free. She had promised Balzac to marry him. Thirteen years had elapsed; the passion of the first days in Switzerland had had time to cool down. Balzac was struggling constantly with his creditors; he had to flee from house to house in Paris, sometimes to conceal himself absolutely under a false name. His dramas had no success. Madame Hanska did not seem in a great hurry, and found many pretexts for adjourning her marriage. The Emperor of Russia would not give his consent, which was necessary; she could not separate herself from her children. She put off her engagements when she had promised to meet him. Balzac was determined, however, to marry Madame Hanska. He interrupted his work (he was writing the 'Paysans,' a masterpiece which, through the fault of Madame Hanska, remained unfinished), and left twice for Poland. He was suffering from heart disease; Madame Hanska received him politely, took care of him, finally took pity on him. The marriage was celebrated on the 14th of March, 1850, in the Church of Sainte-Barbe of Berditcheff.

He returned to Paris with his wife at the end of May, and established himself in a little pavilion in the Rue Fortuny, which he had bought after some happy speculation, but which was not wholly paid for, though he had filled it with pictures and other works of art and curiosities. His malady was making rapid progress; he had constant suffocations. He could no longer write or even open a book. Madame Hanska was not at his dying bedside, and had not been with him in the latter part of his life. M. Rebell is very hard upon her.

"What had passed?" he asks. "We don't know; but let us admit that Balzac had been unjust and unkind to his wife—was not his malady, were not his sufferings, sufficient excuses . . . ? The attention which the lowest of creatures, which perhaps Madame de Castries, would have been happy to render, because she had a woman's heart—this cold and heartless creature . . . refused to bestow on him. . . . The page in which Victor Hugo denounces her is immortal; immortal also are the letters to the 'Étrangère.' "

She was, indeed, an "étrangère" to Balzac, and his marriage with her was an error on both sides. A literary correspondence, carried on for years, is not a proper introduction to conjugal life. This is perhaps the moral to be drawn from the very imperfect and, in many senses, shallow work of M. Rebell. Men of genius are but poor lovers; they are constantly carried out of the ordinary paths of life; they are the slaves of their own work. Few are so fortunate as to find a companion in life ready to sink her own personality in her husband's, to identify herself with him like a shadow. Balzac's case is particularly painful, as he had bound himself to an almost superhuman task, and as his nature was so complex, so mixed with noble and with coarse elements, as to be a problem even to himself.

Correspondence.

CONTENTIOUS PUBLIC "DOCUMENTS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may safely be assumed that, in ordering the printing of certain public documents, Congress has not intended to stir up religious and historical strife, but in two recent instances such results are likely to follow. The usual reason for ordering the printing of miscellaneous publications as "documents" at public expense is to provide something attractive for members to distribute to their friends and followers, or to meet the demand of some constituent or constituents of a member.

What is known as "Thomas Jefferson's Testament" belongs in the first class, and Senate executive document No. 37 of the third session of the Forty-first Congress belongs in the second class. Of the first-named work, Congress at last winter's session ordered 9,000 copies to be printed, and of the second the Senate, on the 15th of January instant, ordered a reprint of "2,500 additional copies" "for the use of the Senate."

Of the first it is only necessary to say that it is an edition of the New Testament expurgated by a Freethinker, and with a preface to be written by a Jew. Though the Freethinker was one of the Fathers of the Republic, and though the Jew is both scholar and gentleman, it is not to be believed that either of them would have been chosen by Christians to edit or preface a book which the churches hold to be sacred, and which is the foundation of belief in the divinity of Jesus Christ. Few have read the expurgation, but the general understanding is that it edits all the divinity out of the New Testament. Protests against its official publication by the Government have already been made by some religious bodies, and in consequence the member who introduced the resolution which led to its publication tried to have it rescinded, but he did not succeed. If numerous protests do not follow the actual publication of the "document," if document it can be called, it will be strange indeed.

Senate Document 37, first printed in 1871, is now to be reprinted, in all probability because of a controversy over the Marcus Whitman legend which has been running along in the pages of the *Sunday-School Times*, of Philadelphia, for some months past. Notwithstanding the utter obliteration of the legend by Prof. E. G. Bourne, in his 'Essays in Historical Criticism,' the controversy in the *Sunday-School Times* has revealed the fact that there are in Oregon descendants of the early missionaries who adhere to it, and it is very likely that they made the request for the reprint, as the resolution for it, which the Senate considered by unanimous consent and passed without a dissenting voice, was introduced by an Oregon Senator. The probability of the reprint having been ordered at the request of the Oregon adherents of the legend is made greater by the fact that there is a collateral legend to the effect that when Document 37 was published, Catholics secured all the copies and destroyed them.

Document 37 is the H. H. Spalding collection of stories in which the legend that Dr. Whitman made his famous ride across the continent in the winter of 1842-3 to "save Oregon" from British annexation (instead of to save his mission station from closure by the American Board) first appeared in tangible and permanent form. It had previously been published by the Rev. Mr. Spalding in the *Pacific* newspaper of San Francisco, but not even there till many years after the ride and many years after Dr. Whitman's murder by the Indians. In Document 37 Mr. Spalding also reiterates the charge previously made in newspaper publications that the Catholic missionaries in Oregon instigated the murder of Dr. Whitman and his family by the Cayuse Indians in 1847. To this exceedingly offensive and injurious charge the Rev. J. B. A. Brouillet, Vicar-General of Walla-Walla, replied in 1853, in a series of papers first printed in the *Freeman's Journal* of New York, and later in the same year in a pamphlet entitled 'Protestantism in Oregon,' published in New York. This pamphlet was also published as a public document of the United States by both the Senate and the House. It is appended to a report of J. Ross Browne, Indian agent in Oregon, beginning at page 13 and extending to page 66. The document is numbered 38 in the House series, and 40 in the Senate series, both of the Thirty-fifth Congress, first session. The date of the order for printing is March 31, 1858. A second edition of Father Brouillet's pamphlet was published in Portland, Oregon, 1869, under the title, 'Authentic Account of the Murder of Dr. Whitman and Other Missionaries by the Cayuse Indians of Oregon, in 1847, and the Causes which led to that Deplorable Catastrophe.' It is altogether probable that the Catholics will wish to have another edition of Brouillet's book, or of something else, printed as a "document" at public charge to offset the reprint of the Spalding stories. The Spalding document also attributes the instigation to the Hudson Bay Co.

Why should the Government print again a document of which it has already published refutations? The Government did not publish Professor Bourne's criticism; this was, however, read at the 1900 meeting of the American Historical Association, which is to a certain extent a Government institution, as all its proceedings and papers are published as public documents. Professor Bourne chose instead to have his paper printed in the *American Historical Review* (January, 1901), and afterward expanded it into the form in which it appears in his 'Essays in Historical Criticism.' But at the same 1900 meeting of the American Historical Association, Mr. William I. Marshall of Chicago read an equally damaging criticism of the Whitman legend, and this was printed in the Report of the Association as a public document. It is to be found in Volume I. of House document 548, Fifty-sixth Congress, second session. An earlier refutation was published by Mr. H. M. Beadle of Washington in the October, 1899, number of the *American Catholic Historical Research* of Philadelphia.

Dr. Whitman was murdered in 1847, Missionary Spalding died in 1874, Missionary Brouillet died in 1884. Why should they not be permitted to sleep in peace, at least so far as the Government is concerned? Ross Browne, in his report to which the Brouillet pamphlet is appended, says that the early missionaries in Oregon spent more time and effort in quarrelling with each other than they did in caring for the well-being of the Indians. Is it not rather late for the Government to take part in those old quarrels and reopen wounds which only time and silence can heal?

F. A. CRANDALL.

WASHINGTON, January 28, 1903.

THEORY AND INVESTIGATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Richman's study of 'Rhode Island,' of which a very discriminating review recently appeared in the columns of the *Nation*, is an unusually interesting instance of the relation between "theory" and "investigation." It is not always easy to judge, from internal evidence, in the case of any given book, whether (to use your reviewer's language) "the theory" is "the result of the investigation," or "the investigation the result of the theory"; and in those instances where the latter condition is true, it will usually be found that the subject is one which has long exercised a predominating influence over the writer's mind, for any one of several reasons. Either he has long resided in the locality to be studied (such as, in this instance, Rhode Island might be); or the insidious influence of "ancestor worship" has in some way linked him to this locality; or the course of study to which he has been directed by his college instructor has overwhelmingly fixed his attention on that field.

In Mr. Richman's case, not a single one of these conditions was operative, and it is difficult to conceive how there could be a more pronounced example of the opposite extreme. The author in this case is a man well towards middle life, who was born in Iowa, nearly a thousand miles away from Rhode Island, and had never been in this State until he came here in 1900 to begin his investigations. Among his ancestors there is not a single Rhode Island family, and not even a single New England family. Of the State and its history he knew as little as it is possible for one to know of any one of the forty-eight United States; and his interest was fully on a level with his knowledge until a chance remark by Mr. Bryce, made in conversation about six years ago, led him to turn his thoughts in that direction. In brief, his mind, so far as the theory subsequently developed is concerned, was, up to the time of undertaking the investigation, a true "tabula rasa."

Students of historical method will remember a noteworthy address on Ranke by his pupil, Dr. von Sybel, published in the *Historische Zeitschrift* in July, 1886, which indicates with marked lucidity the necessity for avoiding the "subjective" point of view, which persistently tends to mingle itself with one's conceptions, in dealing with historical questions. Whether Mr. Richman has ever met with this paper of Dr. von Sybel, I cannot say; but a recent statement which this American writer has made as to the sequence of "theory" and "investigation" in the processes of his work, shows that he is thoroughly in accord with the German writer's principles. It reads as follows:

> "The narrative part was finished before I began to group the philosophy implicit therein. I finished the narrative, and then, on revising it, began to understand its philosophical significance. This so struck me that I went back over my work, and, without bending it at all, merely pointed out its teaching. This, it seems to me, is exactly what the historical investigator should do—study his facts, and *then*, if he finds meaning therein, announce it."

So far as the work of investigation itself is concerned, Mr. Richman's procedure was thorough to the last degree. At great expense to himself he came to Rhode Island, and made his residence in the State for many months at a time, in two successive years. For reasons which are obvious, he came in contact, while here, rather with custodians of the sources of information (in libraries and manuscript collections, and similar places) than with those who were intimately associated with one or another view of Rhode Island history. Those who talked with him usually recognized the extremely interesting nature of his problem, and, while withholding nothing from him (not even personal opinions, on occasion), of course made no effort to impress any one view of the subject upon him.

What has been said above, in regard to "theory," has reference almost wholly to the "theory of political individualism" which characterizes the completed book. There are various subordinate historical studies involved in the book, all of which are of great interest, including the tracing of an analogy with one of the Swiss cantons, in chapter x. So fully had Mr. Richman's earlier studies, as embodied in his very original volume on 'Appenzell,' turned his attention in this direction, that he would doubtless himself hasten to admit that here his mind could hardly have been the "tabula rasa" which it was in relation to the "main theory."

This contrast, however, only serves to bring into stronger relief the noteworthy character of the book as concerns the development of the main theory, above indicated.

William E. Foster.

Providence Public Library, January 27, 1903.

WHITTIER NEWSPAPERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reply to the inquiry of Prof. G. R. Carpenter, I state that the only file of the *Middlesex Standard* known to have been preserved for the six months during which it was edited by John G. Whittier, who then (1844-1845) lived in Lowell, is now in the possession of the Lowell Historical Society, having been bequeathed to it by the late Zina E. Stone. The papers afterwards published by Mr. Whittier in the book entitled 'The Stranger in Lowell' first appeared in the *Middlesex Standard*, which was published weekly. The file is in one volume, and is in the Society's library in Memorial Hall, Lowell.

Charles Cowley.

Lowell, January 26, 1903.

Notes.

Mr. J. M. Dent is making as complete a collection of the letters of Charles Lamb as possible for publication, and will be grateful to collectors in America who will allow him to have transcripts of their possessions made and forwarded. Communications may be addressed to Messrs. J. M. Dent & Co., 29 and 30 Bedford Street, Covent Garden, London.

Henry Stevens, Son & Stiles, London, have in preparation facsimiles of the recently discovered Waldseemüller map of 1507 and the Carta Marina of 1516, with a geographical and historical introduction by Professors von Wieser and Fischer. The number of copies will be limited. Each map is on twelve large sheets, which, if put together, would approximate the dimension of 8 by 4½ feet.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will shortly bring out "A Midsummer Night's Dream" as first in a series of literal reprints of the plays in the First Folio Shakspere of 1623, to be edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke, and produced in modern type at the De Vinne Press. The same firm announces 'Down the Orinoco in a Canoe,' by Señor Perez Triana.

Proximate publication of the following works is announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons: Émile Boutmy's 'The English People,' translated by Elsie English; 'Buddhist India,' by T. W. Rhys-Davids; and 'Mediæval India under Mohammedan Rule, 712-1764,' by Prof. Stanley Lane-Poole.

Brentano's will soon have ready a work in Danish, 'Of America,' by Carl Fischer-Hansen.

'The Western Slope,' a small volume of essays by Mrs. Celia Parker Woolley, is in the press of William S. Lord, Evanston.

Mr. Charles Welsh, recently with D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, is at work on a 'Key of the Treasure House' (*alias* "The Young Folks' Library" of his compilation).

There must be a law of concurrent publication which gives us this season, for example, FitzGerald, Carlyle, and Webster revivals, and brings to our table at once two handy editions of Jane Austen in five volumes. That of Macmillan Co. is chiefly distinguished, apart from Mr. Austin Dobson's introduction, by the illustrations of Hugh Thomson, and reproduces at lower cost the first output some half-a-dozen years ago. The Messrs. Putnam's edition has a nearly identical typography, measure for measure, yet makes up into somewhat thicker volumes, more elaborately decorated externally (and in very good taste), while the inner covers have been ingeniously employed by Miss Blanche MacManus for bird's-eye-view maps of the actual face of England as involved in Miss Austen's tales, and of the supposed neighborhood in each case. This is an excellent idea, particularly for the sake of readers whose sense of orientation is defective, and who need something more than the author's own grasp of her topography.

Twenty-one years have elapsed since we passed judgment on Mr. J. Henry Shorthouse's historical novel, 'John Inglesant,' which, with all its shortcomings, we found a remarkable first book, worthy of a permanent place in romantic fiction, especially for its Italian portion. "Philosophical romance" is the term which the author prefers for these "Memoirs of the Life of Mr. John Inglesant, sometime servant to King Charles I.," etc. He has now renewed its appeal to the cultivated public in a limited three-volume edition of most generous make, bound in green silk, and printed in large type (Macmillan Co.). Mr. Shorthouse's portrait, after a portrait by Sandys, is prefixed to volume one. No doubt in its new form the story will find a hospitable welcome even from possessors of the old.

From the same publishers, in conjunction with George Bell & Sons, comes a three-volume reissue of Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' edited with a brief introduction and notes corrective and explanatory in moderation by the historian, John Holland Rose. Mr. Rose has something useful and novel to reveal as to the genesis

of the work in Carlyle's early French studies, and his criticism is independent if not exhaustive; but he is in the main an admirer. He thinks that Mill's accidental destruction of the first part of the MS., necessitating rewriting, worked a gain to the narrative, if severely straining Carlyle's physical powers. The large type of this reprint needed more liberal "leading," and the page is formidably compact. A marked feature is the reduced copies of contemporary prints, mostly taken from the 'Tableaux Historiques de la Révolution Française,' with numerous portraits. We shall presently have occasion to discuss the permanent value of the 'French Revolution' in connection with Mr. Fletcher's edition.

The posthumous publication of the late Henry Sidgwick's lectures is continued in a volume on 'The Ethics of T. H. Green, Herbert Spencer, and J. Martineau' (Macmillan), which constitutes the critical outworks of the system embodied in his well-known 'Methods of Ethics,' and exhibits his talent for lucid statement and scrupulous candor to conspicuous advantage. The criticism of Green is rightly put in the forefront: it is the most searching, most valuable, and, it must be added, most damaging. Sidgwick begins by exposing the lack of connection between Green's metaphysics of the eternal self-consciousness and his ethics, and continues by censuring the confusion of his psychology, the inaccuracy of his history, the vagueness and practical uselessness of his moral ideal, and the unfairness and ignorance of his polemics. Altogether, though it is marked by occasional touches of an acerbity to which it must have been hard to provoke Sidgwick's mild wisdom, this criticism must be pronounced to leave little, if any, foundation for the reputation of the confused and singularly overrated thinker whom it dissects. In dealing with Spencer, Sidgwick is chiefly concerned to point out the incomplete fusion in his thought between utilitarian and evolutionist tendencies, and to show that in point of fact more ethical guidance is derived from the former; but he is also very successful in tracing many of Spencer's distinctive doctrines, *e. g.*, his individualism and anti-militarism, to their foundations in his personal sympathies. As against Martineau, Sidgwick contents himself with showing that his intuitionism cannot either claim the support of common sense or solve the actual problems of morals. The volume has been edited by Miss Constance Jones, and has prefixed to it an excellent analysis of the whole argument.

An important legal publication, just completed in three volumes, is Prof. J. H. Beale, jr.'s 'Selection of Cases on the Conflict of Laws' (Cambridge: The Harvard Law Review Publishing Association). This collection is the result of a seven years' experience in teaching the conflict of laws, and, if we are not mistaken, is the only one of its kind. Mr. Beale's volumes divide the topic into four parts: First, we have the jurisdiction of states—the extent of their legislative and judicial power, and of the obligation and right of individuals to obey and take advantage of the legislation of one or another state. "These are questions of *international law*, which should properly be decided in every country in the same way." Second, the creation of legal rights and obligations, as a result of the sovereign action of states; here the questions involved are "rather questions of foreign fact than of law." Next comes the recognition and enforcement within one state of rights and obligations which have been created in another state—a question, according to Mr. Beale, "not in any sense international," but "to be determined in accordance with the municipal law of the state concerned." Finally, "there remains to determine the legal process by which, if at all, the foreign right shall be enforced; also obviously a municipal question." It may be inferred that Mr. Beale repudiates the term "private international law" as inadequate and misleading. The volumes contain many notes, and are an important addition to the literature of the subject.

'Racquets, Tennis, and Squash,' by E. H. Miles (D. Appleton & Co.), is an excellent exposition of these games. Mr. Miles is a champion at all three sports, and has written entertainingly of the details of each. There is in the book much instruction for novices and experts, and it is the most comprehensive work on the subject ever written.

The *Library Journal* for January foots up Mr. Carnegie's library benefactions in America during the past year at $4,214,000; in Great Britain at not less than $1,500,000. If we thought that these six millions bestowed on Pennsylvania alone would have ensured that State's being lifted out of the slough of Quayism, we could almost regret with Governor Pennypacker that home-made wealth did not stay at home. But communities cannot be made moral by public libraries alone.

Among the historical manuscripts published in the January Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is one from David Howell to the Hon. John Brown, dated Providence, January 26, 1801, giving his reasons at length for not supporting Aaron Burr for the Presidency. He is not known to the people of Rhode Island, and his "Character as given by his Friends is that of Ambition Enterprize and Activity." Mr. Jefferson will not show partiality in the distribution of "publick Appointments"; but "If Mr Burr succeeds, will the Northern share of Loves and Fishes reach farther than in and about New York?" Mr. Brown warns his correspondent that the election of Burr may cause a "proper Fire of Discontent, if that Fire should blaze out and rage, if convulsions take place, who can tell where the Evil may terminate?" Captain Henry Bates, of an American schooner which has been "capturd by a Bermidian Privateer Sloop mounting 3 Carage Guns" and carried into the "Burmudas," writes from thence August 20, 1795, to his owners. The cause of the seizure was that "they consider the Windward French Islands to be in a State of Blockade. Which is not the case, as the British Forces is withdrawn from them Islands 2 weeks before I arrived there." He intends to "claim the Property & stand tryal in order to have the Priviledge of apealing to the Court of Britain hereafter, if you should think proper," and closes an indignant epistle with "I should not have Room to tell you how many Insults we americans are obliged to submitt to at this place."

In an interesting review of the commercial and industrial condition of Germany, in the Consular Reports for January, Consul-General Mason says that the recovery from the financial depression of the past few years seems definitely to have begun. This is due almost wholly to the active foreign trade, in which the United States leads in the imports and is third in the exports; the adverse balance in favor of this country being $156,189,800. The underlying cause of the depression was the enormous transfer of productive labor from agriculture to industries within the past twenty years, which changed the whole economic balance of the Empire and resulted in a vast overproduction of many kinds of merchandise and an underproduction of food materials. Other subjects treated are the automobile trade in foreign countries and the regulations in vogue for the use of this vehicle, the new Japanese tariff, which takes effect April 1, and the foreign investments of France. These amount to six thousand million dollars, of which nearly a quarter has been loaned to Russia for the building of the Trans-Siberian and other railroads. The investments in this country are $115,800,000. The consul at Toronto gives some account of recent peat-fuel operations in Canada, in which are some timely words of caution, drawn from Canadian experiences, to persons proposing to utilize peat-beds.

While gold mining and missionary effort occupy the minds of most Americans in Korea, so that the tiny empire is far from being a theme overwritten, the *Korea Review* appears promptly, the number for November, 1902, treating luminously of taxation and astrology. Professor Hulbert's 'History of the Korean Nation' has reached the Japanese invasion of 1592, and shows how jealousy among Hidéyoshi's generals wrecked his ambitious scheme of reaching China. Very remarkable is the fully accredited episode of the Korean iron-clad, built for speed, able to overtake anything else, and which destroyed the second Japanese fleet. To this day the people of Ko-sung village annually celebrate with a regatta the exploits of the Korean Admiral Yi and his "Tortoise Boat." Lieut. Foulke, U. S. N., in 1884 wrote that the ribs of the giant craft were still visible in the sand. In connection with the elaborate historical studies of this same period in Japan, in the *Japan Mail*, under the title of "The Christian Daimyo," the student and general reader is now well furnished.

An application for leave to open a public library in Constantinople was recently made to the Minister of Public Instruction. He refused permission on the ground that the books, of which a list of some ten thousand had been furnished him, were immoral and "dangerous for the Sultan." La Fontaine's "Fables" especially were objected to from their frequent references to the lion as the king of beasts, which, it was urged, "would be regarded as degrading to the kingdom and insulting to the Sultan."

In the Anglo-Abyssinian treaty recently concluded at Adis Ababa, the Emperor Menelek makes an important concession in return for an increase of territory in the southwest. This is an engagement "not to construct, or allow to be constructed, any work across the Blue Nile, Lake Tsana, or the Sobat which would arrest the flow of their waters into the Nile." The significance to Egypt of this agreement lies in the fact that not only does the largest part of the supply of the main stream come from

these sources, but the Blue Nile, which rises in Lake Tsana, sends down incomparably more fertilizing waters to Egypt than the White Nile. It makes possible the carrying out of the irrigation scheme, proposed by Sir William Garstin and endorsed by Lord Cromer, for converting the lake into a great reservoir, thus adding materially to the cultivable land in the Nile valley. The industrial and commercial development of this region is also promoted by the lease of territory on the Baro River to the Government of the Sudan for a commercial station, and the permission "to construct a railway through Abyssinian territory to connect the Sudan with Uganda."

—*Scribner's* opens its promised series on the Government of the United States with a paper, by James Ford Rhodes, on the Presidential office, already noticed in our editorial columns. It may be added that Mr. Rhodes seems not to have revised the view of Van Buren expressed in his 'History,' though one can hardly see how the old attitude of contempt is possible since the publication of Mr. Shepard's biography of Van Buren in the American Statesmen Series. Edith Wharton comes to the defence of Milan against the indifference, or contempt, of the stock tourist. She finds the city "rich in all that makes the indigenous beauty of Italy, as opposed to the pseudo-Gothicisms, the trans-Alpine points and pinnacles, which Ruskin taught a submissive generation of art critics to regard as the typical expression of the Italian spirit." She will have none of the purely Germanic idea of the picturesque, "connoting Gothic steeples, pepper-pot turrets, and the huddled steepness of the northern burgh," as against the Latin ideal of space, order, and nobility of composition. Connolly's description of the "Running to Harbor" of the Gloucester mackerel fleet in a gale has much more of pleasurable excitement in it than his recent account of modern whale chasing, which ends with the firing of an explosive bomb into the whale's vitals from a machine gun. In "The Field of Art," Henry Rutgers Marshall pleads earnestly for more attention to æsthetics in our colleges and universities.

—We have spoken of the Poe-Chivers papers, in the *Century*, as of no great importance. The second instalment, in the February number, brings out rather more of Poe than the former, but Dr. Chivers himself does not improve on further acquaintance. It would be strange to find any other admirer of Poe using such language as, "Poe stole everything that is worth anything from me," and, "Do you conscientiously believe 'The Raven' is to be named in the same century with 'The Vigil'?" But Dr. Chivers is *capable de tout*, even saying of one of his own volumes, which William Gilmore Simms had criticised, "There is not a poem in that book that is not *per se* a work of Art—a work of Art not only as an Art-work, but *fortuitously* so—the Existere of it being coeternal with its Esse. This the glorious Poe saw in my first book, but he was too full of envy to express it *fully*," etc., *ad nauseam*. To such a man the world was, of course, full of "biped Asses," "miserable wretches," "two-legged serpents" waylaying his path to poison him with "the harmless venom of their polluted lips." Why, there were even "Asses in this very county who are fools enough to persuade their pitiful souls that a man born in Wilkes cannot write poetry." But "Magnus [*sic*] est veritas et prevalebit." Henry Loomis Nelson writes of "The Overshadowing Senate," closing fitly with the words of Lord Bute, "The forms of a free and the ends of an arbitrary government are things not altogether incompatible." Frank Wilbert Stokes contributes a paper on the Aurora Borealis, as a setting for the reproduction of four of his own paintings, from displays witnessed during various arctic cruises about ten years ago. All things considered, the pictures doubless deserve commendation, but no painter's brush will ever reproduce the aurora. The editor, writing of "Nature and Human Habitation," pays a deserved tribute to the late Charles Eliot, landscape architect, the son of President Eliot of Harvard.

—Mr. William Morton Payne's third volume of essays, entitled 'Various Views' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), is, like its predecessors, made up of thirty leading articles written for the Chicago *Dial*, of which he is editor. Mr. Payne's essays are the fruit of a wide and intimate acquaintance with modern literature. They are neat and suggestive, if not brilliant, and are always well worth reading. They are usually inspired by some passing tendency in literature, or by another's critical utterances, which Mr. Payne takes as a text either to amplify or to refute. They would be excellent as short sermons from a literary pulpit, because they always make their point with a neat logic that would be effective in oratory of the quiet type. A modern essayist is known by his quotations, the precious stones of the craft of criticism. Writers of the purely anthological essay, like Miss Repplier, set them in tinsel. Mr. Payne's setting is always sober and well wrought, and, if anything, errs on the side of dignity; the length of his sentences lending a certain monotony to his style.

—Monotony of quite another type pervades the essays of Mr. Gelett Burgess ('The Romance of the Commonplace,' San Francisco: Elder & Shepard), a monotony of empty verbiage, which we have searched in vain for some utterance, some view of life out of the common, that would justify the admirable get-up of the volume. One learns to distrust the exquisite parchment backs and beautiful paper and print in which certain minor writers of the day enshrine every passing thought. Mr. Burgess tells us that he is "all of a shiver with shame" at laying his "character and temperament so bare." The essays were begun in the *Lark* and continued in the safe seclusion of the *Queen*. One does not look for the imaginative eye in a persistent reader of the latter journal, and the attempt "to educate the British Matron and Young Person" by training their outlook on the commonplace might task a Stevenson. Of Stevenson we do, indeed, meet a feeble echo in these pages, in such essays as "The Manual Blessing" or "The Uncharted Sea"; but the pretensions of Mr. Burgess are too plainly revealed for art. "It was hard, indeed," he says, in his introduction, "to know when to stop, but, ragged as are my hints, I hope that in all essentials I have covered the ground and formulated the main rules of the Game of Living" (p. 3). After this the philosophy of Stevenson and the wit of Charles Lamb would hardly meet the expectations of the reader. Mere liveliness of style is inadequate for an exposition of the philosophy of life. Nor is Mr. Burgess's English beyond reproach. At the close of the essay on "Dining Out," which, if the readers of the *Queen* take their social hints to heart, must have revolutionized English suburban dinner parties, Mr. Burgess writes, "You would better not invite me anyway, for though I am no comet, yet I admit I would be mad enough to upset the claret purposely rather than have nothing exciting happen!" The use of "would" for "should" and the phrase "would better" are characteristic of Mr. Burgess, and would ruin the chances of a more subtle philosophy than his, for the strength of such essays as these lies in the manner rather than in the matter. Mr. Burgess attempts to be epigrammatic, and to stimulate the Philistine imagination; but he lacks the essential background of true wit and shrewd sense that might raise his trifling above the flimsy magazine article to the plane of the light philosophical essay.

—The American Unitarian Association, which has recently been publishing a line of books making a fresh appeal to the intellectual seriousness of the community, could hardly give us anything more alive than 'Immortality, and Other Essays,' by Charles Carroll Everett, late Professor of Theology in Harvard University, edited by Professor W. W. Fenn. Nearly all of these eight essays have the directness of compositions which have served as public addresses; two of them something of the homiletic tone, without being any the worse for that. At least four of them, "The Known and the Unknowable in Religion," "Mysticism," "The Faith of Science and the Science of Faith," and "Spencer's Reconciliation of Science and Religion," fall into a group by themselves, and were inspired or provoked by Herbert Spencer's 'First Principles.' It would have been well if the dates of their first appearance had been given; the more careful reader could then have related them better to the author's mind and to the progressive criticism of Spencer. Able and judicious as they are, they reflect the earlier rather than the later attitude of Professor Everett towards Spencer, and take no account of Spencer's lessening emphasis on "the Unknowable." The "Joseph Priestley," too, a delightful characterization, united with a frank disclosure of the differences between "the Old Unitarianism and the New," might well have borne upon its face some indication of the circumstances of its origin, those attending the dedication of a memorial tablet to Priestley in the Unitarian Church in Philadelphia, in 1889. If the essay "Immortality" is not quite convincing, it is surprising in the freshness that it brings to a subject which might, it would seem, defy originality. "The Philosophy of the Sublime" exhibits Professor Everett as he was known to those who knew him best—as much at home in æsthetic criticism as in metaphysics or theology. In the concluding essay, "The Gain of History," this gain is found, with many apt and striking illustrations, in the fact of the progressive opportunity for a larger and a fuller life. Everywhere there is an acuteness and refinement not infe-

rior to Martineau's, with frequent gleams of an irrepressible yet delicate humor to which there was nothing corresponding in Martineau's more solemn, not more serious, mind.

—There are doubtless many English readers of Dante who, not being conversant with Italian, prefer annotations in their own language. Their need is now well supplied by the commentary of Mr. H. F. Tozer, which the Clarendon Press issues in three small volumes, matching a new three-part edition of Dr. Moore's text. The notes on the "Inferno" are before us. The little book contains no preface of any kind, nor do we find in it any general presentation of the plan or the significance of Dante's poem; it begins abruptly with the interpretation of the first canto. The explanations are clear and scholarly, being compiled from good authorities—particularly, it would seem, from Toynbee, Moore, Butler, and Scartazzini. There is little in the way of original contribution, save here and there a bit of literary appreciation or comparison and an ocasional observation on prosody. The work of Italian Dante scholars is seldom utilized; there is no evidence of familiarity, for example, with D'Ovidio's masterly essays on the moral topography of hell, on Guido da Montefeltro, and on the indignation of Virgil in the pit of the soothsayers. A striking feature of the work —indicating probably that it was intended rather for the casual reader than for the student—is the summary fashion in which great unsolved problems are disposed of, while minor difficulties are often elaborately elucidated. The three beasts of the opening canto are dismissed in eight lines, with no hint of the vast controversy that has raged over their interpretation; whereas the symbolism of the wolf in Ugolino's dream receives more than sixteen lines, and Anastasius II., one of the least conspicuous personages in the 'Commedia,' gets fifteen. The year and day of the mystic journey, the *veltro*, the messenger from heaven (ix., 85), the *corda* (xvi., 106), are scantly dealt with; and the apparently hopeless and fundamental inconsistency in the descriptions of the *pozzo* (the Ninth Circle) is not even mentioned. Similarly, the *amara* of i., 7, the *tuono* of iv., 2, the *vedea la notte* of xxvi., 128, are simply expounded according to the annotator's preference, without a suggestion of a possible alternative. On the other hand, Pluto, Phlegyas, the Furies and Medusa, Thais are satisfactorily though concisely discussed; and there are excellent comments on *di te mi loderò* (ii., 74), the adventure of Alexander in "quelle parti calde d'India" (xiv., 31), the "campion nudi ed unti" (xvi., 22), the simile of the frost at the beginning of xxiv., and the twenty-two-mile circumference of the next-to-last *bolgia* (xxix., 9). Some small inaccuracies might be pointed out, but they are not of sufficient importance to call for mention here.

ARMSTRONG'S CHARLES V.

The Emperor Charles V. By Edward Armstrong, M.A. In two volumes (pp. 341, 413). The Macmillan Co. 1902.

Biographies of Charles V. are far less numerous than one might expect, on general grounds, that they would be. Into every account of the Lutheran revolution his name and policy must by compulsion enter, nor can his presence be lost sight of for a moment when we are dealing with French politics, or Spanish colonies, or Flemish commerce, or Italian warfare, or English relations with the Continent, during the first half of the sixteenth century. But while his career and his attitude towards public questions are thus leading factors in a thousand books, the list of special biographies remains remarkably small. There are a good many monographs on the different phases of his activity and on the character of his rule in the separate parts of his dominions, yet even by the French and Germans his life has been treated as a thing of fragments. At first sight this fact may seem surprising, though on the slightest reflection the causes of such neglect cannot fail to appear. In the first place, the Emperor's interests were so scattered and so conflicting that most writers are alarmed at the prospect of a baffling complexity; and, furthermore, the personality of Charles is not likely to attract those historical artists who are on the watch for types of great virtue or colossal guilt. He was simply a man of mixed qualities and mediocre talents, whose part in the world's action was fixed by circumstances beyond the measure of his powers. The general feeling about him is expressed by Green in one of his letters to Freeman: "Charles V. is a mere hook to hang history on. Luther is the soul of *that* time."

While biographers in general have thus shunned the subject of Charles V., Great Britain can point to Robertson, whose history of this Emperor has been a famous book for more than a hundred years. It is the only work on the reign in our language to which the bibliography of Lavisse and Rambaud refers, and Mr. Armstrong adds, "No biography of the Emperor has been written in English since the great work of Robertson." Concerning the Scottish historian, however, we shall say little, since he lived in the eighteenth century. Such were his methods and such was his style that he does not come into comparison with Mr. Armstrong at all. One other biography of Charles V., and to our knowledge one alone, can be used with any profit for purposes of contrast. We refer to the 'Geschichte Karls V.' of the late Hermann Baumgarten. Unfortunately, it is incomplete, for though three volumes were published, death prevented the author from writing the other two, which would have described the Schmalkaldic War and the Emperor's last years. For the period 1500-1539, Baumgarten has four pages to Mr. Armstrong's one; nevertheless, he furnishes the best standard of comparison that is available. For ourselves, we have neither the time nor the disposition to apply the parallel method of examination and criticism. It will be enough to glance, here and there, at features of difference which mark off the English biography from its German predecessor.

In respect to length, Mr. Armstrong is much more moderate than Baumgarten. He assures us that he could have written six volumes with greater ease than two, and no one who is familiar with the field or with the ordinary processes of composition will think this statement an exaggeration. His researches, as one can see after the first hour, have been wide and thorough. Beyond doubt he has cast aside much more material than he has used. The residuum, therefore, represents careful selection and a conscious effort to achieve artistic success. It is far better to be concise than unwieldy, but in some respects Mr. Armstrong has carried compression too far. As we shall point out before we close, he has not neglected the device of epigram, and sprightliness is a leading feature of his style. At the same time the element of political detail makes itself somewhat more prominent than the unprofessional reader would have it, and in consequence other things seem rather crowded. We recognize the extreme difficulty of the problem, and we think that Mr. Armstrong has been wise in keeping his book compact. One question alone arises: Would it not have been better to put so short a sketch wholly in essay form, and to use even a broader brush? Despite great cleverness and a literary skill which in some directions is very marked, neither of the two volumes is altogether easy to read. This is perhaps due to the cause that has been suggested.

Any life of Charles V. must be complex, and where there is complexity, we need to test the author's power of arrangement. Here Mr. Armstrong shows a skill which is not so evident in Baumgarten. As he explains his views on this subject, we shall let him describe them for himself:

> "In the history of Charles V., the method of strict chronological sequence would be peculiarly perplexing, because the vertical bars between the several sections of his interests are singularly thick, although not thick enough to produce total isolation. The condition of the Spanish-American colonies, for example, did really affect the Emperor's fortunes in relation to the duchy of Milan; the campaign in North Africa did actually modify the current of events in Germany. Yet it would be confusing if contemporary incidents in these four countries were perpetually brought together in succeeding paragraphs. Hence it is that by way of compromise I have treated the main occurrences of Charles V.'s life more or less in the order of time, but have relegated to separate chapters the more outlying spheres of policy or action."

We give prominence to the foregoing statement because Mr. Armstrong is threading a labyrinth, and we need to know the character of his guiding-line.

If a biographer of Charles V. is likely to lose his way in the maze of conflicting issues and international entanglements, the reviewer of the biography is threatened, *à fortiori*, by the same danger. Ten columns would soon be exhausted were such subjects brought forward as the Emperor's trouble with the Cortes, his diplomatic intercourse with the Curia, and his various campaigns against Francis I. These and all other matters of a purely political character we shall put to one side for the sake of discussing two questions—the attitude which Charles adopted to the Reformation, and Mr. Armstrong's delineation of personal traits.

In thus singling out the religious issue, we may point to the fact that Mr. Armstrong recognizes its supreme importance among all the complications of the reign. Shunning paradox, he does not exalt the political element or the motive of national rivalry between France and Spain, but is conservative enough to look upon the Lutheran revolt as the essential problem of the Emperor's career.

"At the Diet of Worms," he says, "was

cast the horoscope of Charles, or rather, perhaps, the first five months of 1521 traced upon the youthful palm the lines of future life. Here best can be appreciated the unity in diversity of the Emperor's tasks. The two irreconcilable foes of the future now met face to face, and for the only time; orthodox emperor and heretic monk, each definitely took position in the decisive struggle of the reign."

Without denying that the Diet of Worms was Luther's greatest moment, Mr. Armstrong maintains that it was also a great moment for Charles V. Hitherto he had been in leading-strings. On the occasion of his first visit to Spain he was thought the puppet of his minister, Guillaume de Croy, the Wallon Lord of Chièvres. When a youth who had sat "spell-bound under the ferule of Chièvres" suddenly became master of himself and electrified the whole Diet by his firm denunciation of Luther, a step towards manhood had been taken fast. On the first day the heretic entered Charles's presence with a nervous smile; on the second, he denounced the Pope in terms which gave every sign of renewed self-confidence; and on the third, the Emperor handed to the princes a statement of his decision.

"A single monk, led astray by private judgment, has set himself against the faith held by all Christians for a thousand years and more, and impudently concludes that all Christians up till now have erred. I have therefore resolved to stake upon this cause all my dominions, my friends, my body and my blood, my life and my soul. For myself and you, sprung from the holy German nation, appointed by peculiar privilege defenders of the faith, it would be a grievous disgrace, an eternal stain upon ourselves and our posterity, if in this our day, not only heresy, but its very suspicion, were due to our neglect."

Luther had blown a loud blast, but not for the first time. Charles V. (aged twenty-one) wound his horn boldly in reply, and, though it was the note of a novice, it came more truly from the heart than any other proclamation of the reign.

Mr. Armstrong, in praising the Emperor's courage, gives him credit also for originality. This defiance of Luther was his unassisted work, and it must also be remembered that Charles was not arrayed at Worms with all the authority of a despot. According to Mr. Armstrong's view, he was quite as much on the defensive as Luther could have been. The monk had made himself the idol of Germany. The Emperor had few friends, was threatened by the knights, and lacked the means of carrying out the projects which were forced upon him by his international position. Yet, despite the difficulties wherewith he was surrounded and a native hesitancy to act in haste, he uttered his decision boldly. He found Luther antipathetic, and the encounter developed a spirit of self-assertion.

"Reserved as Charles was," Mr. Armstrong says, "the shock struck out the most outspoken confession of his faith that he ever uttered. Nowhere else is it possible to approach so closely to the workings of his spiritual nature, save in the confidential letters to his brother in the last troubled hours of rule, when he repeated that it was not in his conscience to rend the seamless mantle of the Church."

But over against this unequivocal statement of Worms there stand the procrastination of twenty-five years and the sack of Rome. The latter question we shall not attempt to discuss, for it would lead us into much detail. According to Mr. Armstrong, "whatever method be adopted for the treatment of the Emperor's biography, the most refractory element to handle is the Pope." A notice of Charles's action in 1527 would soon lead us beyond Clement VII., and involve us in the deepest mysteries of imperial negotiation. But while we are unable to grapple with the problem which is suggested by the sack of Rome, the spectacle of the Emperor's delay in attacking the Protestants brings us to a general estimate of his character.

The last and by far the most interesting chapter of these two volumes deals with personal traits. Within the compass of twenty pages Mr. Armstrong depicts those qualities which, in his opinion, conditioned the course of Charles's difficult, contradictory, and unsuccessful career. If we could condense the chief features of this portrait into a short paragraph, we should do so, but such a feat is quite impossible. We shall simply give Mr. Armstrong's most compact statement in his own words, and indicate its bearing upon the issue of the Reformation.

"The essential characteristics of Charles V.," he says, "were honesty of purpose, warped by self-interest to the extent that he could persuade himself at times that his own way was the right way; industry, interrupted by fits of indolence, or rather, perhaps, natural indolence thrust backwards by a sense of duty occasionally intermittent; self-control, ruffled, though rarely, by sudden squalls of passion; irresolution relieved by quick resolves, which chose sometimes the right amount, sometimes the wrong, both a little at haphazard; obstinacy, which is so strange and yet so frequent a yoke-fellow to irresolution."

It is this last phrase which gives us the secret of Charles's strange attitude towards the Protestant movement in its infancy and towards the whole problem of the Lutheran schism. His preference was as he expressed it at Worms, and he never lost sight of the original proposition. If he postponed the moment of his attack upon the Schmalkaldic League, he none the less was biding his time. Furthermore, he could never put his first design of repression from him, and even in his closing years he opposed the *modus vivendi* which both Lutheran and Catholic princes desired to accept.

For the rest, Mr. Armstrong sees in Charles V. neither a statesman nor a hero, but, "all deductions made, an honorable Christian gentleman, striving, in spite of physical defects, moral temptations, and political impossibilities, to do his duty in that state of life to which an unkind Providence had called him." The biographer who has proved the difficulties of the Emperor's career by trying to describe it, naturally leans towards charity.

We have already said that Mr. Armstrong enlivens his narrative with a profusion of striking phrases. These form, indeed, a conspicuous feature of the work. We give a few examples. "At his first tournament in Spain the young king's shield bore, not the adventurous *Plus oultre*, but the more modest *Nondum*. The life of Charles henceforth was to seek alternate guidance from these same two legends, Yet further and Not yet." "Flattery, whose function is to place an exaggerated emphasis on truth." "His name is scarcely mentioned in dispatches, save as a minnow to be spun in the preserved waters of royal matrimony." "Hutten from his watch-tower barked louder than ever, but his barks were apologies for not biting." "Necessity, the omnipresent anarchist." "If ever he sported with Amaryllis, it was in the shade." We might multiply these smart sayings indefinitely. Every page has its plum, and though some are better than others, the average quality is good.

Without calling Mr. Armstrong flippant or cynical, we must confess that his air of candor has at times impressed us unfavorably. Thus, when he has occasion to mention the outbreak of war between Charles V. and Francis I., he writes:

"How wise is Machiavelli's statement of the only true *casus belli*—'the war which is necessary is just.' Yet in every century the would-be combatants have ransacked brains and pigeon-holes for justification of the combat which needed none, save the determination to fight engendered by inevitable collision of temperaments or interests. This is due, of course, to an uneasy feeling that war is sinful, or at the least extravagant, and [that] those who break moral or economic laws must plead extenuating circumstances."

Whether this is jingoism appealing to history, we shall not attempt to say, but we must range ourselves in opposition to a sentiment which would well agree with conditions of thought in the tenth century.

On the whole, Mr. Armstrong's 'Charles V.' is a bright, learned, and indispensable work.

JOHNSTON'S UGANDA PROTECTORATE.

The Uganda Protectorate: An Attempt to give some description of the Physical Geography, Botany, Zoölogy, Anthropology, Languages, and History of the Territories under British Protection in East Central Africa. By Sir Harry Johnston, G.C.M.G., K.C.B. In two volumes. With 506 illustrations from drawings and photographs, 48 full-page colored plates, and 9 maps. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1902. Large 8vo. Pp. xix, 1,018.

"The Recreations of a Special Commissioner" would be an appropriate sub-title for these remarkable volumes, for it was in this capacity that the author went to Uganda in 1899 to reorganize the administrative affairs of the Protectorate. This work took twenty months, during which he travelled extensively in the different provinces, finding his relaxation when his official duties were over, in collecting information about the land and its inhabitants, and in photographing and painting. The fruit of these leisure-hour occupations is a monumental work on one of the most interesting countries in the world. Within an area about equal to that of Montana there are to be found alpine, temperate, and tropical regions, with their distinguishing characteristics of climate, vegetation, and life. In it are the highest mountain and the largest lake in Africa, waterless deserts, vast marshes, snowfields, and glaciers, and land unsurpassed in fertility. From the windows of a Uganda Railway car the traveller can see, as the train crosses certain tracts, "rhinoceroses, sometimes even elephants, zebras, gnus, hartebeests, gazelles, reedbuck, waterbuck, oribi, and ostriches," while the human race is represented by every type, from the forest pygmy, hardly to be distinguished from the ape, up to Apolo, prime minister and historian of his people.

Sir Harry Johnston does not attempt to put the results of his investigations into a popular literary form, and they hardly

admit of such treatment. But his work is not a mere dry repertory of scientific facts. Personal touches, incidents of his travels, constantly enliven the account of the physical features of the land, its fauna and flora, and its inhabitants. His artist nature makes him keenly alive to the wonderful beauty of a "country where bird, butterfly, and flower—even earthworms—unite to display under brilliant sunshine all the primary colors and many of their most exquisite blendings." In the enjoyment of this beauty he successfully endeavors to enable his readers to share, not only by his glowing descriptions of lake, forest, and mountain scenery, but also by reproducing many of his paintings in color, and a great number of his photographs. His landscapes are somewhat harsh, but his bird and animal drawings are of great and unusual merit. The photographs illustrate nearly every important statement in the text admitting of a material representation. It would be difficult, indeed, to find another work of this kind where illustrations of such a high order have been so judiciously chosen and so generously used. There are also nine physical, ethnological, and political maps.

The opening chapters aim to give "some idea of the general aspect of the Protectorate," from which it appears that, except in the immediate vicinity of the railway and in parts of Uganda proper, there are no signs of civilization. Some large tracts, and those the best suited for European colonization, are without "a single *settled* native inhabitant," and here and there "may be seen large herds of giraffes as one might see cattle peacefully standing about in an English park." Perhaps the most interesting spot, from its associations and its beauty, is the "birthplace of the Nile," where the waters of the Victoria Nyanza begin their long course to the sea in a fall of some thirty feet. A winding path leads to the water's edge immediately below the fall, and here, "in perfect safety, one may peep upwards through the welcome shade of overhanging trees into the awful green arch of water that is streaming over the unseen step. As you watch the descent of this tremendous cascade, you can see large fish, as though they were enclosed in thick glass or in aspic, being carried down the descent of water."

An attack of fever necessitating a change of climate, instead of returning to England Sir Harry adventurously explored the Ruwenzori range, climbing to a height of 14,828 feet, or nearly 2,000 feet above the snow-line. Yet at this point "the mountain above me seemed a thing I had only begun to climb, and towered, so far as I could estimate, another 6,000 feet into the dark blue heavens." The chapter, with its striking illustrations, describing these equatorial snowfields and glaciers and the wonderful vegetation below them, is the best account we have of Ptolemy's mysterious "Mountains of the Moon." In some respects the same is true of the description of the great Congo forest, whither Sir Harry went to take back to their homes some pygmies whom a German had kidnapped for exhibition in Paris. Here he procured pieces of the skin of the newly discovered quadruped, the okapi, of which he gives a tentative drawing. He calls it hornless, but, from a skeleton recently received in Belgium, it appears that there is another form of the animal, horned in the male and hornless in the female. This excursion into the Free State gives our Englishman the opportunity of testifying to the prosperity of the natives of this region under the "excellent administration" of the Belgian officials. Their villages were remarkably tidy, their houses well-built and comfortable, and they "repeatedly and without solicitation on my part compared the good times they were now having to the misery and terror which preceded them when the Arabs and Manyema had established themselves in the country as chiefs and slave-traders."

A sketch of the history of the Protectorate and its present methods of government is followed by a suggestive review of its commercial prospects. These are not brilliant if the country is administered solely in the interests of its inhabitants. Sir Harry strongly condemns the French and Belgian policy of granting large territorial concessions to companies which are certain, in seeking their own gain, to ignore native rights and industries. There has been no discovery as yet of great mineral wealth, but coffee, sugar, cotton, and grain can be cultivated, and there are valuable assets in timber, India rubber, and ivory. A single fact will suffice to show the capacity of the soil. A wild tomato plant left by chance when a Government compound was weeded, bore in two months 3,000 fruits. "It still goes on bearing clusters of lovely fruits, and covers a space of twenty feet square." Should the natives be encouraged to develop these resources, Sir Harry believes that in time they will pay not only the cost of the Government, but also the fifty million dollars which Great Britain has spent in the acquisition and improvement of the country. He also advocates permitting the natives, under strict regulations, to seek employment in British South Africa. An unknown factor in the problem of the future is the existence of a great uninhabited tract, the Nandi Plateau, "a land abundantly watered by running streams, with grassy downs, splendid forests of conifers, a fertile soil, and a country which, though exactly under the equator, is singularly like the landscapes of southern England," and which, if it were in Australia, "would maintain a prosperous European population of 500,000 souls."

The latter part of the first volume contains botanical and zoölogical notes, with lists of the author's collections compiled by scientific experts. The wealth and variety of the animal life to which reference has been made is characteristic also of the bird life. "On Lake Hannington," for instance, "it is no exaggeration to say that there must be close upon a million flamingoes. . . . Seen from above, this mass of birds on its shoreward side is gray-white, then becomes white in the middle, and has a lakeward ring of the most exquisite rose-pink, the reason being that the birds on the outer edge of the semicircle are the young ones, while those farthest out into the lake are the oldest." The common notion that the notes of the tropical birds are unmusical is refuted by the statement that in Uganda "one's ear is constantly delighted with the songs of thrushes, warblers, and bulbuls." But Sir Harry's chief interest is in man, and the facts which he has gathered in regard to the different native races of the Protectorate, illustrated by more than two hundred photographs and taking up the whole of the second volume, have an absolutely unique value to the anthropologist. His theories in regard to the origin, affinities, and migrations of these peoples are the results of investigations pursued during nearly twenty years spent in Africa as an explorer and Government official. The most interesting from a purely scientific point of view is that human enigma, the forest pygmy, the prototype of Puck, Robin Goodfellow, and the elves and fairies of our nursery tales. In his brutish life far below the other natives, in morality and intelligence he is far above most of them. Without any known language, he learns with ease and rapidity the language of his neighbors. He can draw the beasts and birds with which he is familiar, sings "many different songs, some of which have a melody obvious even to European ears, a strophe and antistrophe, a solo part and a chorus," and his dances are full of variety. It would seem as if he had an appreciation of the beauty of nature. Sir Harry says: "I have never once heard a pure-blooded Negro in Africa express admiration for a beautiful or bright-colored flower, though I have seen the little Congo pygmies occasionally pick off small blossoms and thrust them by the stalk into the holes which they have bored in their upper lips." Of the pygmy's possessing a still higher trait there can be no doubt.

"If gifts in the shape of ripe bananas are laid out in a likely spot for the pygmy visitor who comes silently in the darkness or dawn, the little man will show himself grateful, and will leave behind him some night a return present of meat, or he will be found to have cleared the plantation of weeds, to have set traps, to have driven off apes, baboons, or elephants whilst his friends and hosts were sleeping."

The most promising people, however, are the Baganda, who, from the earnestness with which they are striving after the civilization of the whites, may justly be called the Japanese of Central Africa. Though it is only twenty years since the first native openly professed the Christian faith, there are now 1,070 Protestant church buildings. The foundations of a literature have been laid, and a history of the country by a native, in his own language, has been published. The people have a printing establishment, which issues a little paper, and industrial schools. Good roads are being built, and their towns are a "series of villa residences surrounded by luxuriant gardens." Another title to comparison with the Japanese is their delightful politeness and tact. Apparently more than once Sir Harry, in his tours through the province, found at the top of some particularly high hill, which he had climbed with difficulty to visit a native chief, "a table spread with a snowy white cloth, and set out with tea things." There were camp chairs, a fire over which a kettle was boiling, and a group of smiling, white-clothed attendants.

"All these preparations have been made without consulting the traveller by the chief or the sub-chief of the district, very possibly not even the one he is going to visit. It has been guessed that the white man will find this hill the most trying point in his day's journey during the heat of the afternoon sun, and therefore this spot has been selected as the most suitable one to prepare tea to cheer him on his way. Very possibly one may only guess all this, as

the attendants, like well-trained English servants, offer no conversation unsolicited; and, with their inborn tact, the chiefs are not there to worry you with compliments or greetings."

A few of the many traditions and folk-lore stories of the Baganda are given, in one of which it is said that to propitiate God's wrath at the disobedience of their first king, Kintu, it was decreed "that nobody should work on every seventh day, and on the first day of each new moon." With a chapter on the six groups of languages spoken in the Protectorate and vocabularies of fifty of these languages and dialects, Sir Harry Johnston concludes his work. In his preface he makes grateful acknowledgment of "the help and coöperation of many friends and colleagues who have placed their stores of information at my disposal." Intelligent interest in the people whom they govern is not rare in British officials, and to it is largely due their success in building the empire.

GUMMERE'S BEGINNINGS OF POETRY.

The Beginnings of Poetry. By Francis B. Gummere, Professor of English in Haverford College. Macmillan Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. x., 483.

It is a matter of ordinary observation that the biological sciences in propounding and, to a certain extent at least, establishing the doctrine of evolution, have introduced a new category into philosophy, and profoundly modified the attitude of mind with which the contemporary scholar or thinker approaches the problems that belong to his field of inquiry. Since we are now taught to believe that all higher forms, not only of material things which change and perish, but also of intellectual life, have had their beginnings in lower and more elementary stages of existence, no phase of savage life is considered too ignoble to merit the reverent study of the historian of any of the manifold forms of human activity. Of this spirit Mr. Gummere's book is a striking example. It is redundant with phrases like "fissiparous birth" and "curve of evolution."

"Poetry," we read on page 347, "like all human institutions, like the earth itself, goes back to rude and barren beginnings; and the lowest stratum of poetry to which one can come, either by sight or inference, is only what one ought to expect from the doctrine of evolution, applicable in this case as in any other case."

The poets, however, have always shown a very scant respect for the rude efforts of primitive bards. Ennius, himself considered by the Romans of a polite age as the uncouth genius of semi-barbarism, speaks with haughty disdain of his own poetic forebears who had not succeeded in scaling the rugged heights that lead to the abode of the Muses:

"Scripsere alii rem
Versibus, quos olim Fauni vatesque canebant,
Cum neque Musarum scopulos quisquam superarat,
Nec dicti studiosus erat."

But Mr. Gummere declares that

"not the bard come down from Olympus, with majesty in his mien and the light of divine song shed about him, singing to his rapt hearers of the deep things of life, is the nobler view; nobler by far is the sight of those little groups gathered on the marches that lay between the old beast and the new man, facing inexorable powers which had crushed out life upon life before, and whole systems of life. . . . The first cry of emotional consent along with the consenting step, the cry that remembered a triumph found in instinctive common action, and felt itself to be prophetic of a triumph yet to come—this concerted step and shout, which seemed the expression of concerted purpose, of communal will, force, effectiveness, has more in it even for the man of sentiment than can be found in any flight of poetry in later time."

In chapter second, on "Rhythm as the Essential Fact of Poetry," the spirit and intent of the whole book are first plainly apparent, and may at once serve to warn those who uphold the transcendental idea of poetry. Rhythm, according to this title and treatment, is not *an* essential fact of poetry, but *the* essential fact of poetry. In a long and instructive historical argument, Mr. Gummere proves that critics who have protested that rhythm is not an essential condition of the poetic art, have been in the main inconsistent with themselves and each other, and have never established a criterion of enduring value. None the less, these protestations, however illogical and however weak on the synthetic side, represent a real instinct for the truth. Inasmuch as all must feel that rhythm is only the outward form and not the inner essence of the poem truly great, how can any investigation of rhythm, except to a limited degree, bear upon the subject of poetry properly so-called, or how can the first manifestations of man's rhythmical instinct in the meaningless shouts that accompanied the primitive dance be called the beginnings of poetry?

The chapter on "The Two Elements in Poetry" contains a statement and preliminary defence of one of the author's main contentions, namely, that in primitive poetry there was an entire absence of individual composition. The two elements of the title are, to put it briefly, nature and art. Natural poetry, he thinks, was composed by the folk as a whole; artistic poetry, after an era of sophistication and self-consciousness had set in, by individual poets. Inasmuch as none would be found to deny that all art has received more of the artistic quality in the course of civilization, we restrict ourselves to what is said about natural or "communal" poetry, as Mr. Gummere is fond of calling it. This theme is treated in a chapter of portentous length, entitled "The Differencing Elements of Communal Poetry." Here we find, invested with a great wealth of illustration derived from anthropological studies of primitive societies, the gist of the author's theories about the beginnings of poetry, which we venture to state as follows:

The earliest form of verse was the communal chorus, accompanied by song and dance, of which the predominating characteristic was mere repetition. As instances of extreme simplicity may be cited the choruses of some African tribes, which consist of a single word, and of the Fuegians, who often sing not so much as a word, but only a syllable, repeated for hours. The first growth out of this crude and amorphous state was the ballad, which was the first literary form really to deserve the name, and which contained the germs of epic, lyric, and dramatic poetry. Starting from the fact of the widespread if not universal gift of improvisation among savages, as attested by modern travellers, and from a similar gift observable among European peasants of to-day, Mr. Gummere proceeds to the conclusion that, in the pristine singing and dancing throng, anybody and everybody gave utterance to verses impromptu, which, alternating with a refrain sung by the whole chorus, and still, as the name ballad indicates, accompanied by dancing, made up the ballad in its earliest form.

If this indeed be a true genetic account of early poetry, surely this primitive ballad, in which individuals successively stepped out of the dancing throng to recite their improvised verses, was strongly dramatic in character, and this should have been stated as one of its most distinguishing marks. The action of the ballads that have come down to us as literary relics—those in Professor Child's collection, for example—is almost always presented in dramatic form. In his later chapter on "The Earliest Differentiations of Poetry," Mr. Gummere admits Aristotle's assertion ('Poetics,' Ch. IV.) that the drama, in both its estates of tragedy and comedy, was at first mere improvisation. But he contends that dramatic, like lyric and epic, poetry was derived from the communal chorus; whereas we conceive the fact to be that this primitive chorus was from the first almost a drama. From its narrative portions was differentiated the epic, which retained many a trace of dialogue rendering. The original choral ballad needed but few changes to transform it into a drama; and Greek tragedy, as is well known, kept the lyric element as a separate, detachable form within itself, and still contained the epic narrative in solution. From these facts it is not a remote conjecture that individual improvisation gave rise to the first verses that bore any resemblance to what cultured men call poetry. It is hard to believe, and cannot be proved, that the folk as a whole, by what Mr. Gummere calls "communal consent," ever made any rhythmical utterance beyond a meaningless or almost meaningless refrain.

Our serious objection to Mr. Gummere's treatise as a whole is that, in his devotion to scientific research and to the evolutional argument, he too often forgets that such procedure can touch only the barest mechanism of poetry, whose true essence is as incapable of analysis as that human soul of which it is the highest expression. In his last chapter he uneasily asks himself if, after all, the primitive verse of communal consent is one and the same thing with the poetry of art. Answering this question in the affirmative, he finds in rhythm the surviving representative of communal forces. That is to say, had rhythm not existed in communal verse, it would not now be found in the poetry of the individual artist. But rhythm is a much more important factor in the life of an individual than in that of a community. It is a commonplace of modern psychology, that not only rhythmical action and utterance, but also rhythmical perception, are necessary conditions of man's existence.

Instances of the author's faith in the methodology of natural science abound, but the one which has most excited our admiration is the following:

"All that we ask of biology is the concession of instinct; at the basis of human poetry, that vast edifice of art, and, as it seems to the modern man, of nothing but art, lie instinctive utterances, homogeneous, if one may judge by chick and bird (!), and subject to their first modifications not

from individual effort, but from social consent and the enormous force of communal emotion."

The assumption that lies at the root of such generalizations is plainly that the nearer we can get to primary and simple experiences and concepts, the nearer we are to reality; in other words, that the standard of reality must consist in that which appears to lie at the beginning of knowledge. Hence Mr. Gummere, judging from what he finds to be among primitive races the most rudimentary forms of metrical composition, concludes that rhythm, social consent, and the like, are the essential facts of poetry. Thus he makes no account of the demands of that higher synthesis which insists upon holding to the ultimate and most complex forms of experience as the standard of reality, and regards as mere accidents such circumstances as simplicity of manifestation and priority of time.

It is unfortunate that, in a work involving so much detail, the table of contents and index should be so very meagre. Students who consult the index under the words "Chorus" or "Dance," for example, will find many passages cited by page, but no information as to the particular phases of the subject with which those passages are severally concerned. We have noted a few minor errors. On page 405 the statement is made that "the Roman and Oscan farmers improvised such [amœbean] songs in their *satura* and in their rough comedies." But the fact is that the *satura* was not improvised at all, and this lack of improvisation constituted, so far as we can make out, its sole difference from the Fescennine verses, which were a rude, extemporaneous, dramatic dialogue. Prof. H. W. Smyth's name is misspelled Smythe in the index, and in every place in the book to which the index refers. We should not know where to look in Aristophanes's "Clouds" for act v., scene 11, as a citation is given in a note on page 270. On page 21 it is said that a certain tendency gives rise to "a notion *never true and often false*"!

A History of the American People. By Woodrow Wilson. In five volumes. Harper & Brothers. 1902.

It is, perhaps, not wholly unnatural that an elaborately illustrated historical work, written in the first instance for a popular magazine, should be viewed by many with some suspicion. It is so easy, by means of heavy paper, large type, wide margins, numerous pictures, and fine binding, to give an air of importance to what is, after all, of but minor value that the critic, particularly if his taste be that of the scholar rather than the general reader, is prone to look upon all such undertakings as presumptively wanting in merit. Here, for example, is a work in five large volumes, handsomely printed and bound, profusely illustrated, and making, in general, an appearance of which any booklover might be proud. It professes to be a history of the American people from the discovery of the continent to the very present. Yet it contains only about two-thirds as many words as Green's 'Short History.' Unquestionably, the predisposition of the critic is not likely to be favorable.

Nevertheless, subject to some rather important qualifications, the general verdict on President Wilson's book must, we think, be commendatory. The author has not thus far been especially prominent as an historian, but has won repute rather as a keen observer of political and governmental conditions, a successful popularizer of scholarly knowledge, and an essayist with a peculiarly vivid and picturesque style; and it is in these same capacities that he appears in this his latest book. The student who is searching for a concise and comprehensive narrative of historical events, a careful marshalling of facts and weighing of evidence, or a bringing together of tested and assured information from monographs and documents, will not find any of these things here. No existing history of high quality will be superseded by President Wilson's work, nor need any would-be writer of American history on a large scale be deterred from prosecuting his undertaking to its completion. What the author has given us is, rather, a brilliantly written essay summarizing the general course of events, with only so much of selected incident as is needed to hold the narrative together and make the reader feel that he knows what the author is talking about.

The defects are, naturally, those of the qualities. It is inevitable that, in writing of this character, comment and opinion should preponderate over fact, and that, so far as the average reader is concerned, much should throughout be taken for granted. The inquirer who should turn to President Wilson's pages for what the author himself might call "mere information," would hardly succeed in finding a great deal of it; but if he have his information well in hand in advance, he will find much to admire and not a little worth thinking about in the broad outlines, the sweeping generalizations, the keen judgments, and the illuminating comments with which the pages abound. Further, with a writer as interesting as President Wilson, there is at times the feeling that something has been sacrificed to form and grouping, that events were not always quite as clear as they are made to seem, and that the emphasis is often as much personal as historical. One must not be disturbed, for example, at finding the witchcraft delusion disposed of in half a page of text, or at seeing Garrison shot suddenly into the field, and for the first time, in 1345. In other words, President Wilson's work is to be commended as a useful stimulant for those who already know a good deal about American history, but hardly as a safe "short cut" for those who begrudge the acquisition of knowledge in the old-fashioned way. To say that the generalizations and summaries are, as a rule, both safe and informing and that the apportionment of space does not, in the main, greatly distort the relations of things, is only to say again that the achievement is praiseworthy.

A well-known writer and teacher declared, a few years ago, that no one might now expect to live long enough to write, on a large and comprehensive scale, a history of the American people. President Wilson has not, as we have said, attempted this alleged impossible task in the way which the speaker had in mind. There is nothing in either the matter or the manner of his book to indicate any extensive first-hand acquaintance with the subject; but the important secondary literature seems to have been industriously used, while numerous references or statements show that the monographic work of specialists has not been neglected. Occasionally there is a slip, as where the old charge that Braddock "walked into an ambush" is given another lease of life; but such errors, so far as we have noted, are rare. In one respect especially the treatment is notable. Throughout the whole of the colonial period President Wilson is constantly calling attention to the course of events in Europe, and to the inseparable connection between European history and American history. The history of the Navigation Acts, in particular, is followed with unusual closeness, and again and again recurred to, with the conclusion that their influence on American trade was not disastrous, and that England was obviously as much interested in developing the colonial trade as in taxing it. This point of view, not as yet very generally taken, helps to clarify very much this part of the subject. Similarly, the handling of the causes of the Revolution is broad and firm, without going to either of the extremes which such writers as Mr. Lodge and Mr. Trevelyan may be taken as representing. Readers of the author's 'Division and Reunion' will recognize the same general attitude in the account of the earlier Constitutional period here. Coming down to recent events, the brief account of the war with Spain foreshadows the more critical temper which will not honor as heroes all who participated in that struggle, while the characterization of President McKinley may well give somewhat of a chill to the admirers of that subservient leader. It was difficult for a president of Princeton to write at once truly and discreetly of President Cleveland, but President Wilson has acquitted himself with rare tact and reserve.

In the selection of the hundreds of illustrations, President Wilson acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Victor H. Paltsits of the New York Public Library. For the selection and mechanical reproduction of the pictures there can be, in general, nothing but praise. It is a pity, however, that fancy pictures, save, perhaps, the few that are in themselves notable works of art, could not have been excluded, and that a fuller indication of origin could not have been given than is afforded by the oft-recurring ascription, "from an old print." It was a happy thought to present, as the frontispiece of the first volume, the fine photogravure of Sir Edwin Sandys, than whom no man better deserves recognition as the friend and aider of American colonization. Occasionally an illustration is out of place—thus, in volume ii., the picture of the Plains of Abraham, on page 86, is inserted in the account of Braddock's campaign; and the picture of Washington and Rochambeau at Yorktown, on page 306, precedes by twenty pages the account of the operations depicted. A picture of Carpenter's Hall, Philadelphia, is set into page 11 of volume iv., although the text relates to the beginning of Jackson's administration. The picture (vol. iv., p. 184) of the Dunker Church "where John Brown preached the night of the raid," is a curious lapsus, since the incident referred to did not occur.

Appended to the several divisions of the narrative are select bibliographies giving the titles of both primary and secondary works. We cannot imagine that any considerable number of those who will read President Wilson's volumes will have use

for the bibliographies, but it is the fashion to have them even in popular works, and they at least suggest the possibility of further study. The lists are laudably free from worthless books, and the range is fairly comprehensive. There are unexpected omissions, of course. The bibliography of Carolina, for example, makes no mention of Mr. McCrady's history, nor does that of Virginia include Bruce's 'Economic History' or Brown's 'First Republic in America.' The most extraordinary omission is that of Parkman, who is not mentioned in the list of authorities (vol. ii., p. 96) on the French and Indian wars. With the numerous references to sources in the bibliographies, further, one does not expect to find the texts of a few appended documents reprinted from Preston's collection instead of from some authoritative source.

The Taskmasters. By George Kibbe Turner. (First Novel Series.) McClure, Phillips & Co.

Oldfield. By Nancy Huston Banks. The Macmillan Co.

'The Taskmasters' deals with the political conditions of a New England manufacturing town in the eighties, and sets forth plain truths as to the so-called independence of the voter whose bread depends on the millowner. To John Mayhew the relation interpreted itself as that of "the lord and his retainers, feudalism returned —the hard industrial feudalism of New England." The Grimdale brewery, as it figured in Grimdale politics, is forcibly arraigned as "mother of sin and foolishness"—owning the "poor, silly, mortgaged saloon-keepers," who are "bound round and round, owned body and soul now and hereafter." The eternal controversy between employer and employed furnishes the motive for the tragic episode of the story, as indeed for the story itself, which is not all tragic. Both sides—capital's and labor's —have a hearing. "All I ask for is a show," says the unjustly discharged millhand. "You'll hear a good deal about cheap labor coming in and driving out the old. . . . Well, they don't drive 'em to anything worse, do they? They push 'em up all the time into better things," says the capitalist, the "gray old fatalist who saw and thought in multitudes and races." "Man's whole advance has been but trifling, indeed; but no mere foolish sentimental pessimism should underestimate the accomplishment of this last half-century," is the hero's reflection as he reviews the subject. In a word, this book is a thoughtful, eager, even impassioned statement of both sides of that puzzle whose only solving lies in "work and experiment." "The world to-day makes but one demand on every man, no matter who he is—fairness and work." The pulse of the machine in New England mill-town politics is recorded with the fidelity of a watchful specialist—not, however, in bravado, but in the spirit of a helper, appalled at existing conditions political, aching at conditions social, hopeful for growth, sharply aware of bossism, but not without faith in the independence existing as a mustard-seed in the body politic. While the moral is the thing, the story is quite readable enough to convey the tonic.

"Old Dan Tucker," which figures in a political procession in this story, serves in Kentucky's 'Oldfield' before the war as music for a reel. The foreigner must be and hereby is cautioned against calling it our national anthem. 'Oldfield,' for the rest, is a dried rose-leaf story of "Pennyroyal Kentucky," a region that looked down on Blue Grass Kentucky as a parvenu. Thomas Walker, entering the State at the southeast by the Cumberland Gap in 1750, not Daniel Boone coming into the northern part in 1769, was the real Kentucky pioneer. Miss Judy knew all about it because her father was a Virginian, a Revolutionary officer, and *magna pars* of the emigration, and she tells us that "grants of lands in Kentucky given by Virginia to her officers of the Revolution for military services" were made in the "Pennyroyal Region and nowhere else." Oldfield was kept in further touch with romance by the flatboat-route connection with New Orleans in the days of the Gulf pirates. Alvarado, who whisks through the pages on a flying horse, might have been the comrade of Lafitte. Hints of piracy, Oldfield eccentrics, the shifts of well-bred poverty, cast the shadows in this old-fashioned picture of an old-fashioned community — a Cranford done into Kentuckian. If the pot-pourri style is almost excessively perfumed, we must credit the book with one or two wholly original characters. Notably so, in a Kentucky story, is the Judge who is driven wellnigh mad by his entanglement in the Kentucky idea, the hereditary feud, "the tradition of bloody vengeance," "all deeply rooted in a false sense of honor." At times it seems that the world moves.

Historic Highways of America. Volume I., Paths of the Mound-Building Indians and Great Game Animals. Pp. 140. Volume II., Indian Thoroughfares. Pp. 152. By Archer Butler Hulbert. With maps and illustrations. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Company.

These volumes introduce an important work, which will, in sixteen volumes, describe the origin and evolution of the roads and canals of the United States, from the beginning of such highways in game paths, portages, and Indian trails, to their culmination, when, by means of them, the conquest and occupation of the territory east of the Rocky Mountains was completed and the era of the railroad began. The remark is trite enough that the history of highways is the history of civilization, but in our own land has been afforded an unparalleled opportunity to observe at one view the origin and progress of the highways and of the civilization that advanced along them. "The study of any highway for itself alone might prove of indifferent value; but the story of a road which shows clearly the rise, nature, and passing of a nation's need for it is of great importance." "The Exploration, Conquest, and Development of America, based upon its Highways of War, Commerce, and Immigration," is announced to be the theme of this series.

The first volume comprises two monographs. Chronology would require that the second of these in order, "Paths of the Great Game Animals," should be first considered, were it not that our author ignores both the forgotten tracks of the mastodon and the well-known routes and pathways in laying out which deer, moose, and bear determined the courses of many generations of men, savage and civilized. The only game animal recognized in this book is the buffalo, which, it is believed, entered the territory described long after the mound-builders and other early Indians. Buffalo roads, it is related, marked the passes of the Alleghanies and opened the whole Mississippi basin. Although credited with no great intelligence, the buffalo found the paths of least resistance with remarkable accuracy. "A buffalo trail may be depended upon as affording the most feasible route possible through the region it traverses"; a better route than a deer runway, moreover, because the greater weight of the buffalo taught it to avoid soft ground and steep climbs. For example, the Pennsylvania Railroad crosses the mountains by the buffalo road. "It is nothing less than wonderful that the old highway selected by the instinct of the bison should be found in two instances, in a space of twenty miles, immediately above the railway tunnel." Mr. Hulbert fails to note, however, that these mountain passes were travelled by deer for millenniums and by Indians for centuries before the buffalo ever saw them. It may well be that the instinct of the bison taught him nothing more wonderful than that a deer runway or Indian trail was to be followed. In devoting the whole of the essay to but one of "The Great Game Animals," Mr. Hulbert has not only confused the reader by the misnomer, but has missed the interesting opportunity of studying the beginnings of deer paths in an absolutely trackless wilderness.

The first and greater division of the volume describes the Paths of the Mound-Building Indians, for thus Mr. Hulbert does not hesitate to style those early Americans concerning whose supposed civilization and empire so much extravagant nonsense has been written. "It does not appear," he says, "that the mound-building Indians occupied a higher plane than that reached by the Indians as first known by Europeans." Yet it seems impossible to write of these people without romancing a little, and some of the allegations here made concerning "great armies," "the art of road-making," "stone fortresses," "the transportation of immense quantities of earth and stone," "the deterioration of the civilization of the Indian," will not find universal acceptance. However, no one will cavil at the amusingly guarded assertion "that, in some instances at least, the mound-building peoples were largely a [*sic*] rural people." The Indians, no less than ourselves, depended upon agriculture for their food supply, and it is convincingly pointed out that the States and counties where the rural population is settled to-day were precisely the lands most densely populated in the days of the Mound-builders. Our knowledge of the highways of these people is largely conjectural, and all attempts at detail prove "too speculative to be of genuine historical value." Both on *à priori* grounds, and from evidence furnished by the position of the mounds, it seems probable that the Mound-builders' trails followed the identical tracks used by Indians and white men in historic times. "It is to be noticed, with reference to the effigy mounds, that to a person standing on the present highway, the figures are right side up, the feet are toward the road. In the case of birds, either the head or the tail is toward the present

highway." The theory of these ancient paths is very interesting, since it is developed in "the belief that these early people" were the first human occupants of a primeval and fertile territory, and so "opened the first landward passageways of the continent on these watersheds." Mr. Hulbert's conclusions, which may with but slight reservations be accepted, are summarized by him as follows:

"(1.) The mound-building Indians, like the later Indians, were partial to interior locations; some of their greatest forts and most remarkable mounds are found beside our smaller streams.

"(2.) These works are scattered widely over such regions; if there was any communication it must have been on the watersheds, land travel here always having been most expeditious and practicable through all historic times.

"(3.) They were acquainted with some of our most famous mountain passes, showing that they were not ignorant of the law of least resistance; and, to a marked degree, their works are found beside, and in general alignment with, our modern roads—which to a great degree followed the ancient routes of the Indians which so invariably obeyed this law.

"(4.) The comparative study of the mound-building Indians' works proves that the migrations of that race did not follow even the larger streams by which they labored most extensively."

The second volume comes down to recent historic times, treating of the known "Indian Thoroughfares," nearly all of which are recognizable to-day as trails or highways. "A knowledge of the Indian thoroughfares of the United States forms a most valuable key to the pioneer history of any and all portions of it. To a larger degree than has ever been realized, the explorers, conquerors, and settlers of any portion of this country were indebted to the narrow trail of the Indian." The trails described are, however, limited to the crossing of the Alleghanies and the traversing of the Ohio valley. The evolution and history of several important thoroughfares within these limits in their successive stages as Indian paths, military roads, and routes of settlement are examined as well as illustrated by maps. "It is difficult to realize by what a slender thread" the Central West "hung to the fragile republic east of the mountains during the two decades succeeding the Revolutionary War." "The building of the Cumberland Road was, undoubtedly, one of the influences which secured the West to the Union."

In spite of the title-page, volume one has no illustrations but the maps. On page 91, "Hartford County, Massachusetts," should be "Harford County, Maryland," and the settlement mentioned has no evident relation to any mounds. If Mr. Hulbert is sure that in 1796 there was "a regular line of steamer packets from Pittsburgh to Cincinnati," he ought to tell us more about it, and, if convenient, to cite some authorities. The Jesuit writers, as contained in Mr. Thwaites's new edition, are freely and appositely cited in volume second, but a more thorough reading would have prevented such sweeping and fallacious assertions as, "The 'blaze' was a white man's invention, and . . . there is not a shred of testimony or evidence that the red man ever marked out the course of his paths by means of blazed trees." Nor was the trail "always" a single track. Generally speaking, however, we find Mr. Hulbert accurate and reliable. A little more time in preparing this work would have been well spent. There are occasional misspellings, and no doubt the author did not intend to call the Ohio "the La Belle Rivière." More careful proof-reading would have spared him such annoyances, and his style, graphic and effective as it is, would have been improved by a little polishing. His volumes cannot be considered as exhausting their subject, nor even as completely presenting it, nor is any claim made to this effect. They have the faults as well as the great merits of a pioneer work. Mr. Hulbert has blazed a trail, not constructed a turnpike, but his trail is well laid out. All who come after him will owe him thanks.

The Rise of Religious Liberty in America: A History. By Sanford H. Cobb. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xx, 541.

In this handsomely printed volume the Rev. Mr. Cobb "attempts a systematic narrative—so far as the author is aware, not hitherto published—of that historical development through which the civil law in America came at last, after much struggle, to the decree of entire liberty of conscience and of worship"; a result which he considers the "most striking contribution of America to the science of government."

Mr. Cobb sketches, first of all, the nature of the American principle of religious liberty, showing that it is not toleration and not simply freedom of conscience, and then traces in outline the relations of Church and State in Europe from the beginnings of Christianity to the English Toleration Act, making large use of Innes's 'Church and State.' This part of the work is very superficially done. The author then takes up with much more fulness the story of the several American colonies under the heads "Church of England Establishments" (Virginia and the Carolinas), "Puritan Establishments" (Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Haven, and New Hampshire), "Changing Establishments" (New York, Maryland, New Jersey, and Georgia), "The Free Colonies" (Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Delaware). He then glances at the attempts to establish a Colonial episcopate, and traces briefly the period of the Revolution and the final separation of Church and State.

On the whole, it must be said that Mr. Cobb has presented the story in its essential outlines, and in a way which renders his volume of considerable service to the reader. He has grouped together a mass of material bearing on the subject which makes a distinct and, in the main, accurate impression in its total effect. Yet the work is surprisingly marred by errors in matters of detail, due in large measure to very scanty use of the sources, but also due, one must believe, in many instances, to carelessness on the part of the author himself. Thus, to give but a few illustrations out of many, and those only in reference to New England, Mr. Cobb confuses Lechford and Lyford, attributing to the latter the well-known 'Plain Dealing'; he ascribes to Endicott Higginson's farewell words; he quotes a eulogy by Cotton Mather as the expression of a contemporary of Winthrop; he describes the Massachusetts General Court of May 18, 1631, as "the first general court" of that colony, though the paragraph in the Records from which he quotes a portion refers to previous action by "the last General Court"; he speaks of "churches" at Boston in 1646, when there was but one; he dates the "Reforming Synod" 1676; he ascribes the Blue Laws of Samuel Peters to the year 1681; and he repeats the old error regarding the Half-Way Covenant, that its purpose was political rather than religious, and its "ulterior, though unannounced, design" was to increase the number of those eligible to the franchise.

These are but a few specimens out of many which may be met with in the book, which evidently, therefore, is not to be depended upon in detail, and ought to be subject to very thorough revision.

Twelve Types. By G. K. Chesterton. London: Arthur L. Humphreys. 1902.

Mr. Chesterton, in his little volume of 200 pages, deals with Charlotte Brontë, William Morris, Byron, Pope, St. Francis, Rostand, Charles II., Stevenson, Carlyle, Tolstoy, Savonarola, and Scott. This is a pretty wide range, but Mr. Chesterton, like many another young lion of the press, has taken all knowledge for his province. Of his method or system, it is difficult to speak with confidence—indeed, it is doubtful whether any systematic body of opinion underlies what he says. In his essay on Charles II., whom he discusses as a perfect type of the skeptic, he comes nearer to self-revelation than anywhere else; and, after reading it, it is safe to say that he is a liberal of the latest type—and this, we take it, means a kind of opportunism in matters literary and social, analogous to the opportunism which everybody recognizes as the "note" of liberalism in the political world. Mr. Chesterton is one of those writers who make less advanced readers long for an hour of Matthew Arnold. We sigh for "measure"—for that moderation of statement which seems to go naturally with firmly held and consistently reasoned opinions; we are bored by a certain neurotic energy which represents the strenuous in style, and which is so much more objectionable than the iteration of the elder critic. Everything is exaggerated. A skeptic is not—as he certainly was down to Mr. Chesterton's time—a rationalist; this is too moderate a view. We must clench our teeth and squeeze something more out of skepticism than this. A true skeptic believes not even in his own beliefs. He does not know even "whether the tree he is looking at is a tree or a rhinoceros." This is what passes among the strenuous as a hit. In the non-strenuous order, the man who persistently doubts whether a tree is a tree or a rhinoceros, is a lunatic, rather than skeptic.

We do not by any means deny Mr. Chesterton's cleverness. The whole essay on Charles II. is clever, and presents a side of the Restoration neglected by others. So is the essay on "the optimism of Byron," though here the strenuous determination to think out something not said before becomes painful. On the whole, while we cannot class Mr. Chesterton as a decadent—he has in the Byron essay some very good remarks on the decadents—nor as a *poseur*, he is not what it is the fashion to call convincing. When the intellectual

world has finally become, as it constantly tends more and more to become, a hippodrome, his essays will be recognized as very creditable acrobatic performances.

Caterpillars and their Moths. By Ida Mitchell Eliot and Caroline Gray Soule, with illustrations from photographs of living caterpillars and spread moths by Edith Eliot. The Century Co. 1902.

"We have written a true book, and we hope that it may prove a helpful one. If it is not interesting, the fault is with us, not with the subject." This expresses the attitude of the authors, and their book is certainly interesting to all who find any interest whatever in nature. They speak from abundant experience, and with a genuine enthusiasm begotten of love for their insect pets.

Beginning with a description of the "crawlery," as they term their study room, they give in an inventory of its contents a very full enumeration of what is needed by one who desires to watch the transformations of moths from egg to adult—not a list of expensive or complicated apparatus, but such an outfit as any bright boy or girl can procure without much trouble. Then comes a description of the stages through which the insects pass, and how each should be treated: long experience again drawing attention to many little details that would be likely to confuse or discourage the amateur. Diseases and parasites are not forgotten, and the reader is brought to realize that even for caterpillars life is full of trouble and dangers.

Forty-five species, most of them hawk moths, are described more or less fully, and are figured in some or all the stages, and here there is room for criticism. Some of the pictures are really excellent, and some of the caterpillar groups show painstaking effort to obtain natural effects; but the adults or moths which should have been most easily pictured, are genuine disappointments. In the male Cecropia, for instance, what necessity was there for figuring a cripple when perfect examples must have been available? So, *Ceratomia amyntor* represents an undersized, obscure specimen that does not begin to do justice to the species. In the smaller moths, matters are much worse, and there seems to have been no effort whatever to get perfect or strongly characterized examples. Half-tone plates always leave much to be desired in the matter of bringing out fine detail; hence for a work of this kind unusual effort should have been made to secure sharp photographs from well-marked, well-spread insects. In some cases, as in *Ampelophaga myron*, the picture is excellent while the specimens pictured are irregular and poorly mounted.

The book has a place, however, and will be very useful. It is well printed, in large, clear type, on good paper, and has a somewhat ornate cover.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abruzzi, Duke of the. Farther North than Nansen: Being the Voyage of the Polar Star. H. W. Bell.
Alcock, A. A Naturalist in Indian Seas. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $6.
Alsop, George. A Character of the Province of Maryland. Philadelphia: The Burrows Brothers Co.
Armitage, Harold. Greuze. (Bell Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Bentham, George. The Poetical and Prose Writings of Edward FitzGerald, vol. v. (Variorum and Definitive Edition.) Doubleday, Page & C.
Besant, Walter. London in the Eighteenth Century. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan.
Boas, Franz, and Hunt, George. Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History, vol. v.: Kwakiutl Texts. Published by the Museum.
Bourget, Paul. Some Impressions of Oxford. H. W. Bell.
Bourne, H. R. Fox. Civilisation in Congoland: A Story of International Wrong-Doing. London: P. S. King & Son. 10s. 6d.
Brandes, George. Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature. Vol. iii.: The Reaction in France. Macmillan. $2.75.
Braybrooke, Lord. The Diary of Samuel Pepys. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Brentano, Franz. The Origin of the Knowledge of Right and Wrong. Translated by Cecil Hague. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Bridgman, R. L. Loyal Traitors. Boston: James H. West Company.
Bright, William. The Age of the Fathers. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co.
Cattelle, W. R. Precious Stones. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Crowest, F. J. Musicians' Wit, Humor, and Anecdote. London: Walter Scott Publishing Company; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Dahlinger, C. W. The German Revolution of 1849. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Day, L. F. Lettering in Ornament. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $2.
Del Mar, Walter. Around the World through Japan. Macmillan. $3.
Dickie, Perry. Uricacidæmia, Its Causes, Effects, and Treatment. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel. $1.00.
Eastman, F. M. Private Corporations in Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: The George T. Bisel Co.
Eckenstein, Lina. Albrecht Dürer. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Elliot, O. L. The Things that Abide. San Francisco: Murdock Press.
Fitzpatrick, F. A. Lectures on the History of the Nineteenth Century. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Galdós, B. P. Electra. Edited by O. G. Bunnell. American Book Company. 70 cents.
Galdós, B. P. Marianela. Edited by Edward Gray. American Book Company. 90 cents.
Galdós, B. P. Marianela. Edited by L. A. Loiseaux. (Novelas Escogidas.) William R. Jenkins. 75 cents.
Garis, H. R. The King of Unadilla. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co.
Garnier, J. The Secret of the Cross; or, How Did Christ Atone? London: Elliot Stock.
Giglioli, Constance H. D. Naples in 1799: An Account of the Revolution of 1799 and the Rise and Fall of the Parthenopean Republic. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $7.
Gildersleeve, B. L. Problems in Greek Syntax. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Gilman, D. C., Peck, H. T., and Colby, F. M. The New International Encyclopædia, vol. vi. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Gould, G. M. Biographic Clinics: The Origin of the Ill-health of De Quincey, Carlyle, Darwin, Huxley, and Browning. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.
Greene, H. C. Pontius Pilate, Saint Ronan of Brittany, Theophile. Three Plays in Verse. Scott-Thaw Company.
Hay, Charles E. Meditations for the Passion Season. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.
Hersey, Heloise E. A Selection from Mrs. Browning's Poems. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Hotchkiss, C. C. For a Maiden Brave. D. Appleton & Co.
Kelly, R. T. Egypt, Painted and Described. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Keppler, E. A. C. With Tom Tom and Tomahawk. A. G. Seiler & Company.
Laut, A. C. The Story of the Trapper. D. Appleton & Co.
Le Conte, J. N. An Elementary Treatise on the Mechanics of Machinery, with Special Reference to the Mechanics of the Steam Engine. Macmillan. $2.25.
Merrill, J. A. Studies in Zoölogy. American Book Company. 75 cents.
Muir, M. M. P. The Story of Alchemy and the Beginnings of Chemistry. (The Library of Useful Stories.) D. Appleton & Co.
Muret-Sanders Pocket Dictionary of the English and German Nations. Lemcke & Buechner.
Newman, A. H. A Manual of Church History, Vol. ... Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Nolan, Edmond, and Hirsch, S. A. The Greek Grammar of Roger Bacon, and a Fragment of his Hebrew Grammar. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Oakesmith, John. The Religion of Plutarch. Longmans, Green & Company. $1.75.
Paris, Gaston. Mediæval French Literature. (The Temple Primers.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Petano, D. K. Pensées from the Journal Intime of Henri Frédéric Amiel. H. W. Bell.
Potter, H. C. Man, Men, and their Master. (The Bedell Lectures.) Edwin S. Gorham.
Powell, F. Y. Quatrains from Omar Khayyám. H. W. Bell.
Pratt, S. S. The Work of Wall Street. (Appletons' Business Series.) D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Ramsay, W. M. The Education of Christ. (Hillside Reveries.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Reeve, S. A. The Thermodynamics of Heat-Engines. Macmillan. $2.60.
Rex Regum: A Painter's Study of the Likeness of Christ from the Time of the Apostles to the Present Day. Rev. ed. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
Reynolds, Myra. The Poems of Anne, Countess of Winchelsea. (Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago.) Chicago: The University Press.
Roberts, W. R. Demetrius on Style. London: C. J. Clay & Sons: New York: Macmillan. 9s.
Rogers, J. A. R. The Birth of Berea College. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Rosenau, William. Hebraisms in the Authorized Version of the Bible. Baltimore: The Friedenwald Company.
Russell, G. W. E. The Household of Faith. Edwin S. Gorham. $2.25.
Sauveur, Lambert. Fables de la Fontaine. W. R. Jenkins. $1.50.
Sidgwick, Frank. The Poetry of George Wither. 2 volumes. London: A. H. Bullen; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Sumner, Charles. Addresses on War. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Thackeray, W. M. The English Humorists: The Four Georges. (Prose Works, edited by Walter Jerrold.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
The Despatches of Field Marshal the Duke of Wellington. Edited by Walter Wood. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.
The Social Evil, with Special Reference to Conditions Existing in the City of New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Tingle, E. W. S. Germany's Claims upon German-Americans in Germany. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.
Waller, E. M. A Typical American: Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Translated from the French of Th. Benson. H. W. Bell.
Weld, Agnes G. Glimpses of Tennyson, and Some of his Relations and Friends. Scribners. $1.50.
West, J. W. Fulbeck: A Pastoral. H. W. Bell.
White, Almira L. Genealogy of the Descendants of John White of Wenham and Lancaster, Mass. Volume i. Haverhill (Mass.): Published by the Author. $5.
Willey, G. F. Solitaire. Manchester (N. H.): New Hampshire Publishing Corporation.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 12, 1903.

The Week.

Both houses of Congress have now passed the bill, suggested by Attorney-General Knox, for expediting prosecutions in the United States Courts under the Interstate Commerce Act or the Sherman anti-Trust law. No objection was made or debate had in either Senate or House. There was really no room for any. Whatever else may be said about bills against Trusts, this at least must be agreed to by everybody, that it is of the highest importance to find out what power we have under existing law. Yet for that we were in a fair way to have to wait two years more. It has been clearly understood, for example, that the Northern Securities case could not, in the ordinary course, be so much as heard by the Supreme Court before 1904. Under the bill now passed we shall get a decision very much earlier. That is so plainly and so eminently desirable that even contentious Congressmen could discover no reason for opposing or delaying the Attorney-General's measure.

It will be time enough to discuss seriously the terms of the Littlefield Anti-Trust bill when it is taken seriously by the Senate. At present, the general understanding is that it will not even be reported to that body. This confident expectation accounted, in part, for the passing of the bill, on Saturday, by a unanimous House. Any measure which gets by the Representatives in that way is, presumptively, either a bill for Buncombe or one that is marked for early death in the Senate. As it passed, the Littlefield bill was shorn of some of the features which, in its original form, were most entitled to be called drastic, and it cannot now be regarded as an attempt at revolutionary lawmaking. Even so, however, the Senate will none of it. The anti-Trust programme for the session is not expected to go beyond the bill expediting anti-monopoly cases in the United States courts, the bill forbidding railway rebates, under more severe penalties, and the amendment to the act creating the new Department of Commerce in such a way as to give it a Bureau of Corporations, with a certain power to compel publicity. After this pending legislation is given its final shape, we shall be able to measure accurately the work of Congress in carrying out the President's recommendations against Trusts.

Though the Littlefield bill passed with unanimity, it passed without a particle of enthusiasm. The debate was listless; the voting mechanical; the result cut and dried. Why was this? Partly because the whole thing was an insincere shouldering of a disagreeable subject upon the Senate. Even more, we think, because everybody was conscious that a roundabout and uncertain attack was being made on the evils of monopoly, while a direct and damaging assault, which might have been made, was neglected. Publicity and restraints on interstate commerce are but remote and doubtful remedies, compared with the immediate cutting away of the protective duties which serve as a bulwark to so many forms of monopoly. Yet these a Republican House dares not touch. It was a Republican member, however, Mr. J. B. Perkins of the Rochester district, who a few days before uttered the plainest warnings to his associates. He said:

"The return of the Democratic party to power would be a misfortune, and I should not fear it unless it came by reason of Republican mistakes. If our friends on the other side succeed again, it will not be as the result of Democratic wisdom, but of Republican folly. The people are paying more for coal than they like to, and they find a duty on it that we will not repeal. The duty on hides and lumber injures important interests, and we keep it in force. That is not the way to get votes. We are kept in because people are afraid of what the Democrats will do, but we cannot count on this for ever. If we do not change some things in our tariff system, sooner or later others will be elected who will do it for us."

The Senate debate on the Statehood bill on Thursday brought out the very interesting, but not wholly unfamiliar, fact that the Mormon Church in Utah controls absolutely the political activities and destinies of its members; no Mormon runs for a high office "without the consent of the first presidency," said Mr. Dubois. Mr. Hale expressed a fitting horror at the exposure, asserting that the Mormon Church exercised "the power to bind and to loose" in a manner contrary to the spirit of American institutions. In this indignation we share unreservedly, but we wish more of it. We wish to see Senator Hale or Senator Dubois take up the maleficent effect of such a religious institution as Platt's Sunday-school. Does any one suppose that a prominent Republican in the States of New York and Pennsylvania, for example, is less dependent upon the machine than a Mormon candidate for office upon his church? Does anybody suppose that the power of a boss "to bind and to loose" is smaller than that of the Mormon First President? Why should anybody who has the future of American institutions at heart assert that the power of Brigham Young's successors is un-American, but omit to say that the preponderance of Platt and Quay is equally un-American? Is it expedient, gentlemen of the Senate, to show too great zeal in the search for Mormon motes while your honorable body is cumbered with such Gentile beams as a Platt and a Quay, and while an Addicks is forcing your doors?

The Aldrich bill to extend the facilities for Government deposits in the national banks, introduced on Monday in the Senate, is an outcome, partly of the discussion which followed Secretary Shaw's action last September, but, more immediately, of the Chamber of Commerce resolutions of last December. Under existing statutes, receipts from internal revenue may, as they are collected, be deposited with the national banks; such deposits drawing no interest, but being secured by a first lien on the assets of the bank, and by pledge of United States Government bonds, to an equivalent face value, in the hands of the Treasury. Secretary Shaw extended the list of acceptable collateral to certain State and municipal securities; but the legal authority for this move was seriously in doubt, and the Treasury has already substantially receded from its position. The Aldrich bill creates the authority which was lacking last September, and in other ways enlarges the Treasury's power to keep its surplus in the money market. Briefly summed up, the bill provides that the Secretary may deposit in bank public moneys received, not merely from internal revenue, but from all sources; that he shall exact from the depositories an interest rate of at least 1½ per cent., and that he may accept as collateral, not only Government bonds, but State and municipal bonds of a prescribed standing, and first-mortgage bonds of railways whose stock has regularly paid 4 per cent. for the ten preceding years. These provisions, in connection with the Government's first lien on the assets of failed banks, constitute an ample safeguard, and would place the public deposit matter as nearly in a rational position as it can occupy under the present Sub-Treasury system. This measure goes a little further than the recommendations of the Chamber of Commerce, but not so far as those of Secretary Shaw in his recent annual report. It undertakes to correct a situation which was always absurd and was fast growing intolerable.

The announcement that the President will veto any bills restoring to the army dismissed officers, and then putting them on the retired list, is very gratifying. This process not only amounts to the granting of a pardon and a very liberal pension, but also gives the beneficiary the right to wear the uniform which he once disgraced. If the applicant has not

overcome the fault which led to his downfall, he certainly is not entitled to restoration. If, on the other hand, he has become an industrious member of society, he is certainly not in need of Government bounty. This abuse of the retired list has been very frequent in past years, despite the protests of army officers who have rightly insisted that the retired list should be kept as a roll of honor for deserving veterans. It is bad enough, they say, that men like "Hell-Roaring" Jake Smith and Eagan of "embalmed beef" fame should be put upon it by way of punishment for their misdeeds. The retired list was never intended to be a refuge for the offenders of the army. The service will therefore be delighted with the President's policy, which is also that of the War Department. It would be well if Mr. Roosevelt could take an equally severe attitude towards private pension bills, which are generally in the interest of persons wholly unworthy of Government aid.

It is impossible to believe that the country will accept as conclusive either of the reports prepared by members of the House Naval Committee on the submarine-boat bribery charges. The committee itself is hopelessly divided. According to the dispatches, the "battleship-trust" members insist on vindication for Lessler as well as for everybody else except Doblin, while the "Holland boat crowd" is for a report declaring that Lessler's charges are not sustained. The "Holland boat crowd," it is intimated, is angry with Lessler because the scandal following his disclosures has defeated an appropriation, at this session, for submarine vessels. The country cares very little about the resentment of submarine-boat advocates or the gratitude of those who favor battleships. What it does demand, however, is a thorough probing of the naval-bill scandal, and it is perfectly evident that nothing of the sort has yet been accomplished, or even attempted.

The House Committee on Naval Affairs, after passing over the Doblin case so hurriedly and leniently, voted in favor of a large addition to the navy. The Holland Company failed to get any further orders, but the Committee decided upon three more battleships, one first-class cruiser, and two steel training ships and one wooden one. It also accepted the proposal to double the number of cadets at Annapolis, and to add sixty-five officers and eight hundred men to the Marine Corps. This is undoubtedly a larger programme than would have been agreed upon had there been no Venezuelan imbroglio, which, by the advocates of a large navy, has been skilfully used to inflame popular passion and play upon a misguided patriotism. If there is one lesson to be learned from the Venezuelan complications it is how quickly and heavily a nation may pay for having a bumptious navy and trying its guns on its debtors. Germany's little bill for this magnificent triumph includes not only the actual expenses, and loss of business with North and South America, but, above all, the feeling of uneasiness and dislike which her methods have aroused among the American people. In our estimation, every ship Congress now adds to our navy is a menace to our peace and a step backward from the enlightened and Christian position which this unarmed nation occupied for a century.

A year or so ago the pesky Anti-Imperialists were the ones who were keeping up the war in the Philippines by their refusal to approve of our policy in the archipelago. This, as we all remember, was the blackest treason. But what shall be said of a Congress which is deliberately inciting the Filipinos to revolt by its refusal to take any steps to relieve the terrible suffering reported by our own officials? Nothing else can be got out of Gov. Taft's fresh appeal for aid which was given out in Washington on Monday. "Failure to furnish relief at this session of Congress," he says, "would create consternation throughout the islands. . . . The political situation would become *more difficult*." Could the Governor of unhappy and unwilling subjects use plainer language? He reports a total net loss to the insular treasury from the depreciation of silver of $1,277,941—enough to keep many a starving Filipino alive. Among other misfortunes, Mr. Taft reports "immense losses to merchants who have sold on credit," and the continuance of destitution due to the plague, cholera, and rinderpest. Surely this is a tale to move the heart of any humane man.

Secretary Root's speech in this city is another proof of the way the negro problem is coming to the forefront of our national issues—"parochial" as it is. It was easy for him to show that President Roosevelt has made fewer appointments of negroes to office than did his predecessors, and he might have added that they are far better appointments so far as character goes. But even this will not mollify the South, for, as Mr. Root pointed out, the trouble lies in a change of sentiment among the Southern people, and not in the White House. This change of feeling towards the blacks, if not coincident with the Spanish war, was undoubtedly greatly enhanced by it and by all the loose talk of an outgrown Constitution and of outlived doctrines of the equality of man. We cannot agree with Mr. Root that negro suffrage is a failure. In that aspect his speech will be productive of harm, especially as it follows similar utterances of two Southern Governors. This republic rests upon the foundation of political equality, and it has yet to be shown that it can endure with millions of its male citizens disfranchised solely because of the color of their skins. No suffrage can be a failure which has not nad a fair trial.

N. G. Gonzales, the assassinated Columbia editor, having waged relentless warfare in his paper against lawlessness, his admirers in South Carolina now wish to erect a monument to him as a champion of law and order, to express thereby their "silent but lasting protest against the lawlessness in our State." It is a kindly movement, but it would avail little or nothing as a protest. Just now a properly adorned gallows would be the fittest monument in South Carolina to the cause of law and order. Any other monument to that cause, or to Mr. Gonzales as its champion, might well await the law's disposition of the case of his cowardly assassin.

The referendum in Vermont has resulted in a small but sufficient majority for local option and high license. Fifty years of statutory prohibition had so ingrained conventional phrases and ideas about saloon regulation into the average Vermonter, that a victory for home rule and common sense seemed unattainable. Ever since the Legislature passed the act now returned from the people as law, the churches and the press have been vocal with appeals against the compromise with sin and for the protection of the home. It required courage on the part of those who voted "yes" to stand out against this fine but ill-judged enthusiasm, and vote steadily, not for an impracticable law, but for one that can be enforced. The State of Vermont is to be congratulated upon clearing its mind of cant, and coming under a law which lets each community deal with the liquor traffic according to its needs. The result will probably be that the villages will remain "dry," with a quickened public opinion to keep them really dry; and the larger towns "wet." This will mean that the small dives will tend to disappear, and that innkeepers will sell to all comers (paying the community handsomely for the privilege) without the accessories of locked doors, dark passages, and private signals. All this is in the direction of sincerity.

Just what weight in law or morals should be given "preferential claims" against Venezuela, such as the allies now urge, is a question of the very kind to be submitted to the Hague Tribunal. On the one hand, a rude sense of justice would seem to favor the notion that those who have been at great pains and expense to collect their debts, should

have a priority over those who have simply sat by and waited a general settlement. But, after all, Germany and England did not actually collect their dues. They did not drive the thing home. If they had seized Venezuelan custom houses, or landed a force and captured Caracas, no one could have disputed their right to settle their own claims first. But this ultimate assertion of *force majeure* they stopped short of; and it is a nice point whether, in the circumstances, an already adjusted claim, like that of France, should be made to wait upon the liquidation of dues of which the collection is sought by a kind of aborted violence. The tribunal of The Hague is the precise place to have such a dispute heard and determined; and the decision to refer it there is a happy way out. With all other points adjusted, and the blockade speedily to be raised, the solution of what threatened to be a serious controversy seems now to be fully in hand That the situation has been handled with great skill and marked restraint and good judgment by the President and Secretary Hay, everybody must concede. As for Minister Bowen, if he has erred at any point from excess of zeal, it must be remembered that he had a most anomalous task, in which it seemed impossible that he should win anything like the success he has scored.

It is clear that the controversy over Minister Bowen's diplomatic manners arises, in good part, from his dual rôle. He is Minister of the United States and, at the same time, plenipotentiary of President Castro. Yet it is purely in the latter capacity that he figures in the Washington negotiation. The trouble is, however, that the representatives of the allies seem to be always thinking of him as American Minister. If he stands up stiffly for his principal in Caracas, as he is bound to do, they at once begin to ask why an agent of the United States should hold such positive language with them. Let them remember that he is, for the nonce, solely the spokesman of Castro. As such they might find for him the historic excuse offered to Frederick the Great. That monarch, to show his spite against the English Government, had sent as envoy to London a notoriously dissolute man, and one day maliciously asked the British Minister in Berlin what the English thought of the Prussian *roué* he had given them. With great presence of mind, Minister Elliott bowed low and said, "Digne représentant de votre Majesté!"

The *Financial Chronicle* publishes the annual estimates of the world's production of gold and silver for the year 1902. That of gold foots up $304,589,862, against $266,559,884 the previous year, The highest yield of any year (that of 1899) was $314,630,233. The remarkable fact is that the world's production is now within $10,000,000 of what it was when the South African yield was at its maximum. In 1899 the output of the latter was $73,227,100. In 1902 it was only $40,000,000. When the Transvaal mines are turning out their usual quantity, the total annual product will probably be $25,000,000 larger than that of last year, unless there should be a falling off in other countries. There has been some decline in Canada, whose production for 1902 was only $19,500,000, against $24,400,000 in 1901 and $27,900,000 in 1900. On the other hand, the output of Australia has increased about $7,000,000, and that of the United States about $2,200,000, as compared with 1901. More remarkable than the world's production of gold, however, is that of silver, which has shown a steady increase in the face of declining prices. The outturn of the year 1891 and of the past four years was as follows:

Year.	Ounces.	Value.
1891	137,965,412	$124,474,000
1899	167,224,243	93,128,460
1900	172,838,873	98,871,840
1901	174,998,573	98,344,640
1902	178,866,084	87,421,880

The significant fact is that the largest production of silver the world has ever known in a single year (1902) took place when the metal was selling at the lowest price ever known.

The story of an injured agent for Gen. Grosvenor's 'Book of the Presidents' published on Friday in the *Evening Post*, explains fully an affair for a time obscured by the evasions and prevarications of the Congressman-author. In brief, this subscription work, whatever may have been Gen. Grosvenor's written contract, was in the nature of a "benefit" for him, and a speculation for his manager, Elder. The suggestion that the author had no pecuniary interest, beyond his contract, in a book subscriptions to which varied from $100 to $1,000 a copy, may be promptly dismissed. It appears also that the letters soliciting subscriptions and bearing a forgery of Gen. Grosvenor's signature, were written, apparently with his consent, on Congressional paper furnished by him. A personal letter from him, written significantly on the paper of the Merchant, Marine, and Fisheries Committee, was addressed to a prominent financier. The evidence is clear that Gen. Grosvenor has traded upon his official position for his private profit. He has associated himself with a begging enterprise conducted by a man formerly convicted of fraudulent use of the United States mails; finally, he has turned and twisted and lied as his literary schemes have been revealed. A very rudimentary sense of honor would compel his resignation from the House of Representatives.

The petition of seventy heads of preparatory schools should do something to shake the Intercollegiate Football Rules Committee out of its present lethargy. These teachers, representing many prominent schools and enjoying unusual facilities for studying the effect of football playing upon their pupils, assert that "the game as at present played is too severe and too dangerous," and express their belief "that it is possible, by modification of the rules, to develop a style of football that will retain the unique and characteristic advantages of the present game without its most serious attendant evils." It is strange, on the face of it, that these schoolteachers, many of whom are themselves old players, should see clearly their way to reform of football, while the old players who make up the Rules Committee either despair of a remedy or acknowledge no need of reform. In the interest of one of our finest sports, were it only properly restricted and made reasonably unhazardous, these legislators, if they lack ideas of their own, should consult with those who have ideas. They cannot afford to drift until the schools and colleges begin to consider the suppression of the game.

While the news from the near East is of a distinctly serious cast, it should not be forgotten that considerable deductions must be made from all stories of outrage and massacre. There is no adequate news service in Macedonia and Albania. The English correspondents at the coast towns or even at Vienna send on whatever tidings reach them from the interior and seem credible. Everything is hearsay and frequently at second or third hand. It may be that the conditions are infinitely worse than anything we ever learn of here; it may be, on the contrary, that the chronic small disturbances in northern Turkey come to us magnified threefold. The situation cries for a Schuyler or a MacGahan to report on the facts, and it is encouraging to learn that the London *Daily News*, remembering its honorable achievement before the Turko-Russian war, is planning to get news direct from the scene of the disorder. This to many will seem a striking repetition of the history of twenty-five years ago. But it by no means follows that the parallel will be carried out consistently. In fact, the chief ground for apprehension in the Balkans is that Russia is to-day quite free from the various checks, notably Disraeli's doctrine of Ottoman "integrity," that hampered her before and during the last war. But this freedom of Russia is also a kind of guarantee that no necessary intervention on her part in the Balkans would be likely to serve as the signal for a general European war. The whole outlook to-day is far less perplexing and perilous than it was in 1876-7.

THE LATEST SILVER PROJECT.

Seeing that only about twenty days remain of the present session, there has been a marked indifference on the part of the Republican members of Congress to the President's request for an international silver conference. What the President asked was "that the Executive be given sufficient powers to lend the support of the United States, in such manner and to such degree as he may deem expedient, to the purposes of the two Governments"—Mexico and China. It has remained for a Democratic Senator from Colorado, after an awkward pause, to take the first step toward carrying the President's wishes into effect. Senator Patterson has moved an amendment to the pending Philippine Currency Bill, in which he proposes that the President be authorized to invite such governments as he may deem proper to join us in a conference to devise and suggest "a plan for adoption by the several governments, by which a fixed commercial exchange relation shall be established and maintained between the silver coin of the silver-standard countries and the gold coin of the gold-standard countries."

In its aims, Senator Patterson's proposal is identical with the declared objects of the Paris monetary conferences of 1878 and 1881. Its scope is not limited, so far as the United States is concerned, to the Philippine Islands. The conference might embrace the whole country in its recommendations if it should so decide. The Brussels conference of 1892 essayed the more modest rôle of "considering what measures, if any, can be taken to increase the use of silver in the currency systems of nations." The latter is presumably the aim of President Roosevelt now. If so, Mr. Patterson has "cut under" him by offering something which the silver producers are more eager to obtain. They want to sell silver to the United States mint, not merely to that of the Philippine Islands. Of course, a Democratic Senator from Colorado could not see a Republican President carrying off his votes without making an effort to hold them. In the recent contest in that State Senator Teller kept his seat by only one majority. Patterson might easily fail at the next election if there were a fresh schism among the silver men. We do not suppose that President Roosevelt had any political aims when he sent in his silver message, but Senator Patterson could not fail to look at its effect upon the Rocky Mountain States.

If any action is to be taken to carry out the new silver project, its advocates should be required to put their ideas into the form of a bill ready for enactment, or of a treaty ready for ratification. It is related of President Lincoln that when Senator Wade, Chairman of the Committee on the Conduct of the War, was urging him for the fortieth time to supersede Gen. McClellan, he asked Wade whom he would choose for the place. "Oh, anybody," said Wade. "Yes," replied Lincoln, "*anybody* will do for you, but I must have *somebody*." Any vague plan for making and keeping silver coins and gold coins equal in value to each other may serve for the envoys of Mexico and China, and eke for President Roosevelt and Senator Patterson, but practical statesmen may fairly insist upon some particular plan. They should decline to set up a new international conference without first seeing the aims of its advocates expressed in the form of an act, or contract, or definite undertaking of some sort. In none of the monetary conferences of the past were the believers in bimetallism willing to put their aims in definite shape, although they were often asked to do so. They always confined themselves to generalities. They were always seeking to get a vote in favor of bimetallism in the abstract, without reference to the means of putting it in successful operation. "Are you in favor of it if it can be done?" they asked, in the conference of 1876; to which Mr. Goschen replied that it was not worth while to give a categorical answer to a question thus hypothetically put.

In the present case the vagueness of the means of procedure is more puzzling than it was in the conferences of bygone days, since the present promoters say that they are not aiming at bimetallism. The gold standard countries are to use gold, and the silver standard countries are to use silver. It is only asked that somebody shall tie the white coins and the yellow ones together with so stout a cord and so tight a knot that they cannot fly apart, however much or frequently the white metal and the yellow one may vary in value. This may be done in a single country, and for itself alone, by limiting the coinage of silver to the needs of retail trade. It cannot be done by concert of action among different countries, and it is not desirable to try, since it ties the hands of all concerned, and deprives them of liberty of action in one of their most vital interests.

In the three weeks remaining of the present session of Congress, no new measure can pass that gives rise to extended debate. Yet it is quite certain that a bill for a new monetary conference would meet formidable opposition, and must run the gauntlet of numerous amendments. It is not certain that any Philippine Currency Bill will be passed, although the need of one establishing the gold standard is very great. To postpone that measure until we can have a "big talk" with Great Britain, France, Mexico, and China, on a theme which even Ah Sin cannot understand, is to keep the Filipinos, for an indefinite time to come, subjected to the miseries of an unstable currency, which are only less intolerable than those of the devastating rinderpest.

ADMITTING NEW STATES.

The long Statehood deadlock in the Senate has seemed in a fair way to be broken by a compromise. This is in line with historical precedent, and, moreover, it must be admitted that there are some distinct advantages in the form of agreement proposed. The Statehood bill, as it passed the House, provided for the admission of three States, Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma, with a provisional arrangement whereby the Indian Territory might later become a part of Oklahoma. The debate in the House was of a perfunctory sort, and when the measure reached the Senate at the close of the first session of the present Congress, a sub-committee of the Committee on Territories was instructed to investigate on the spot the resources and conditions of the regions in question. The inquiry was made during the recess, and the results have been presented to the Senate in a report and in exhaustive addresses by the members of the sub-committee. Briefly stated, the conclusion obviously to be drawn from the data submitted by the sub-committee would be that neither Arizona nor New Mexico is fit for Statehood, while Oklahoma, especially with the Indian Territory added, fulfils all the requirements properly demanded of a new State.

Arizona, after forty years as an organized Territory, has a population of but 122,000, including Indians, of whom there are about 22,000. Her lands are arid, and, except by means of irrigation, are unfit for agriculture. Her resources are almost wholly mineral, and experience has shown that these do not conduce to permanency of population. Nevada, for example, whose resources are also almost wholly mineral, had a population in 1880 of more than 62,000, but this in 1900 had receded to 42,000. Most of these unfavorable conditions are duplicated in New Mexico. This Territory has a larger population, amounting to about 195,000, and so comes just within the rule which has been supposed to apply in recent years—that a candidate for Statehood must have a population as great as the unit for representation in the lower house of Congress, at present 194,000. New Mexico's resources are also chiefly mineral, though her farm products in 1900 were worth $10,155,000, about one-third the value of the farm products of Vermont for the same year. The population of New Mexico, moreover, was found to contain undesirable elements. Estimates of the Mexican or Spanish-speaking portion of the population vary from two-fifths to 60 per cent. of the whole. Thirty-three per cent. of the entire 195,000 are unable to read or write in any language. Interpreters are constantly employed in the courts, testi-

mony being given in either language, and the juries being generally part Mexican and part American.

Undoubtedly, the case against admission of either of these Territories is exceedingly strong. The argument in favor of Oklahoma and the Indian Territory, on the other hand, is undeniably valid. Oklahoma had in 1900 a population of 398,000 and the Indian Territory of 392,000. Only 52,000 of the latter were Indians. The agricultural lands are abundant. The population which poured into Oklahoma when it was opened thirteen years ago was Anglo-Saxon. There is now taxable property in the Territory assessed at more than $72,000,000. In wealth and population the yearly increases are enormous. Reports of county assessors place the present population at 540,000, an increase of nearly 150,000 since the census of 1900. The value of Oklahoma's farm products in 1900 was $45,447,000, and of the Indian Territory $27,672,000. It appears that it would be an injustice to refuse Statehood to these two Territories. Yet failure to take some action in regard to Arizona and New Mexico at this time doubtless involves failure to admit Oklahoma and the Indian Territory.

Treaty obligations are also involved in the problem. The ninth article of the treaty with Mexico, entered into at the close of the Mexican war, when most of the Territory in question was acquired by the United States, was as follows:

"Article 9. The Mexicans who, in the territories aforesaid, shall not preserve the character of citizens of the Mexican republic, conformably with what is stipulated in the preceding article, shall be incorporated into the Union of the United States, and be admitted at the proper time (to be judged of by the Congress of the United States) to the enjoyment of all the rights of citizens of the United States, 'according to the principles of the Constitution.'"

An attempt has been made to argue, from this and other similar treaty provisions, that there is some immediate obligation resting on Congress to admit these new States. No such obligation exists, but it is clear that ultimate admission is required. The question is, shall Oklahoma and the Indian Territory, which are ready for Statehood, be denied admission in order to postpone for a term of years the admission of two Territories which must come in sooner or later, and which might come in now as a single State, thus reducing by half their representation in the Senate? Perhaps the opportunity to admit them as a single State will not present itself again, yet the advantages of so doing are obvious. Not only would the representation in the Senate of undesirable territory be thus reduced to a minimum, but also the merger would conform to the rule for the admission of large States west of the Mississippi—a rule which when violated has been broken to the disadvantage of the Union. The combined area of the new State would be 235,000 square miles, considerably less than the area of Texas.

THE GENERAL STAFF.

The War Department's bill for the establishment of a General Staff has now passed both houses of Congress, and is therefore certain to become a law within a few days. In many respects this is the greatest achievement of Secretary Root's Cabinet career. It is a very brief bill, comprising only about fifty lines of large type. It involves no extra expenditure of Government funds, and adds not a single new officer to the existing military establishment. Yet it calls for the most radical departure in American military theory since the formation of the Government. If properly carried out, it means the modernization of an army which stood still from the end of the civil war until the Secretaryship of Elihu Root, content to let the military art make progress everywhere else, but not within its own ranks.

Primarily, the General Staff is a simple business provision. It makes possible in army administration the foresight and preparation for the future to be found in every successful business house. As is now recognized even in Congress, the War Department plunged into the war with Spain totally unprepared for its duties. It had neither maps nor plans of campaign, nor accurate information about its own country, much less the enemy's. It did not know whether there were any transports to be had, where they were to be found, or what they would cost. It chose rendezvous for army corps, and learned afterwards that the harbors selected were too shallow for transports. It placed an entire army at the mercy of a single-track railroad. It purchased, and made its plans to purchase, uniforms, food, material of war, underclothing, etc., etc., after the declaration of war. It was cheated and robbed, and men died by scores and hundreds, of neglect and carelessness, in the terrible confusion and chaos which followed.

It is sufficient description of the General Staff to say that if it had existed, and existed efficiently, untainted by politics, in April, 1898, few if any of these shortcomings would have been noted. From now on, the officers detailed to it are to be a bureau of information and a group of military business men planning for the future. Chiefs of staff bureaus are no longer to work earnestly and untiringly, each along his own lines, in utter ignorance of the efforts of the others. The three generals, four colonels, six lieutenant-colonels, twelve majors, and twenty captains or lieutenants to compose the General Staff, are to form a military clearing house, in order that all the staff departments shall work harmoniously and intelligently to the common end. They are to be the directing brain of the army, and, while directing, are to acquire a schooling nowhere else obtainable, in order to fit them for high commands in the field. They are to be the *corps d'élite* of the service, and will furnish a goal for the legitimate ambition of every worthy officer. These officers are to serve four years with the General Staff, and then at least two years with their respective branches of the service before again being eligible.

Exactly how efficient this body will become will depend upon the War Department. As Gen. W. H. Carter has well expressed it, "Any system which allows the officers of a General Staff to degenerate solely into bureau officers will cause them to forfeit the respect of the line of the army; above all else, the personnel of a General Staff corps should be selected with reference to ability, and without any suspicion of favoritism." If these principles are adhered to, the army will, for the first time in its history, have an effective stimulus to professional study and achievement in time of peace. In connection with the War College and the professional schools, it should insure a body of officers so well trained as to be worthy of comparison with those of foreign services. It is only regrettable that Congress did not compose the General Staff of extra officers at slight additional cost. The detachment of so many officers from their regiments will injure the efficiency of these organizations.

An equally radical departure in the bill is the provision abolishing, after the retirement of Gen. Miles in August next, the position of commanding general and substituting therefor a "chief of staff." Friction between the military head and the civilian head of the army has existed from the very first. Every commanding general has encountered obstacles which have finally reduced the position as held by Gen. Miles to one of innocuous dignity—and to nothing else. The chief of staff will stand between the Secretary of War and the army at large. If he does not happen to be the Lieutenant-General, the latter will still have an honorable command assigned to him. The chief of staff, the bill says, "shall have supervision of all troops of the line and of the Adjutant-General's, Inspector-General's, Judge-Advocate's, Quartermaster's, Subsistence, Medical, Pay, and Ordnance Departments, the Corps of Engineers, and the Signal Corps, and shall perform such other military duties, not otherwise assigned by law, as may be assigned to him by the President." He is to be latter's executive along purely military lines. Like every other officer of the General Staff, the chief is to be detailed for four years, "unless sooner relieved." This provision insures a President's obtaining a loyal chief in harmony with his views, and should make impossible the present scandalous relations between the military head and his civilian superiors. In this respect, too, the bill is epoch-making.

TRUST COMPANIES AND THE CLEARING HOUSE.

The New York Clearing House is composed of sixty-two banks, which meet on every business day to exchange the checks and drafts they hold against each other, and to pay or receive the cash balances arising thereunder. There are also eighty financial institutions which use the facilities of the Clearing House through banks that are members of it. Thus a non-member makes an arrangement with a member to receive all checks drawn upon it, and pay them at the Clearing House in the same way as its own. When such an arrangement is made, the banks send to the Clearing House for settlement the checks drawn on the non-member which they have received in the course of business the previous day. Checks drawn on a non-member which has no such clearing facilities must be collected at the non-member's counter. The trust companies usually deposit the bulk of their money in banks, on which they draw checks (except for very small sums) to pay the checks drawn by their depositors upon themselves. Hence, in the case of a non-clearing trust company, there is one day intervening between the receipt of such checks and the collection of them in cash, and a consequent loss of interest. But the banks make no discrimination between trust companies which have clearing facilities and those which have not. They receive as deposits, without discount, all checks drawn on non-members. Some of the oldest and largest trust companies in the city have no clearing facilities, and do not desire any.

Trust companies have been multiplying rapidly of late. The common saying is that "it is a cold day when a new one is not formed in New York." Although, in the eye of the law, they are all alike, and in the eye of the public they are doing the same kind of business, there are wide differences between them in practice. Some of them, but these are now the small minority, do a strictly trust business. They take only such deposits as are payable at a fixed time. They do not pay checks on demand. They do not compete with the regular banks. These are the old-fashioned companies, but even these are yielding more and more to the pressure and fashion of modern business by receiving deposits payable on demand, buying commercial paper and making advances on securities; in other words, doing a regular banking business. Thus their competition with the banks is becoming more and more a serious matter, especially since they are not required by law to keep any fixed percentage of cash reserve.

National banks, however, are required to keep 25 per cent. of their deposits in legal-tender funds, and State banks (in New York city) 15 per cent. Thus the trust companies are enabled to lend, say, 95 per cent., or even more, of their deposits, while the national banks cannot lend above 75 per cent. of theirs. The former have an advantage of perhaps 20 per cent. in their lending ability. The regular bankers consider this an unfair advantage, and they seek to redress the balance by requiring the trust companies to keep a larger reserve in their own vaults than they have been accustomed to heretofore. Accordingly, a resolution was reported by the Clearing House Committee on Wednesday of last week, to require all trust companies which exercise clearing facilities to keep, in their own vaults, a fixed percentage of reserve, to wit: 5 per cent. of deposits after June 1, 1903; 7½ per cent. after February 1, 1904; and 10 to 15 per cent. (as may be determined by the Clearing House Committee) after June 1, 1904.

This looks like a very simple proposition, but it is really a very complicated one. In the first place, it applies only to the trust companies which use the facilities of the Clearing House. There are twenty-seven such companies in Greater New York. There are twenty-two which have no connection with the Clearing House, direct or indirect. The latter have about two-fifths of the capital held by trust companies in the city. If the proposed resolution is adopted by the Clearing House, a new disparity will be introduced. The non-clearing companies will have the same kind of advantage over the clearing members that they all have over the banks. The non-clearing members might, however, think it best to make common cause with their fellows against the banks and form a Clearing House of their own. This plan is already talked of. But there are other possible consequences. The trust companies keep their money on deposit in the Clearing House banks. These deposits are worth having. Ordinary trust company deposits in the State of New York amount to $744,000,000, besides $120,000,000 classed as trust or time deposits. No bank will willingly put itself out of reach of such a golden stream. The trust companies have still another weapon if they care to use it. They can retaliate by collecting checks and drafts on country banks without discount, as was formerly the practice of the Clearing House banks. At least one of the new trust companies is now doing so.

What the Clearing House banks hope to accomplish is to secure the passage of the bill now pending in the New York Legislature requiring the trust companies to keep the same percentage of reserve as the State banks do. This, too, looks like a very simple proposition, and is in accord with American practice and habits of thought. Yet it is also subject to complications. There is no reason for keeping a fixed reserve for time deposits. The reason for any reserve whatever is to meet calls for money payable on demand. It would be proper, therefore, to eliminate time deposits from the legal reserve requirement. But such a proposition is beset with the practical difficulty of distinguishing between time deposits and other deposits in any case where the institution is not perfectly fair in its construction of the law. What should be the limit of a time deposit, and what should be the evidence of the existence of a time deposit? Trust companies are multiplying in the adjoining States and all the States. It is hardly possible to pass a law at Albany which will not have the effect either to draw trust funds to this State, or to send them to a more hospitable climate.

We have sought in this article merely to point out the difficulties of the problem, not to decide between different interests and different authorities. We observe in conclusion, that America is the only country, so far as we know, where the law attempts to prescribe what cash reserve any financial institution shall keep to protect depositors.

"TAINTED" GIFTS.

Should the gifts of bad men be refused by the authorities of colleges and similar institutions? This question has been interestingly debated, in the *Outlook* and *Independent*, by Professor Bascom of Williams, President Pritchett of the Boston Institute of Technology, and by the editors of these periodicals. The immediate occasion of the discussion was a remark made at Philadelphia by the English economist, John A. Hobson. He said:

> "The fact that they [millionaires] give us great gifts should not keep us from tracing the origins of their wealth. . . . Is it safe to take money so gained [*i. e.*, by unrighteous methods] and spend it for public purposes at the wish of the millionaire?"

Professor Bascom has taken throughout the most radical ground. He believes that to receive wealth which the recipient knows to be ill-gotten makes him an accomplice of the evil of its acquisition. He points out, also, that even unconditional gifts do insidiously affect the policy of the universities which have received them, and he maintains that the college which receives gifts presumptively tainted—and here he does not hesitate to name Mr. John D. Rockefeller—owes to itself and the public, while it accepts his money, an absolute condemnation of the unrighteous donor and all his works.

This thesis Professor Bascom defends with such eloquence and so fine an indignation that we differ from his opinion with great reluctance. But it will be seen that his theory that there is a large class of wealthy men who are to be abhorred, *dona ferentes*, would, if accepted, lead to widespread confusion. If a college should refuse to accept their surplus wealth, an honest man should decline to buy their products, a Christian should scorn to receive their pay,

a conscientious investor should see that no securities tainted by their management ever enter his strong box. In fine, no taint attaches to the beneficence of a wealthy ill-doer which does not infect all his other activities. The college president who accepts an endowment from him is technically no more *particeps criminis* than the clerk who draws his pay from him.

But, actually, the college president has the added responsibility that comes with greater influence. He is unquestionably bound to reject a gift for any reason incompatible with the ideals of the institution under his charge. That he is under any obligations "to trace to its origins" the wealth which supplies the gift, we do not believe. A college president cannot exercise detective functions nor establish a cure of souls. He is, on the contrary, bound to receive all gifts which do not make himself and his college sponsor for wrongdoing. For the taint is always in the giver, not in the gift. Gifts are, generally speaking, desirable, but certain givers are intolerable. President Pritchett, in the *Outlook*, puts the matter concretely:

"Suppose that William M. Tweed, in the heyday of his career, had come to the authorities of Columbia, and said: 'Here is a million dollars to found a school of political science which is to bear my name.' Columbia could not have accepted that gift and maintained its moral leadership."

Notorious and unrepentant ill-doing, then, seems to be the true criterion. We presume that no university president today would accept an Addicks, Croker, Platt, or Quay foundation in political science, or after their death allow a chair to bear the name of any of them. Here acceptance would be compounding with political corruption.

The case would be more difficult if Devery should come secretly, barefooted and in his shirt, to the head of a theological school, and, after explaining that it was impossible to restore his wealth to the proper owners, should offer, in all penitence and unconditionally, an endowment in Christian morals. Again, the case would be by no means clear if Mr. Croker should live to ninety and outgrow his notorious connection with corrupt sources of revenue. A high-minded president would still be obliged to refuse to attach the name of Croker in any fashion to his college, while he might well be willing to let Mr. Croker's money lie anonymously in the college chest. And assuredly no one would refuse a gift made in good faith by the descendants of any of these gentlemen. The taint, again, is not in the wealth, but in the giver.

Certain general principles come out of discussion which tends to lose itself in casuistry. In the great number of mixed cases it is a privilege for a man of dubious wealth to give to an honorable institution, and it is a concession to receive his gift. It is, however, the tendency of certain college presidents to descend from this position of self-respect and toady to possible donors which arouses Professor Bascom's indignation. Very bitterly and justly he scores this weakness of the churches and small colleges—"to be discontented with honest poverty, and to be willing to have cast over them, at any price, one little corner of the skirt of wealth."

It is well to emphasize this danger of a new simony which affects not the church but our great institutions of learning. Yet it is doubtful if we shall find a better rule of practice than President Pritchett's suggestion that flagrant ill-fame of the donor or discreditable conditions of the proposed benefaction alone render a gift unworthy of acceptance. Developing these principles, the *Outlook* has said very sensibly:

"If conditions are attached to the gift inconsistent with its free use in the sense to which it is nominally dedicated, it is to be promptly declined. . . . It is not their [the beneficiaries'] function to trace proffered endowments to their source, nor to put the donor on trial, still less to condemn him on public report without a hearing. They will not raise the ethical standards in the community, nor in the institution under their charge, by imputing unworthy motives to a benefaction apparently worthy in itself, nor by attaching on suspicion dishonorable conditions to a gift which is in its terms free from conditions."

ARTS AND CRAFTS IN LONDON.

LONDON, January 17, 1903.

After a little more than three years' rest, the Arts and Crafts Society has opened its seventh exhibition at the New Gallery. Most societies hold annual or even semi-annual exhibitions, so that such unusual restraint naturally leads us to expect more of these special arts and craftsmen when they do show than of most artists. Besides, the Society is supposed to be representative of all that is most distinguished and accomplished in modern English decoration. It endeavors to set the standard at home; its work has only too often been accepted as a model abroad.

I might as well admit at once that, taking these facts into consideration, the new exhibition is a distinct disappointment. Instead of any advance, any progress since the last show, there are on all sides signs of exhaustion, if not of deterioration. It seems to me that William Morris is more and more missed as the years go on. His work was not beyond criticism, his influence not beyond reproach; but there was vigor and vitality in everything he did, and a genuine love of beauty, however misdirected at times was the expression he found for it. Now, one is conscious of a prevailing feebleness and a deliberate eccentricity to conceal it. To this effect, the arrangement of the collection adds not a little. Two of the rooms have the look of a big bazaar or fancy fair, which not even the plain white background—borrowed from Mr. Whistler—in one can quite do away with. There could scarcely be a more heterogeneous jumble of things—huge cartoons and tiny miniatures, woven hangings and silver ware, book-bindings and big pieces of furniture, illustrations and enamels, jewellery and embroideries, all mixed up without rhyme or reason, so that the eye must be focussed anew at every step, and fatigue and bewilderment are the inevitable result. In the third large room, craftsmen, or groups of craftsmen, have been given each a little recess or shop apart in which to expose their strength, or, more frequently the case, their weakness. Here, the President, Mr. Walter Crane, Mr. Lewis Day, Mr. George Walton, Mr. Ashbee, Mr. Voysey, among others, have brought together, each in the space provided for him, the wall papers, crétonnes, furniture, or whatever it may be for which he is more or less directly responsible; and all that remains is for each artist, after the manner popular in the Indian or Japanese village, to be on view in his own little shop hard at work, showing how well he understands, or does not understand, the technique of the crafts he represents.

But arrangement does not count for everything when, after having philosophically made the best of it, one comes to examine the work in detail. It is discouraging to note that some of the late follies of Continental craftsmen are being re-echoed, if weakly, by English designers and decorators. It is the more curious that this should be so because there cannot be much doubt that from England came the first inspiration of those distressing curves and swirls and angular lines that have, of recent years, distracted us on any and every thing that presents a surface to be decorated—on the shop-front of the enterprising tradesman, from Amsterdam to Madrid, as on the covers of the books we read and the cups from which we drink our tea. But the unfortunate fashion began in a mild, unsuspecting way in this country, and—for lack of enterprise, perhaps—was never pushed to the mad extravagance to which Belgians and Germans and Austrians have carried it. Now, however, just as on the Continent the fashion is almost played out, English craftsmen seem on the point of giving it new life, or semblance of life, by taking not themselves but their own imitators as masters. The worst of it is that the President goes to particular pains in the "Forewords"—why will not plain Preface answer his purpose?—to the catalogue, to record the fact that England, or more particularly his Society, is, on the Continent, given the credit for having inaugurated this "new art." He quotes M. Folcka, Swedish representative on the international jury at Turin last summer, who, impressed by the "new ideal of style and beauty of lines and colors which distinguishes our epoch, and which we call—not without pride—the new art," was amiable enough to discover the origin of this ideal in England and the movement, begun "more than thirty years ago, with which are inseparably joined the names of William Morris, of Edward Burne-Jones, and Walter Crane." It is enough to make William Morris turn in his grave. That Mr. Crane did not order his Society into sackcloth and ashes, that he did not hide his head with shame at the thought of the responsibility thus so largely thrust upon him, but that, on the contrary, he seems extremely pleased, is one of the most dispiriting features of all. And I have referred thus at length to his preface because I think it helps to explain the character of the show.

Indeed, nothing short of the deliberate acceptance of a "new ideal" would account

for the furniture. It is hard to understand how English craftsmen, with the fine models left by Chippendale, Sheraton, the Adams, should have gone so hopelessly astray. That they have so little to show in this section is the one redeeming point. For, in the modern cabinet and sideboard, table and chair, bureau and writing-desk, as one sees them here, there is as little respect for structural form as for elegance of detail. Even when the simplicity of materials and general design requires an appropriate severity in the decoration, there is a tendency to over-elaboration. If the ornament were beautiful there would be less reason for criticism: one would make the best of it, as one does of so much of the old Rococo flamboyancy. But it is cheap in finish; there are no longer the beautiful mouldings that should be to furniture what they are to architecture. This year, I notice a growing use of a strip of inlay in a sort of checker-board pattern that, I am told, can be had at so much a foot; while fussy curves and eccentric lines are stuck on where they are not only ugly but useless. Or, where there is an attempt at greater refinement in materials and workmanship, as in an inlaid cabinet sent by Morris & Co., the pattern of the inlay is almost forced or tortured into prominence until you can see nothing else. I say this with the more reluctance because the cabinet is one of the best made and finished pieces of furniture in the exhibition. But I turned with positive relief to a plain, rush-bottomed oak armchair, absolutely without ornament, unpretending, and yet so uncompromising in its plainness that it has at least the beauty of consistency—of being exactly what it sets out to be. I might also except a music cabinet and writing cabinet by Mr. Henry Wilson, who has the good sense not to sacrifice art to fashion, and who realizes that austerity may have its value.

The best that can be said of the designs for carpets is that hardly any are shown. Mr. Crane does what he can with the rose, the lily, and the carnation as motives, but it is curious how tentative and immature the work of a man who has devoted all his professional life to design can sometimes look. Mr. Crane, practically only yesterday, returned from his triumph on the Continent, chiefly at Budapest and Turin. It is doubtful whether his name has ever been so well and so widely known. And yet, the more one sees of his work, the readier one is to believe that it is to his toy books he really owes and will owe his reputation. These he did extremely well, but the toy-book method seems to have pursued him through all the numerous crafts he has practised, and to many it is far from appropriate. His wall-papers I should like to see covering the wall of a room and not shown as samples, with a number of others, by the firm who produce them. The crétonnes and most of the textiles, though sent by different individuals and firms, are, as is unavoidable, exhibited in much the same way, and it is difficult to judge what their decorative merit may be when applied to the end for which they are intended. Mr. Day's work of this kind is always marked by knowledge, skill, and judgment; he knows how to fill his space so that the pattern gives the necessary color and variety to the surface without ever asserting itself; but he keeps to his well-tried conventions. His designs, in effect anyway, differ but little one year from those of the year before.

Greatest ingenuity seems, since the last exhibition, to have been devoted to embroidery. Panels and counterpanes, friezes and portières hang on the walls, cases are full of smaller and more delicate examples. One might almost fancy the hanging committee, in despair over an empty space of wall, going out into the highways and byways in search of any stray bits of embroidery to cover it. Good workmanship is common enough—most women, who put themselves to it, can master the technique of needlework; but good designs are rarer. One exhibitor has actually copied with her needle Fra Lippo's "Annunciation" in the National Gallery, a second has embroidered in four big panels life-size figures to illustrate a mystic allegory, and many others have aimed at "pictures," less ambitious in scale, but still apparently meant to rival, in silks and crewels, the variety and resources of the painter's palette. Certainly, it is the last sort of needlework one would expect to find in the exhibition founded by William Morris and based upon the principles of decorative art upheld by him. It seemed only in keeping that I did not come across anything by Miss May Morris, though it may be she has work hidden away somewhere. The catalogue supplied to me was anything but a complete guide.

Plenty of space is devoted to cartoons in black-and-white for stained glass, but none to the glass itself, so that in this section one pronounces judgment with hesitation. Mr. Selwyn Image, Mr. Anning Bell, Mr. Louis Davis, Mr. Christopher Whall, all have designs that look promising enough, though Mr. Davis and Mr. Whall treat their scriptural and other subjects with an irritating suggestion of condescension, of adapting their conceptions to childish powers of appreciation. The story of the Nativity and similar themes seem, in their decorative version, addressed to children, and I must confess this is an affectation which, to me, becomes as tedious as the opposite affectation of appealing only to the esoteric and morbid few. There is much more virility in a big cartoon, also in black-and-white, for a modelled frieze by Mr. Wilson.

Other black-and-white work there is in plenty—illustrations, book-plates, woodcuts, and so on. But in no section have the members of the Society allowed their prejudices so completely to get the better of them. They refuse to recognize that an illustration can decorate a page unless it is worked out according to formulas approved at Kelmscott and adopted by Mr. Walter Crane. When good men make use of these formulas, the results may be impressive or pleasing, as in the designs of Mr. Strang, Mr. Anning Bell, Mr. Guthrie, Mr. Eve. But in the hands of the second and third-rate draughtsman, they degenerate into empty mannerisms, tedious beyond endurance, Nowhere is contemporary illustration so inefficiently represented as at the Arts and Crafts. In examples of printing, the restrictions are as absurd, though less disastrous, since the few printers admitted really can and do turn out excellent work. The Chiswick is an old-established press that maintains its high standard; the Doves Press, and the Vale (really the Ballantyne Press) have produced beautiful books when they have managed to forget their affectations, and I am glad to see that the worst faults of the Kelmscott Press are not so fondly cherished as of yore by the admirers of Morris. The Vale Press makes some concession to the prevailing mode by exhibiting books decorated in color, but the color is used in simple flat tints, and with a reserve that might give a lesson to those American printers who are now rioting in the three (or other)- color processes. It is a pity the same reserve is not shown in the decoration of the page. One, at least, of the books from this Press, Bacon's essay on Gardens, decorated by Mr. Pissarro, is open at a page in which the few lines of text are all but swallowed up in the profuseness of ornament. Technical excellence, not a common virtue among English craftsmen, also distinguishes some of the book-bindings by Mr. Douglas Cockerell, Mr. Cobden Saunderson, and Miss MacColl; and the simpler the decorative scheme, the less attempt there is to express the unutterable in symbolic curves and significant curlicues, the more workmanlike, the more really beautiful they are. I should point to a binding for a large edition of the Bible by Mr. Douglas Cockerell, severe in its absolute simplicity, as the most successful of them all; that is, from the point of view of the artist.

More space, probably, than ever before is given to metal work and jewellery. Copper and brass are apt to be hopelessly abused, and twisted or elongated or curved into "new art" novelties, when they are not brutalized by a clumsy scheme of ornament. But ocasionally an exhibitor, like Mr. Rathbone, who in large designs seems to lose all sense of grace and appropriateness, does remember that there can be beauty in simplicity of form and line when he designs such small articles as candlesticks and jugs. The Guild of Handicraft, who are as affected as anybody when they choose—or more so—have their lucid moments of simplicity, and some of their silver dishes and chalices are graceful enough in shape, with all the charm of plain surfaces, to need no further ornament. But Mr. Alexander Fisher is the best silversmith of them all. Sometimes, as in a very fine crucifix he is now exhibiting, he combines silver with enamel so that the harmonious scheme of color satisfies the eye as completely as the grace and dignity of design. His work of this kind is so distinguished and shows such a right feeling for the limitations as well as the possibilities of his materials, that I can forgive him the less for his zealous but mistaken excursions in enamel, when, as in a triptych illustrating the text, "Behold, I stand at the door and knock," he lets technical experiment run away with him until, in striving for the color that probably no one has ever got in enamels before, he loses sight of the fact that it is not worth getting at all.

Something of this same sense of and seeking for color is revealed in the glass in conjunction with metal, as shown by Messrs. Powell, and also in the jewellery. Precious stones and precious metals and enamels are, now and then, used as a painter uses his paints to produce a harmony, with exquisite results, though the English jeweller in his technique has still much to learn from the French craftsman. Besides, as jewellery is the fashionable craft of the moment, many seem to have gone in for it simply to make the most of the fashion while it lasts. There is a good deal that is deplorably crude, and it is matter of regret

that Mr. Henry Wilson, of whom so many exhibitors are but feeble and far-away imitators, sends nothing. Again, though a few years back the object of the arts and craftsman in his jewellery was all to imitate the barbaric limitations of primitive ornament, taking peasant work for his model, now he aims at elaboration and effects quite beyond the province of his medium. But, after all, it is here you have the root of the evil felt in almost all the decorative arts of to-day. The craftsman seems to be without definite aims or principles. He has heard a great deal about the virtue of individuality, and his entire energy is spent in cultivating it rather than his art. Now it leads him back to primitive masters who have long since been surpassed; now it brings him to the feet of "art" promoters launching a new fashion In neither case does he ever forget himself for his work, and thus we have self-conscious eccentricity instead of the genuine love or serious study of the principle of design without which there never has been and never can be great decoration.

N. N.

Correspondence.

BOOKS AS TOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Francis Darwin, in the 'Life and Letters of Charles Darwin,' states that his father had no respect for books as books. He left them unbound and falling to pieces; he did not scruple to cut a heavy volume in two for convenience of holding; in short, he regarded books simply as tools to work with. And as for pamphlets, "he would tear out, for the sake of saving room, all the pages except the one that interested him."

This treatment of unbound literature is not uncommon among modern scholars, and the urgency of a pressing need is not unlikely to subject costly books to the same unceremonious ordeal. Darwin's system of the tabulation of data has been followed by not a few investigators, who realize the treacheries of memory, and foresee the inevitable future waste of time and effectiveness which the non-systematic student invites. A system for the speedy and voluminous filing of information has become a *sine qua non* of modern scientific scholarship.

Some investigators, able to value their time above the extra expense, attain their ends by elaborate transcripts, done by hired amanuenses, and thus avoid Darwin's "bibliophagy," from which the lover of books recoils. But such assistance is beyond the means of most scholars, and the only alternatives are laborious copying with their own hands, or some adaptation of Darwin's practice. The former alternative plunges one into an abyss of hackwork, and few there be who do not shirk it. Following Darwin's plan, others resort to the purchase of two copies of the most important books of reference, and ruthlessly cut one or both, so as to be able to paste the excerpts upon their uniform note-cards and file them away. This method certainly avoids the untidiness of the shelves at Down, but it involves no small expense and an unnecessary waste of bookmakers' labor.

The problem is solved, however, in the case of some publications, notably the 'Advanced Sheets of the U. S. Consular Reports,' which are a boon to the note-collector. These are printed upon one side only of a thin, but durable sheet, and so lend themselves readily to cutting and pasting, a single copy being all that is necessary. Again, one is sometimes so fortunate as to get a galley or page proof of a review article, and thus is enabled to dodge a deal of uncongenial toil. The great saving in such cases of time, labor, and expense to the scholar raises the query, Could not publishers afford to undertake an advance subscription edition, at a moderate price, of the text of new and important scientific works and articles, to be issued in page proof, unbound, uncut—in fact, simply accurately and clearly printed? The advantages to the investigator of such a system are self-evident.

From the publishers' standpoint, likewise, it appears that there would be something to gain. Few scholars are willing to have notes alone, and no library; nothing can, after all, replace the volume on the shelf. Such an edition would be likely to affect sales but slightly, while it would advertise the book to a considerable extent and in the right quarters. Again, the presentation-copies account would be considerably reduced, together with postage and express-age. And even though the undertaking realized a slight loss at first, the prestige of the firm or bureau which should take it up would be of no small importance.

Of the net business value of such an enterprise, of course, no layman can presume to judge; but the demand for some such system, already faintly outlined here and there by the appearance of tentative efforts to meet it, is sure to grow in the future, if science is to advance.

Albert G. Keller.

Yale University, January 30, 1903.

Notes.

Mr. Thomas Willing Balch, 1412 Spruce Street, Philadelphia, will shortly have ready a monograph on the Alaskan Frontier, containing 26 maps, some very rare, and some "absolutely conclusive evidence against Canada and England." Mr. Balch has journeyed very extensively for his material.

A diligent historian, Mr. Julius F. Sachse, is preparing to issue by subscription a fifth volume in a related series, entitled 'Justus Falckner, Mystic and Scholar, Devout Pietist in Germany, Hermit on the Wissahickon, Missionary on the Hudson: A Bicentennial Memorial.' The edition will be limited to 500 copies, royal 8vo, and will be published by the author at No. 4428 Pine Street, Philadelphia.

Doubleday, Page & Co.'s spring announcements include 'The Life of James Madison,' by Gaillard Hunt, the first volume in the "Biographical History of the United States"; 'The Story of My Life,' by Helen Keller; 'Essays on Education,' by President Eliot of Harvard; 'The Nature-Study Idea,' by Prof. L. H. Bailey; 'The Moon,' by Prof. William H. Pickering; 'Macbeth,' the first volume in Professor Liddell's "Elizabethan Shakspere"; 'Principles of Home Decoration,' by Mrs. Candace Wheeler; 'How to Keep Well,' by Dr. Floyd M. Crandall; 'How to Make Money: Eighty Practical Suggestions to Untrained Women,' by Katharine Newbold Birdsall; 'The Wind in the Rose-Bush,' stories of the supernatural, by Mary E. Wilkins; and 'The Conquering of Kate,' by J. P. Mowbray.

Macmillan promises for next month 'Athletics and Outdoor Sports by Women,' by numerous hands, introduced by a general introduction by Miss Lucille Eaton Hill, Director of Physical Training at Wellesley College.

'Horses Nine: Stories of Harness and Saddle,' by Sewell Ford, and 'The Meaning of Pictures,' by John C. Van Dyke, are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

'Written in Florence,' a collection of the last poems of Hugh McCulloch, grandson and namesake of the former Secretary of the Treasury, is announced by Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. have nearly ready a reprint of Daniel Williams Harmon's 'Journal of Voyages and Travels in the Interior of North America"; an unabridged reprint of Freeborough and Ranken's 'Chess Openings'; likewise of 'Joe Miller's Jestbook'; and 'The Life and Voyages of Americus Vespuccius,' by C. Edwards Lester.

A new and enlarged edition (the tenth) of Dr. Griffis's 'The Mikado's Empire' is to come from the Harpers.

The Chicago University Press will issue 'The Poems of Anne Countess of Winchelsea,' edited by Myra Reynolds.

The Bowen-Merrill Co. of Indianapolis has changed its style to the Bobbs-Merrill Co., in accordance with its present composition.

John Woolman's Diary for the pocket and a quarter of a dollar presents an irresistible combination. Such is the latest addition to Macmillan's "Pocket American and English Classics." There are a few notes at the end.

The Dent-Macmillan Thackeray makes a new volume of that author's 'English Humorists' and 'Four Georges,' separated by a New York charity lecture on "Charity and Humor." Mr. Charles E. Brock supplies some fitting illustrations and embellishments, and Mr. Walter Jerrold, as usual, provides the preface. This editor is unlucky enough to correct a long overlooked error in a footnote on Steele, and to let pass on the opposite page of his preface a mutilated line from Boileau, where "réjoin" stands for "réjoui."

The delightful Newnes-Scribner "Caxton Series," in limp blue-and-gold covers and with etched frontispiece and title-page, besides other illustrations, arrives at Herrick's 'Hesperides,' in two volumes suitable for hand and pocket or satchel. It has an index of first lines, but no other apparatus. Another issue in the same series is Lodge's 'Rosalynde,' equally handy and ornamental.

Mr. John Lane brings up his tiny reserves with the 'Love Poems of W. S. Blunt' ("Lover's Library"), framed in violet and printed in green; and with Milton's 'Lycidas' ("Flowers of Parnassus," xvii.), whose illustrations, by Gertrude Brodie, are decorative and in keeping with the spirit of the poem.

By reprinting Gov. Cadwallader Colden's 'History of the Five Indian Nations' the New Amsterdam Book Company has made accessible a book of some scarcity and

value. There is a new introduction by Mr. Robert Waite, which, strangely enough, contains no bibliographical information whatever, not even a suggestion that the History had ever been in type before. This leads us to wonder whether the publishers are aware that they have served up merely the London reprint of 1755, with all its imperfections, instead of the very rare and interesting original (New York: William Bradford, 1727).

In 'The Legends of the Iroquois,' by William W. Canfield (A. Wessels Co.), we have a number of tales, mostly of Iroquois origin, but frequently containing a strong admixture of Algonquin material, and showing the influence of European contact as well. In his lack of the critical faculty the compiler occasionally suggests the late Henry R. Schoolcraft, author of voluminous and irrelevant writings on the same subject. Thus, it is remarked that "the traditions of the Iroquois herein contained are known positively to be two hundred years old, and are confidently believed to be the stories told by the red men thousands of years ago." Such, in the form here presented, several of them certainly are not; yet, when rightly classed, the book which Mr. Canfield's patient researches have produced is of real interest and value. It contains some very ancient stories, a few simple and unaltered, others recognizable in spite of recent embellishments; and the compiler, by faithful and sympathetic endeavor, has presented his material in a form attractive both to the specialist and to him who reads for pleasure. The notes contained in an appendix are often ingenious and suggestive, and might have been made more accurate and complete had the author been familiar with the writings of Horatio Hale and Lewis H. Morgan.

Mr. Charles Moore, whose papers in the *Century* on the "Improvement of Washington City" we noticed a year ago, has edited for the Government Printing-Office a volume on the 'Improvement of the Park System of the District of Columbia.' It contains reports of the Senate Committee, of which Mr. Moore is clerk, and also of the Park Commission, consisting of Messrs. Daniel H. Burnham, Charles F. McKim, Augustus Saint-Gaudens, and Frederick Law Olmsted, jr. This latter report occupies the bulk of the volume, and is illustrated by scores of full-page plates and many larger views, showing the proposed treatment of various parts of the city *in extenso*. Many of the plates represent parks, fountains, etc., in various other cities, American and European. Appendices deal with such subjects as Public Bathing Places, Anacostia Park, Rock Creek Valley, list of drawings, designs, and models collected for the use of the Commission and now on exhibition in the Library of Congress, and list of lands devoted to public use. There are also a number of large maps. It will be seen at once that the volume is of great importance to persons interested in civic improvement. It is designated as Senate Report No. 166, Fifty-seventh Congress, First Session, or it may be called for by its serial number in the Congressional Series, which is 4,258.

'Henry Grattan,' an essay by Alfred E. Zimmern (Oxford: B. H. Blackwell), has merit beyond its bulk. It will impress many readers as the most important contribution to the understanding of the life and policy of a great Irishman that has appeared since Mr. Lecky's essay on 'The Leaders of Public Opinion in Ireland,' which was first published anonymously forty years ago. If Mr. Lecky then was partially responsible for the rise in an educated circle of home-rule principles, it is to be hoped that Mr. Zimmern's essay will now help towards an enduring settlement between Great Britain and Ireland. Unbiassed truth is not always welcome to either party in a quarrel, and there is something of the bitterness of truth in these pages. The author, though not sparing what he considers the weaknesses and limitations of Grattan's powers and genius, does full credit to their greatness and splendor—especially to his limpid honesty and his patriotism. Upon the world's stage he may not have been great; he was so upon the stage of his country. The work is mainly a review of the political relations of the British Islands as influenced by Grattan's life and teachings. An elaborate review of it would tend more to a political dissertation than to a consideration of Grattan's life. The style is clear and interesting. As the future of Ireland most depends upon the exercise by Irishmen of their own good sense, to them especially we would commend the work before us.

Samuel Smith ("Sammy," as some of the less reverent members of the House of Commons call him), M. P. for Flintshire, is one of the most conscientious and philanthropic members of the British Parliament. In 'My Life-Work,' lately published by Hodder & Stoughton, London, a closely printed volume of over 600 pages, he gives to the world a record of his life, and his opinions upon all imaginable subjects, from bimetallism and home rule to the descent of man and Bible inspiration, and tells how from a Scottish farmer boy he has risen to be a wealthy Liverpool merchant and for long years the representative of a Scottish shire. His portrait faces the title-page; and photogravures are given of his wife and son (whose deaths have left him alone in the world), and of many of the places he has visited in his repeated wanderings over the globe. The simplicity of the man, and the spirit earnest for good that shines through the pages, disarm criticism of the book from a literary point of view.

Munich is the Mecca of palæontologists, and Prof. Karl von Zittel has done more than any living man, through his comprehensive work, 'Handbuch der Palaeontologie,' published between 1881 and 1885, to bring palæontology within the reach of students in all parts of the world. This work has been translated into every language, except English. In 1895 the same author issued his 'Grundzüge der Palaeontologie,' a work condensed from the four volumes of the 'Handbuch' to a single volume of nearly a thousand pages. Into this volume is crowded an epitome of the whole fossil record of the world from the dawn of life to the advent of man, a period of millions of years. It is richly illustrated from the rare collections in Munich, and from other parts of the world. Dr. Charles R. Eastman, of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy of Harvard, has rendered a decided service in translating the latter work ('Text-book of Palæontology'), revising it with the assistance of a number of American and English palæontologists, and bringing it up to date. The first part of the translation appeared in 1896 (Macmillan), and covered the invertebrates. The present, second part covers the older vertebrates, fishes, amphibians, reptiles, and birds. The third part, yet to appear, will cover the mammals. The whole work is admirably done, and constitutes the best treatise in our language on this entire branch of science. The section on the fishes, by Dr. A. Smith Woodward, of the British Museum, a leading authority, is naturally the part in which the most original work appears. The systematic arrangement of the groups is rather conservative, as it was not the intention of the author to depart widely from the lines laid down by Von Zittel, this having been one of the features most criticised in Park I. The volume is admirably printed and illustrated, and will find its way into the hands of all American and European students of this subject.

The appearance of the second volume of the Catalogue of Greek Manuscripts in the Italian Libraries, from the pen of the indefatigable E. Martini, who, in 1893, issued the first volume devoted to the smaller collections of these manuscripts, is all the more gratifying because it contains the description of the treasures found in Vallicelliana in Rome, which, including the manuscripts of Leo Allatius, embrace 221 numbers. Many of these are late productions, and their contents are of a theological character. The secular specimens are particularly rich in grammatical literature of the Byzantine period, including in its oldest portions two copies of the so-called Lexicon of Cyril. Not a few of these documents, after the manner of those of the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, are filled with extracts from various writers. The author of this work announces one still more important, namely, Catalogue of the Greek Codices of the Ambrosian Library in Milan, which he has had in preparation for several years in conjunction with his friend Bassi. The collection includes some 2,500 numbers, and is especially rich in patristic and Byzantine literature. The zeal evinced in recent years in the work of cataloguing the Greek manuscripts of Italy, especially by Vitelli and Martini, awakens the hope that the Marciana in Venice, the Laurentiana in Florence, and especially the Vaticana, recently augmented and enriched by the Barberini collection, will also soon be made accessible to scholars by satisfactory catalogues.

The great Muret-Sanders Encyclopædic Dictionary of the German and English Languages, no doubt the most exhaustive dictionary of these two languages extant, has not only been completed in the unabridged edition, but a "School and Hand Edition," in two volumes, has also been published. The English-German part contains 845 three-column pages, quarto size, and the German-English 889. The former is the work of B. Klatt, and the latter of H. Baumann, author of an excellent collection of 'Londonisms' in a separate small volume. The new abridgment of Muret-Sanders has evidently been very carefully done; if anything, it contains too much and not too little. Both editions are especially rich in difficult and rare words, expressions, and definitions. The reader rarely consults them in vain. The publishers are the Langen-

scheidt house, of Hamburg. Each volume of the school edition costs 15 marks.

The Messrs. Scribner's *Lamp* is merely an old acquaintance, the *Book Buyer*, under a new name. If the first volume of the new series may serve as a basis for generalization, the *Lamp* is likely to be more hospitable to longish essays than its predecessor was. Otherwise, as an editorial note advises us, this is not a new magazine, but a development of an old. Most interesting among the articles is, perhaps, Elizabeth Luther Cary's "John Adams and Mary Wollstonecraft" — strange running mates even in a casual essay. John Adams in his old age read 'The History of the French Revolution,' by Mary Wollstonecraft (his copy is now in the Boston Public Library), and enriched it with his notes. Perhaps one should rather say his objurgations, for John Adams was little in sympathy with the vivacious apologist of the Revolution.

The *Literary World*, Boston, founded in 1870, has passed into the hands of L. C. Page & Co., and under the editorial direction of Mr. Bliss Carman.

Of decided interest to scholars is the first number of the *Journal of Comparative Literature*, which has just come to hand. This new quarterly is edited by Professor Woodberry of Columbia, assisted by his colleague, Dr. Spingarn, and by Prof. J. B. Fletcher of Harvard. The present number contains the editor's explanation of the meaning of Comparative Literature, the first instalment of a study of "Huguenot Thought in England" by Professor Bastide, some "Unpublished Letters of an English Humanist," John Phrea (who studied at Ferrara about the middle of the fifteenth century), edited by Dr. Spingarn. "Molière en Italie," by Professor Toldo of Turin, is the last of the longer articles. Departments of notes and reviews complete the roll. The international and learned nature of the publication is indicated by the use indifferently of English, French, and Italian in the articles, while the absence of Germany is undoubtedly fortuitous, and of no political import. McClure, Phillips & Co. publish the magazine, and give a beautiful impression in bold-faced type on creamy paper.

A new Italian review, *La Critica*, has just appeared at Naples, under the editorship of Signor Benedetto Croce, whose 'History of Æsthetics' was reviewed recently in these columns. The new venture is devoted to the advancement of general culture in Italy, and to the synthetic statement of modern Italian ideals. A brilliant study of Carducci by the editor opens the first number, and is followed by a series of trenchant reviews of recent publications, both Italian and foreign, in the fields of literature, philosophy, and history.

Two additional sheets of the New Jersey State Atlas on the enlarged scale of two inches to the mile have just been put forth by the State Geological Survey at Trenton. The one embraces the tract from Trenton (inclusive) to Bordentown and eastward; the other shows Atlantic City, and the adjacent coast and ocean. They are named for the capital and the watering-place respectively, and, like the original inch-to-the-mile series, are to be had of the Survey for twenty-five cents each. Superficially considered, they lack the interest of more elevated regions in the same State, but geologically and economically they are of no little importance.

"Small service is true service," says the poet, and Mr. José Sirvent "(American citizen, 1921 Vermont Avenue, Washington, D. C.)" reminds an ungrateful republic of his, viz., in drawing up "12 Rules to Divide Words in Spanish," which "forever" ensures accuracy in the Spanish printing of our Government Printing-Office, where the rules have been adopted with thanksgiving. Wherefore, "the author now presents his petition to the end that the Congress of the United States may see fit to grant him some suitable compensation." There were, however, brave men before Agamemnon. The Government Printing-Office's neglect of an easily accessible guide in this matter, viz., the rules given in Professor Knapp's twenty-year-old Spanish Grammar, and reprinted by permission in Mr. De Vinne's 'Correct Composition' (1901), hardly justifies Mr. Sirvent's petition—all the more because his rules are incomplete, as any one may see who compares the two.

—Thomas A. Janvier begins in the February *Harper's* an attempt to extricate the Dutch settlers of Manhattan from the web of misconceptions woven about them by the subtle art of Washington Irving. In general the charge against Irving is that over the bare facts, which it is admitted that he collected with surprising accuracy, "he has cast everywhere the glamour of a belittling farcical romance." And more particularly he has painted a set of sleepy, tobacco-loving loiterers in place of a hard-headed, hard-hitting, ever strenuous band of adventurers. When Mr. Janvier succeeds in rescuing them from Irving, it is odds that some other defender will appear in their behalf against Mr. Janvier himself, for he dubs them a rough lot, who "did not come here for their health"; ready to cheat the Indians at all times, and one another on due occasion. Snarling litigators they were among themselves, consistently evading the revenue laws of the colony, and contemptuously breaking any other law which at any time got in their way. But at the present day it may be that the saving grace of strenuosity will cover even such a multitude of sins. Professor Woodberry writes of the "Literary Age of Boston," enumerating its six greatest names in relative rank as Emerson, Longfellow, Hawthorne, Holmes, Whittier, and Lowell. Many will welcome his strong defence of Longfellow against current depreciation, but perhaps a larger number will resent what seems an undue disparagement of Lowell. To say that Lowell "now seems essentially a man of letters of high endowments, having the accomplishment of verse with his many other rich and varied gifts, and no more than that," and that "his prose is of a transitory nature and steadily grows less interesting," is hardly satisfactory. As between Holmes and Whittier, some may be surprised to read that Whittier had vastly the greater range, but the assertion will bear the test of investigation. Studied in the light of a real knowledge of Whittier, the common belief that a hobby inevitably narrows a man must be admitted to have exceptions.

—In the February *Atlantic* President Hadley begins a broad study of "Academic Freedom in Theory and Practice." On the one hand, we have in every age a set of institutions with the permanence of which the safety of the State and the citizen seems to be bound up; on the other hand, the scholarly investigator, filled with the conviction that he has unearthed new truth the propagation of which is essential to further progress. Position and training fit trustees, donors, and the conservative forces of society in general to appreciate the one side of this antithesis, the teacher to appreciate the other. The problem, then, is to soften this antithesis, and so to order our activities as to secure the advantages of the discovery and propagation of new truth without any dangerous shock to existing institutions. Mr. J. T. Trowbridge carries the story of his life through the fifteen months spent in New York city, ending in August, 1848, the period of first encounters with editors and publishers in his efforts to secure a living by his pen. Under the heading of "The Literary Pilgrimage," Rollin Lynde Hartt gives a somewhat amusing account of the woes brought upon his head by his recent efforts to "see life steadily and see it whole" in Iowa and other Western States. But perhaps the most interesting article of the number is a short study of Libin, the untrained Yiddish writer who has recently come into prominence by his realistic sketches of the submerged East Side life, of which his own life forms a part. Here we have realism due to no oppressive theory, but to an unsophisticated outburst of reality itself. The question remains whether the product is to be classified under belles-lettres or sociology. In writing briefly of the 'Cambridge Modern History,' Prof. Ephraim Emerton contends that the new science of history can never find its true response in the world until it discovers its own form of artistic expression. As literature is its only medium, we are to look forward to a new era of artistic historical composition, new in the sense that it must be adjusted to a scientific method not in vogue when the artistic historical writing of the past was achieved.

—The Variorum edition of Edward FitzGerald's writings (the letters excepted) is not quite completed before a reissue (also in seven volumes) of everything that his literary executor has put forth is begun by Macmillan. That is to say, we shall have all that was contained in Mr. Aldis Wright's three-volume edition of 1889, now out of print; the subsequent Eversley edition (in two volumes) of the letters alone, augmented; the volume of letters to Fanny Kemble; and the recent volume of 'More Letters.' All the correspondence will now be arranged in chronological sequence. Such is the final monument, not a stone added except in the way of correction or spare annotation. Thus, FitzGerald's Spanish studies are carried back to 1850 rather than 1853, as formerly; and the first two stanzas of his lines "To a Lady Singing" (letter to Allen, December 7, 1832) have been recovered. On the other hand, in the new second volume, in connection with that wonderfully feeling tribute to Major Moor, the footnote (as in the 1889 edition) quotes a related passage from another letter which meanwhile has been printed entire in the Eversley edition, and here reappears only five pages off. This is an editorial oversight, but serves to indicate that Mr. Wright was originally possessed of more than he chose (perhaps from considerations of bulk)

to give out; or perhaps he was feeling his market. The two volumes before us, richly bound in red silk, surpass the three of 1889 typographically only in the largeness of the print of the main text. In other respects we find the earlier typographic scheme the more elegant, and no less legible in the notes. But these liberal pages are good for old eyes, for a show of reverence, and for reading aloud, not privately, but to a sympathetic company. We cannot believe they will ever stale from reperusal, exciting such unfailing interest in the writer's personality, and bearing such enduring lessons in taste and criticism, in sentiment, in English epistolary style, such reflex portraiture of the correspondents addressed. In other fields than literature, FitzGerald's rare excursions show the sane mind of the genuine humorist. "I am no politician," he writes to Allen (October 31, 1835) of the new Poor Laws; "but I fear that no political measure will ever adjust matters well between rich and poor." And again, in Sepoy times (August 15, 1857): "As to public matters, I scarcely meddle with them, and don't know what to think of India, except that it is very terrible. I always think a Nation with great Estates is like a Man with them:—more trouble than Profit; I would only have a *Competence* for my Country as for myself." It is hard to refrain from further excerpts from these letters, whose periodicity suggests the tidal lives of limpets and such creatures on FitzGerald's own Suffolk shore.

—Mr. Joseph McDonough, Albany, has had reprinted (*verbatim et literatim*) for himself five hundred copies of a work which more than forty years ago showed the following title-page: 'Early Voyages Up and Down the Mississippi by Cavelier, St. Cosme, Le Sueur, Gravier, and Grignas. With an introduction, notes, and an index, by John Gilmary Shea.' McDonough has thus honored Shea with a monument which would have pleased him better than could any statue. He has paid a fitting tribute to a man who, through the third quarter of the last century, was one of the few scholars who most promoted the publication of what are now called source-books of history. Such sources he detected, begged, borrowed, bought, translated, and, through the art preservative, not only saved when ready to perish, but made popular, influential, and prized up to their real value. In 1861 his 'Early Voyages' could not have been printed in more than a hundred copies. The subscribers for it were seventy-two, five of them for such large paper copies, 7x9 inches, as McDonough has now reproduced a hundredfold. Shea was still a voice crying in the wilderness. His volume, which he was first to translate from French—largely from manuscripts—was throughout from chroniclers either forgotten or newly first printed. But it furnished at first hand La Salle's last attempt, as described by his brother, to force a passage from Texas to the Mississippi, and the last letter that hero is known to have written. Its main contents are, however, voyages about 1700 up and down the great river, one of them of sixty-five days, with jottings day by day. These were path-findings, but epoch-making, as they show the first French permanent occupation, just forestalling both Spaniards and English, with stations from Wisconsin to Louisiana; and one voyage was as late as 1728. Faith, fur, and false fancies concerning copper and blue clay enkindled strange inspirations. Shea speaks of French, English, and Spanish flags floating on the mighty river and disappearing within a century; and, going to press in 1861, adds: "Two now divide it; let us hope that the altered flag may soon resume its original form," etc. Shea's volume abounds in explanatory footnotes. There are thirty relating to Le Sueur's voyage up the river to where Mankato now stands and (meaning "blue clay") marks the spot where that adventurer dug an earth more precious, as he trusted, than porcelain. The chapter on Le Sueur, borrowed from Shea, has just been republished in the Collections of the Wisconsin State Historical Society (vol. xvi., pp. 177-194). The Wisconsin editor has added twenty notes such as Shea himself would have added had recent finds been made earlier. Our only regret is that McDonough's reprint was not made perfect by notelets on similar lines.

—'Insurance and Crime,' by Alexander Colin Campbell (Putnams), is "a consideration of the effects upon society of the abuses of insurance, together with certain historical instances of such abuses." While inconclusive as to remedies, this volume of 400 pages has some value as a record of crime and fraud in connection with insurance. As insurance grows, so crime in connection with it grows. The Pitezel-Holmes story (p. 243) is as extraordinary a narrative of crime as any to be found in history, and shows that the astuteness of the criminal is ever on the alert to keep pace with the developments of the business on which he preys. But this is no more true of insurance than of any other department of human activity. The Humbert frauds, for instance, show that crime keeps pace with law and banking. The author seems himself to look for little improvement from legislation, and would rely mainly on public opinion to cut off openings to crime in connection with insurance. On one specific point he desires to focus public attention—"the practice, which may be said to be universal in insurance, of employing canvassers to bring in business, and paying those canvassers by a commission on the premiums they bring in." A Royal Commission in England has, it seems, taken up the commission system in connection with child insurance, and it is, as the author says, "obvious to every man" that the agent paid by commission "has a constant interest in favor of getting much business as against getting good business."

—Each fresh work from M. Jacques Reich's etching-needle shows a steady advance in technique, while he continues to cultivate the large scale. We have just received from him a striking copy of the Stuart Washington deposited by the Boston Athenæum in the Museum of Fine Arts of that city, and a copy, of equal size, of Rembrandt Peale's portrait of Jefferson, in the possession of the New York Historical Society. In the case of the Washington, the unfinished canvas is shown as in the original, so that the lower third of the print is like a foam out of which the severe head arises against a dark background. Jefferson, with fur-trimmed coat and flowing hair, is completely etched, and presents his philosophic aspect. The eye and the whole muscular play of the features reveal a more curious, flexible, and interesting mind than his great compeer's. Both these etchings must be pronounced adequate, and neither is superfluous, in spite of the innumerable reproductions of the Stuart painting, and Mr. Reich and the public are to be congratulated on these notable additions to the best section of our national portrait gallery. Mr. Reich's address is 2 West 14th Street, New York.

—The Archæological Society of Athens has just published its Report (Πρακτικά) for 1901, giving summary accounts of the work of that body, to which is intrusted the care of the monuments and museums of Greece. The income of the Society is derived from a lottery, for which it has the monopoly in the kingdom, and this income is to be increased, since the Parliament has voted to allow the sale of a larger number of tickets. A considerable part of the work of the Society is the preservation of the monuments of antiquity. Thus, for five years it has been engaged in strengthening the ruins of the Parthenon, and now it is about to undertake more extensive repairs for the Erechtheum. It has built several museums, and is enlarging that at Corinth for the protection of objects found in the American excavations there. The heaps of rubbish which have disfigured the slopes of the citadel of Mycenæ since Schliemann's excavations a score of years ago have been removed, at least in great part. At Dimini and Sesklo in Thessaly have been discovered the only citadels of the stone age yet found in Greece proper, with implements of stone and bone, and images of stone and clay. A large Roman building of the early Christian period has been uncovered at Megalopolis. The expenditures during the year for antiquities for the museums were very trifling, only about $120. A new law not only forbids the exportation of any objects which the Society desires, but declares such objects to be the property of the Society, awarding to the finder such remuneration as the Society may think proper to give. For the first time in many years, the Society sends young archæologists to study archæological methods in Germany. Greece has no archæologists outside of Athens, and trained students are sadly needed to care for her provincial museums, properly arranging and cataloguing their contents, with due appreciation for the works of antiquity discovered in the district. Thus, while Germany and France, as well as Great Britain and America, are sending young men to Greece for the study of classical archæology, the Greeks are sending their students to German universities. Both courses are wise. German and American students need to study the monuments themselves, and the Greeks will profit greatly by the more scientific methods of German universities.

A RE-ESTIMATE OF CARLYLE'S FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The French Revolution: A History in Three Parts. I. The Bastille; II. The Constitution; III. The Guillotine. By Thomas Carlyle. A new edition by C. R. L. Fletcher, M.A. In three volumes. London: Methuen & Co. 1902.

Sixty-five years ago and more, Carlyle charmed or offended, but in any case as-

tounded, the world of letters by his 'French Revolution.' The time has come to inquire what is the permanent worth of a book which at any rate purported to be a history?

To this inquiry Mr. Fletcher's admirable edition supplies, for any intelligent reader, something approaching to a final answer. Of the editor's labors we may say here, once and for all, that it is impossible to speak in terms of too high praise. He leaves Carlyle's own words absolutely untouched; he elucidates, in the strict sense of that word, just the points which Carlyle leaves obscure; he affords corrections of his author's actual errors, which are considerable, and supplies to students the means of attaining a knowledge of revolutionary history which is not to be gathered from the writings of Carlyle. Mr. Fletcher, lastly, gives an estimate of Carlyle's rank among historians, which anticipates, we are convinced, the enduring judgment of the world.

"People," he writes, "would be able to be much fairer to Carlyle if his book were called 'Pictures in the French Revolution,' instead of 'The French Revolution: A History.' Nobody can now call it a history, for it is a series of pictures merely, of almost equal literary merit, but of singularly unequal literary importance. . . . Primarily, then, the book is to be regarded as a series of pictures, and in these pictures a few great portraits stand out prominently on the canvas. . . . There are failures in the portrait gallery no doubt—one or two very bad failures, shown to be such by historical investigation since his time; yet, considering the small number of documents and books he can have had at his disposal, and the comparatively small number of even these which he read, it is the strongest proof of his insight that he was able to draw such wonderful portraits of the principal actors."

This passage, which, with regret, we are compelled to curtail, suggests the right point of view from which to regard Carlyle's work. His gift for portraiture was the talent which in 1837 arrested the attention and won the admiration of the public. That the portraits had the exaggeration and the monotony of caricatures, no more told against their effectiveness than the exaggerations or mannerism of Dickens prevented all England from roaring with laughter over the humor of Pickwick. Englishmen did not then possess anything like a readable history of the Revolution. "No great pretence at historical accuracy—not [Carlyle's] forte at any time—could be made in 1837; but it was time that England got some picture of the whole thing, and there was enough material at hand for the broad outlines to be filled in; this task he accomplished, I think, with a master hand."

It must be remembered, too, that in 1837 there prevailed two opposite views of the revolutionary movement, neither of which could satisfy the reason or the sentiment of thoughtful men among the then rising generation. The Tory doctrine (which, at a time when men lived who could well recollect the Reign of Terror, had many adherents), that the French Revolution was nothing better than an outburst of democratic folly and wickedness, was becoming obsolete. The conviction of the Whigs that revolutionary violence had been a transitory and subsidiary feature of a movement which had finally ended in the establishment, under Louis Philippe, of a Constitutional monarchy after the English model, was a comfortable creed, well suited to please men who believed that the Reform Act of 1832 was the greatest of statesmanlike achievements, and had put an end to all that was wrong in English society; but this optimistic faith, while it took no account of the spirit of the Revolution, brought no satisfaction to reformers who imagined, whether rightly or wrongly, that English politics and English society stood in need of fundamental renovation. To such men Carlyle opened a new view of the Revolution: he taught them that it was not so much a political event as a social, or rather a spiritual, reformation. From the beginning to the end of his book he proclaimed that the Revolution had put an end to shams and cant, and had opened the way to a reign of truth which would substitute realities for fictions.

It is, indeed, a singular sign of the change worked by the lapse of more than sixty years that this "gospel," to use an expression of Carlyle's school, which in 1837 formed half the charm of his 'French Revolution,' receives no notice whatever from Mr. Fletcher. But Mr. Fletcher's silence is wise. Carlyle's ethical or religious dogmas have absolutely nothing to do with our judgment on the course of events in France, and his doctrine, which meant so much to men such as Sterling, Kingsley, or Froude, and which certainly had its effect on the minds of thinkers as weighty and serious as Maurice and John Mill, is now, whatever its intrinsic merit, of little interest to the world. Carlyle's eternal truths are as much forgotten as the numerous Constitutions of France, which, though intended to endure forever, have lasted on an average for not more than ten or twelve years. But teaching which is obsolete has often produced immense effects in its own day, and Carlyle's reiterated sermons on such texts as "Light mortals, how ye walk your light life-minuet over bottomless abysses divided from you by a film!" immensely added to the impressiveness of the popularity of his 'French Revolution.' The success, then, of the book was due in the main to three causes—Carlyle's genius as a painter of historical scenes; the new light in which he presented the revolutionary movement; the moral teaching of which history in his hands was made the support and the illustration.

The effect, therefore, produced in 1837 by the appearance of Carlyle's book admits of easy and complete explanation, but some of the very circumstances which contributed to the success of the book must make it very doubtful to a calm critic of 1902 whether it will permanently retain anything like high rank among histories. The truth is that the book reflects the character of its author, and that Carlyle, in his writings and throughout his life, exhibits three traits which are almost incompatible with a successful discharge of the functions of an historian. He was a dramatist; he was a sentimentalist; he was a preacher.

Of his dramatic power, as already pointed out, every page in his 'French Revolution' gives evidence. It is, as Mr. Fletcher rightly insists, a series of pictures; but then it is at bottom nothing else. It is assuredly not, in the ordinary sense of the word, a history. For real knowledge, even of the facts of the revolutionary era, we must go to better informed and to more accurate though to duller writers. Carlyle wrote too soon after the events which he narrated to write with full knowledge, and he did not possess all the information which was accessible in his day. He did not at all thoroughly investigate even the dramatic episodes in the narrating of which he delighted. His blunders about the flight to Varennes are in themselves of no special importance, but they betray a kind of carelessness almost impossible to any man imbued with an instinct for research. But Carlyle's ignorance, where it occurs, is of far less consequence than his lack of historical judgment and perspective.

"No serious historian would now devote an equal number of pages to the critical period, May 5th—July 12th, 1789, and to the actual Bastille days; twenty-five pages to the fête of the Federation, twenty-eight to the mutiny at Nancy, twenty-eight to the flight to Varennes, while giving only thirty to the whole fourteen months from the fall of Robespierre to the end of the Convention, and only one hundred to the whole period of the Terror, in the common acceptance of that word (June, 1793—July, 1794)."

And the exaggerated attention given by Carlyle to striking scenes is due far less to the mere excess of the artistic or dramatic temperament than to a second trait which betrays itself in every line that he wrote; he was essentially a sentimentalist. His admirers will, of course, repudiate this statement, and if by "sentimentalist" be meant a man who was devoted to the kind of sentiment or feeling of which Rousseau's writings afford the classical example, the term would of course be inapplicable to a writer who, throughout his career, poured scorn upon the feebler side of humanitarianism, philanthropy, and that over-cultivation of the tenderer feelings of human nature which is generally associated with the word sentimentality. But if "sentimentality" be used as meaning the tendency to be guided by feeling, by passion, or emotion, of whatever kind, rather than by the dictates of the understanding, then Carlyle assuredly may be ranked among sentimentalists. We may use of him an expression applied many years ago to an author of a very different type by one of the most brilliant of our living writers: "He abhors principles, and adores persons." He is guided, not by any settled, still less by any profound or systematic, view of human progress, but by his sentiment.

In plain truth, Carlyle has shown himself everywhere utterly wanting in anything like a philosophy of history. He hardly realized that it was the duty of an historian to trace effects to their causes, or to show, as was certainly the case, that the Revolution was the result of assignable conditions. His much talked of hero-worship was the expression of the idea that the course of events depended wholly on the action of a few leaders, who stood forth as giants towering above the herd of commonplace men. These heroes were in their turn the representatives, and sometimes (as in the case of Mirabeau and Danton) the strongest representatives, of some spiritual power. But what was the spirit and what was the inspiration which gave sovereign authority to the French Terrorists, who were for the most part a lot of sorry blackguards and cowards; which, on Carlyle's view, enabled untrained volunteers to defeat disciplined armies; which, though the mission of the spirit was to destroy

shams, gave France into the hands of rulers as incompetent as were the members of the Directory—Carlyle never makes clear to his disciples.

One thing only is certain, namely, that wherever Carlyle discerned (or thought he discerned) might, there he assumed the existence of right, and that he exhibits a strange leniency to the forms of passion or emotion which break though the conventions of every-day life. Hence, in part at any rate, the lack of that calmness which is absolutely essential for the carrying out of profitable research. Hence, too, his studied neglect of matters which are of the utmost importance. From him you will learn nothing of the development of French institutions; you will learn little, if anything, of the opinions of the men who attempted during the Revolutionary era to guide the destinies of France. You may, indeed, get from Carlyle a general impression, the truth of which is very doubtful, that the death of Mirabeau and the execution of Danton were irreparable misfortunes, which deprived France of the heroes who might, had the fates favored, have guided the ship of state into a safe port; but you will not learn from our author how much might have been done by a very little ordinary common sense and ordinary courage, not, indeed, to put an end to the Revolution, but to prevent its excesses. The "whiff of grapeshot" fired by Bonaparte, we learn, put an end to the Revolution, though it really did no such thing. We also learn that, "in old Broglie's time, this whiff of grapeshot was promised, but it could not be given then; could not have profited them." But the last words involve a gratuitous assumption which runs through the whole of Carlyle's book, and which, with Mr. Fletcher, any sensible man may well decline to accept.

Carlyle, again, cannot believe what may now be considered a well-ascertained fact, that the sympathies of the mass of Frenchmen were, throughout the Revolution, not with the Terrorists, but with the Moderates and Constitutionalists, and that it was the cowardice, not the enthusiastic patriotism, of Frenchmen which enabled a minority, consisting mainly of scoundrels, to tyrannize over Paris, and which, combined with the force of historical circumstances, made Paris, while enslaved by the Terrorists, the tyrant of France. Carlyle, on the other hand, definitely teaches that the poorer classes were better off under the Terror than ever before, though in favor of this view he affords no evidence whatever, and, in Mr. Fletcher's judgment, no evidence exists. Our historian further assumes that, in some way or other, the Reign of Terror and all the fuss and fury of the Revolution gave a deathblow to cant, while any observer who with calm eyes notes the present condition of modern Europe, and especially of modern France, will probably come to the conclusion that cruelty, rapine, and murder have not turned out to be the proper means for destroying or even diminishing the power of cant or hypocrisy, and that, though the general movement of which the Revolution in France was merely a part, has conferred some great benefits on mankind, yet the countries which have gained most by such progress as has been made since 1789 are the countries which have most carefully avoided the recklessness, the violence, the faithlessness, and the cowardice which disgraced revolutionary France.

But of Carlyle's specific errors as an historian we have said enough, and we refer students who wish for further information on the subject to Mr. Fletcher's instructive commentary. The real perplexity of a modern critic is to understand how a man of Carlyle's genius and insight came so grossly to misread as he did many of the obvious lessons of the events which he undertook to narrate. The explanation, we take it, lies in a third peculiarity of our author's character. He was, above all things, a preacher—we might almost say he was the last of the great preachers of Scotland. His book is, after all, essentially a set of sermons—very impressive sermons, we admit—on the French Revolution. The work opens with Book I., on the death of Louis XV.; the three chapters devoted to this topic form perhaps the most striking of Carlyle's prophetic utterances, but historically they are a miserable substitute for anything like an account of the conditions which produced the Revolution. The reader is edified, he is not instructed; where he looks for an introduction to the details of an important era, he finds a sermon. As the book begins, so it ends. If the death of Louis XV. is the most impressive of Carlyle's sermons, the last page or so of his last chapter contains the worst specimen we know of his prophetic rodomontade:

"Higher, higher yet, flames the Fire-Sea; crackling with new dislocated timber; hissing with leather and prunella. The metal Images are molten; the marble Images become mortar-lime; the stone Mountains sulkily explode. RESPECTABILITY, with all her collected Gigs inflamed for funeral pyre, wailing, leaves the Earth: not to return save under new Avatar."

The critic of to-day reads the passage of which the sentences cited are a mere fragment, with sheer amazement. How, he asks himself, could an author of genius and humor have written, how could men of sense have read with more or less admiration, such intolerable rant? He remembers, however, that Napoleon and his generation delighted in Ossian, that men are still living who found amusement and some kind of instruction in the writings of Christopher North, and reflects that Carlyle was not the first Scotchman to "write bombast and call it a style"; he bears in mind, too, that the power of a sermon lies in the effect which it produces on those to whom it is addressed, and that the very reason why good sermons become, after the lapse of a short time, so unreadable is, that their merit consists in their suitability for the congregation for whom they were actually preached. It is, indeed, Carlyle's temporary importance as a preacher which mainly threatens his ultimate fame as an historian. Will the artistic merit of scenes in the 'French Revolution' in the long run balance the wearisomeness of obsolete prophetic denunciation?

WEBSTERIANA.

The Letters of Daniel Webster. From Documents owned principally by the New Hampshire Historical Society. Edited by C. H. Van Tyne, Ph.D., Senior Fellow in American History, University of Pennsylvania. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902. Pages xxii, 769.

This volume significantly supplements the two volumes of Webster's Private Correspondence published, in 1857, by his son Fletcher with too little care and scholarly scrupulousness, and with some filial suppressions—with a politic "systematic omission of unpleasant things that Webster had to say concerning Abolitionists" (for the civil war had already begun in Kansas, and that "North Star" whose dawning Webster had hailed in 1842 as "a strong, conscientious, and *united* opposition to slavery" was now clear in the heavens). The present editor, in a preface well calculated to propitiate the impartial, expressly disclaims any such softening of disreputable traits or language in his copying or in his selections.

His arrangement of his bulky matter will also, we believe, be generally approved. In each division the time order is rarely violated for the sake of grouping what relates to a given topic, but this is all resolvable in the chronological index of letters from and to Webster. More questionable is the line of demarcation by which Webster in sympathy with the opposition to the Missouri Compromise is classed as "The Local Politician," while Webster in support of the Fugitive Slave Bill is "The National Statesman." In the non-political divisions the juxtaposition of letters according to dates has sometimes a bizarre effect. Thus, under "Family Relations" (February 23, 1848), Webster's high-strung daughter Julia deplores the loss of her brother Edward, a victim by disease of the Mexican war: "I rejoice in one thing, that he was free from the blood of any man; that he did not die in battle. He went forth to a wicked and cruel war; and there he has died, like so many before him, without one friend to smooth his dying pillow." This passionate outburst is immediately followed by a note (July 25, 1852) from Webster to his daughter-in-law: "Green Harbor is not well supplied with Poultry, fit to cook to-day. Can you afford us a pair of your Boston Chickens?" Each division has a summary introduction that is helpful. There is no general index to the contents of this correspondence, which, it may be said here, is confessedly not exhaustive as regards Webster's share in it. A large unpublished private collection, which is, we infer, to figure in Little, Brown & Co.'s new edition, was not available for this.

Mr. Van Tyne's footnotes may fairly be called capricious. They might have been greatly extended, but they might also have been curtailed, for not a few are futile, like those on pages 625 and 638, which simply repeat the text. The first note on page 462 is unintelligible. Those on pages 552 and 578 should have repeated the facts, not given references. Such as identify persons mentioned in the correspondence are often singularly dislocated. One on page 600 might have been looked for at page 221. Sometimes the information is inaccurate, as when, on page 372, that is ascribed to his father which is meant for Judge E. R. Hoar; or it is insufficient, as on page 673, when B. F. Butler is simply described as "of New York." Names are occasionally misspelt, as Abbott for Abbot (p. 446), Plummer for Plumer (p. 552); and the same is true of the text—*W.* H. Grinnell for M. (p. 539), Sauger always

for Sanger (pp. 441, 466, 467, 470), Curtiss for Curtis (p. 470), March for Marsh (p. 461). Among the too numerous typographical errors, like "bandalia" for *Vandalia* (p. 458), one at least betrays the editor's youth. At page 221, when Fletcher Webster, sent to Illinois to look after his father's land speculations, writes that he has "made a short trip among the Tuckers," an older head would have known that he wrote "Suckers," the cant word of the day for Illinoisans. Years, again, would have superseded diligence in research when "Colgent's(?)" is hazarded on page 608 for Colquitt's; and if Solomon U. Downs, Senator from Louisiana in 1850, be now well forgotten even by his contemporaries, Mr. Van Tyne would have got the clew to him had he turned from the rough draft of Webster's 7th of March speech to the finished product, and would not have rested with "Mr. Doroney(?)" (p. 399).

We gladly pass from these not serious shortcomings to some consideration of the matter for which Mr. Van Tyne's industry has made us his debtor. We feel warranted in saying that nothing of importance is revealed to affect the judgment of Webster by friend or foe. We knew that he was urged in vain to attend the anti-abolition meeting in Faneuil Hall on August 21, 1835, which led exactly two months later to the "shamefully good mob" of "gentlemen of property and standing" making a scapegoat of the editor of the *Liberator*. It is something to find here (p. 196) the official invitation that was unheeded, but still unrevealed is his motive for keeping away. Less than three years later (p. 211) he could write privately of cherishing "the friendship and support of those great masses of good men who are interested in the anti-slavery cause"; but was he in 1835 anything but politic in not coming out against them? —as when, in 1814, having made a notable speech (excellent reading to-day) on Giles's militia draft bill, he wrote it out, "but, upon the most wise reflection, I have laid it up in the drawer."* In this speech one passage stands out (p. 61), denying any Constitutional authority "to take children from their parents, and parents from their children, and compel them to fight the battles of any war in which the folly or the wickedness of Government may engage it." In 1846 (p. 327) Webster outlines "guarded" resolutions for a proposed meeting in Boston:

"(1.) That the Country being in actual war, must be defended, and its rights and interest maintained, whatever opinion be sustained of the necessity of its commencement.

"(2.) That so long as the war is waged for National defence, or public rights and interests, and appears not connected with unjustifiable purposes of ambition, or desire of aggrandizement, or acquisition of the Territory of other States, by arms, the Government should be supported in carrying it on and in bringing it to a speedy and successful termination by all truly patriotic men, without distinction of Party."

This anticipation of the McKinley patriotism of 1898 was born of the Presidential ambition so sorely wounded in 1848. On June 16 of that year, with reference to supporting Taylor's nomination, he wrote to his son (p. 368): "I shall endeavor to steer my Boat with discretion." This same quality was manifested in 1850—on the eve of his swallowing the Fugitive Slave Bill whole (and in its first worst state) with the hope of gulping the Southern Whig vote for the Presidency—when he suppressed "the Bill about fugitive slaves which was in my Drawer when I made my Speech" (pp. 415, 417). Another of Mr. Van Tyne's more important finds is the heads of the 7th of March speech. The famous passage reads there (p. 397) as spoken: "I will not reaffirm an Ordinance of Nature or attempt to re-enact the Will of God." Forced by merciless catechising as to what a legislator should enact if not the will of God, he interpolated a question-begging adverb: "I would not take pains *uselessly* to reaffirm an ordinance," etc. Fillmore, the signer, almost shines by comparison with Webster, the defender, of the Fugitive Slave Law. The President could write to his Secretary of State on October 23, 1850 (p. 437): "If there be any provision in it endangering the liberty of those who are free, it should be so modified." Webster on November 16 (p. 443) could discover no "unconstitutional or alarming principles," and was for amendment or repeal only "when real and actual evil arises"—that is, after some free blacks had been kidnapped. He is shown at this time in Boston disgracefully endeavoring in person "to do something to put this business of the attempt to arrest Crafts [Craft or the Crafts, a fugitive pair worth a footnote] in better shape" (p. 440).

The tragedy of Webster's moral decline moving *pari passu* with his physical break-up—the bubble of the Presidency floating before and the spectre stalking behind—is well shown in these pages. As early as 1840, Chancellor Kent, entertaining him in New Jersey, remarked (p. 745) that at fifty-seven he "looks worn and furrowed; his belly becomes protuberant, and his eyes deep in his head. I sympathize with his condition. He has been too free a liver. He ate but little, and drank wine freely." "Lank with age," he appeared at Syracuse in 1851; "whose sluggish legs were somewhat concealed by an overshadowing abdomen, with head downcast, and arms shrivelled and dangling almost helpless by his side," while denouncing disobedience to the Fugitive Slave Law as treason, and still keeping his eye on the Presidency as the fugitive slave on the North Star. In May, 1852, he writes to his son of his canvass (p. 524):

"It seems to me, with great deference, that things are not in a good way. Nobody does anything, on our side. Notwithstanding all the 'good feeling,' results appear always adverse. . . . Really, I am tired of hearing anything upon this subject unless it is a proposition *to do something*. If any [my?] friends wish to meet to consult *for action*, I will meet with them, at any time, if not confined to my home. But I have had enough of cheering prospects and sickening results."

Already among his promoters "it is the universal sentiment—*Let not Mr. Webster make another speech*" (p. 526). Then comes, in June, the "chagrin as profound as my entire nature, and it is, that, after having performed my duty to my Southern brethren, *they had neither the courage or kindness to place me on the record of that convention*"—not one vote for President (p. 531). And the postscript: "I agree that it is time to shake hands with some folks and part, and there are others I am willing to part with without shaking hands" (p. 533); with an inclination (p. 532) "to cross the seas . . . either go abroad or go into obscurity."

Time was, as we have seen, when abolition friendship appeared worth retaining, when there was even a "cause," which was Webster's own. "My own opinion is" (January 29, 1838, p. 211), "that the anti-slavery feeling is growing stronger and stronger every day; and while we must be careful to countenance nothing which violates the Constitution or invalidates the rights of others, it is our policy, in my opinion, most clearly, not to yield the substantial truth for the sake of conciliating those whom we never can conciliate"—*i. e.*, the South. Meantime, his consuming ambition had led him to make the hopeless attempt until (June 3, 1851, p. 476) he had reached the opposite pole: "The policy of placating the Abolitionists has been long practised. It has always failed." And again (August 15, 1852, p. 537): "I did what I could to rescue the country from the consequences of their abominable politics. I disdain to seek the favor of such persons, and have no sympathy with their opinions." He had never had any, apart from calculations of personal advantage.

*This speech, at page 56, is one of Mr. Van Tyne's nuggets; but he is ominously slipshod in quoting from the letter to Ezekiel Webster to which he refers us at page 68. For the phrase we repeat above, he gives: "After the best reflection which I have been able to bestow."

Early Christianity and Paganism. By H. Donald M. Spence, D.D., Dean of Gloucester. London: Cassell & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Boissier's 'La Fin du Paganisme,' with its impartial study of the declining days of Paganism, and Dill's 'The Last Century of the Western Empire,' a scholarly treatment of the same period, have established the true historic view of the great conflict between Paganism and Christianity. These books, however, present the historical side pure and simple, and are to be distinguished from the writings of the historians of the Church. In other words, there are two classes of historical works of this period which differ in that one studies events as part of the world's history in their relation to one another, placing before the reader the conditions of society as they are found to exist, while the other regards the events marking the downfall of Paganism and the victory of Christianity as indications of the intervention of the Almighty. To this latter class belongs the work under consideration, a large volume of 560 pages, written by that venerable scholar and authority on church history, Dr. H. Donald M. Spence, Dean of Gloucester. The first page of the introduction clearly defines his position. Beginning with the words of Professor Sanday in his Bampton Lectures, "If ever there was a manifestation of the supernatural, it was in the condition of things out of which arose the New Testament," he declares that "the story of the rise and progress of Christianity during the 280 years which elapsed between the ascension morning in A. D. 33 and the Peace of the Church secured by the famous Edict of Constantine, A. D. 313, may be emphatically looked upon as the story of a period on the whole permeated with the supernatural." Such an attitude is not necessarily inconsistent with scholarly accuracy and impartiality, but there is serious danger lest a Christian historian give undue prominence to events which seem to indicate the intervention of

the supernatural, and rest his argument upon the testimony of Christian writers, treating with scant consideration the testimony of pagan writers.

The history of the Christian Church may be divided into two periods, the first beginning with its foundation, A. D. 33, and continuing to the Edict of Constantine, A. D. 313, and the second from the latter date to the present time. This book considers the former period. The author relies upon the New Testament writings, on the apocryphal epistles such as those of Clement of Rome and Polycarp, on the apology of Aristides and the Shepherd of Hermas, on the writings of Justin Martyr, of Irenæus, Hippolytus, Tertullian, Origen, and Cyprian. Of Pagan writers Dr. Spence draws only from those who speak directly of the Christians, as Tacitus, Pliny, and Suetonius, but laments the little assistance obtained from non-Christian sources. Evidently he has forgotten, at the outset, that the title is 'Early Christianity and Paganism' and not 'Early Christianity,' for, as the introduction indicates, the book contains no study of Paganism or of Pagan society in its relation to Christianity. The first three chapters consider the beginning of Christianity, then identified by the Imperial Government with the Jewish religion; the career of the early Church before Nero and during his reign, when the Emperor shrewdly turned the hatred of the populace upon the Christians; and the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian, with their alternate periods of peace and persecution. Chapters IV. and V. are assigned to St. John, Polycarp, and Ignatius of Antioch as the three great leaders of the post-Neronian period. Trajan's policy of repression and the toleration and persecution of Hadrian's reign form the subject of the sixth chapter.

The title of chapter seven is "The Revival of Paganism." By this the author means the change which took place between the beginning of the first century and the close of the second, whereby Paganism, regaining its hold on the minds and hearts of men, retained that hold so tenaciously as to cause serious opposition to the growth of the new faith. Dr. Spence recognizes as phenomena of this revival the restoration of the old worship of Rome, the deification of the emperors, the re-establishing of ancient sacerdotal corporations, the admission of foreign deities, and the philosophic teaching of the later Stoics, such as Seneca and Epictetus. The deification and apotheosis of the emperors are traced to the Roman worship of the household gods combined with the servile spirit of the people of the East, which recognized the worship of the representative of the power that subdued and governed them. The study of sacerdotal corporations is confined to a brief reference to the Arval Brotherhood, and is insignificant compared with the importance of the subject. The explanation of the fact that Christianity formed the only exception to the Roman spirit of toleration and even acceptance of strange religions is entirely inadequate. It is true that Christianity did not permit an adherent to recognize in any sense Jupiter or Mithras or Isis, and that "this stern, rigid refusal of the Christian to share in the common toleration of religions excited the bitter wrath of all the Pagan world and united all the Pagan religions against him," but it was much more than this. Its aim was the destruction of Paganism, on which the Empire rested; it was monotheistic, while Paganism was polytheistic; it condemned the very means by which the Empire had subdued the nations of the world; it declared of no account all that the Roman held most dear, so that if this religion were accepted it meant the absolute overthrow of the foundation principles of the present form of existence.

The next three chapters are assigned to Christianity under the Antonines and the numerous martyrdoms of that and the succeeding period up to the reign of Decius in 249. With the intention of giving some details of the inner life of the Church, an interesting account of the history and art of the Catacombs is interpolated. With a similar purpose much attention is given to the famous disputes on "church discipline" which mark the closing days of the second and the early part of the third century, and affected the entire catholic church. This involves notice of the rivalry of Hippolytus and Callistus, of the life and teachings of Tertullian in Carthage and of Origen at Alexandria. It is curious that, when referring to the writings of Origen, Dr. Spence has not mentioned the famous Hexapla version of the Scriptures. The history of the development of Christianity is resumed in chapter thirteen with the reign of Decius, and carried through the reigns of Diocletian and Constantine to the Edict of Milan, and finally the death of Licinius, in 323, which witnessed "the close of the long-drawn-out struggle between Christianity and Paganism."

In the last two chapters the author turns from the historical narrative to a discussion of several questions which naturally suggest themselves. The remarkable conversion of the masses to Christianity following immediately upon the Edict of Milan is attributed to the deep impression made by the conduct of the sufferers in the great Diocletian persecution. But was this really the cause? Is it not rather to be found in the breaking down of the old effete systems of government and of life which took place in the days of Diocletian and Constantine? In support of his theory, our author, with a habit of partiality, looks to the "writings and records of prominent Christians," *e. g.*, Prudentius and St. Martin. The second question recalls the famous controversy on the capture of Rome that gave rise to St. Augustine's "City of God" and the treatise of Orosius, which employed Christian dialectic to convince people that the capture of Rome was not due to the neglect of ancient rites. Dr. Spence finds the causes in the increase of the slave population, the deterioration of morals, and the increase of taxation. He might have added the general decline in the spirit and courage of the people, and with all fairness have referred to the view of some critics, such as Renan, who believe that the ascetic spirit led to the neglect of civil duties. The book closes with a series of appendices on various subjects of interest to the students of Church history, *e. g.*, The Presence of St. Peter at Rome, Early Heresies of the Church. It is written in a simple, clear style, with impartial recognition of the weaknesses of the early confessors of the faith; but it is not a discussion of Christianity and Paganism.

The forty-three illustrations are, with the exception of those of the Catacombs, of general archæological interest.

Modern Warfare, or How Our Soldiers Fight. By "Ubique." With maps, diagrams, and illustrations. Thomas Nelson & Sons. 1903.

Ubique is the motto of the Engineer Corps, the sappers, of the British army; and this fact, together with the dedication "to my nephew, Lancelot Gordon," would easily put one who is familiar with the army register upon the trail of the author of this volume. In the opening pages, under the guise of a popular account, given in conversational form, of the weapons, training methods, and organization of the several branches of the army, lies in truth a criticism of the deficiencies which were so disastrously manifested in South African operations; and this first part of the book is followed by the ampler second part, which is a spirited history of an imaginary modern second Waterloo, the evident purpose of which is to set forth the new military ideals which are growing in the British War Office, or at least among the brightest under-officers.

The basis of the historical fiction is a supposed renewal of the old feud between France and Germany, some thirty-five years after the Franco-Prussian war, and the sudden invasion of Belgium as the short road to Paris by a German force, in violation of the treaty of the five great European Powers of 1831, guaranteeing the neutrality of Belgian territory; thus necessitating England's interference. While the French armies are drawn to the Rhine frontier by the feint of the larger part of the German army, a second force of Germans, under Prince Lebenfeld, dashes upon the railroad line by way of Namur to Paris. Since the Belgian resistance is feeble and ineffective, England is compelled to hasten to the rescue, and, with Kitchener in general command of the allies, and with French, who showed talent as a cavalry leader in South Africa, assigned to conduct movements in face of the enemy, the advance troops of England are mobilized in eleven days, and set down at the ocean base of operations at Ostend. This rapidity is contrasted with the not discreditable time taken for dispatching troops to South Africa—some fourteen days. Upon the historic grounds south of Brussels, a situation chosen as well for the thoroughness with which its topography has been mapped as because of its dramatic associations, a tremendous struggle is engaged; the British, with their inferior force of 90,000 men as opposed to the nearly 200,000 of Germans, acting upon the defensive. For illustration of the three weeks' battles, there are sixteen carefully drawn maps, showing the many changes of position, from hour to hour, of the combatants, and a large number of diagrams and pictures; so that the narrative is given vivid verisimilitude, both in the engineering details and in the story. It is in respect of the skilful dispositions made by the British to hold their own till reinforcements come and the weakened assailants retreat discomfited, that the critical purpose of the book appears.

For evidence of this we may recall a few of the faults of South African opera-

tions, as set forth in the most accessible account of those campaigns, Conan Doyle's 'Great Boer War.' These are some of the latter's comments: "Better shooting, better knowledge of cover, are the main desiderata in our infantry. If a man is not a marksman, he should be cast from the army." "The officer will carry a rifle, like his men. Never again should valuable lives be exposed by the fatuous idea of giving them a different dress." "Another prejudice is the reluctance of commanding officers to split up a battery and to act with any unit less than six guns." So Doyle lays emphasis upon the English need of rapid-fire guns and of the heavy howitzers; and upon the conversion of the cavalry, with its antiquated lances and swords, into a mounted infantry armed with magazine rifles. These and more shortcomings of the activities of 1898-1900 are recognized in "Ubique's" description of the elaborate preparation and stubborn defence of the lines from Trou de Bois to Mousty, which are the scenes of the fierce struggle of those July days.

The sappers have scientifically entrenched all the important points of the field during the days when the cavalry and infantry advanced posts were holding off the enemy; and when, in the thick of combat, these fortifications are taken in reverse by the assailants, the infantry, equipped a third of them with a light pickaxe and two-thirds with a light shovel attached to their belts, make effective use of their tools to dig new rifle pits. Attached to each infantry battalion is a Maxim machine-gun, and smokeless powder is employed by all arms. The cavalry acts for the most part as mounted infantry, although several emergencies are depicted in which an old-fashioned cavalry charge is potent to complete the discomfiture of a badly discouraged assaulting column. There are no British assaults in massive columns under raking musketry fire, no random shooting, but always deliberate aim and cool self-possession by the marksman. The artillery has learned to keep its guns under cover when possible, and is powerfully efficient in both the heavy and the rapid-firing cannon. And the engineers have increased their efficiency, of which there was little unfavorable criticism in South Africa, by mounting more of their men for swift movements to hard-pressed positions where their special skill could come into play.

The Romance of My Childhood and Youth. By Mme. Edmond Adam (Juliette Lamber). D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

The first instalment of the autobiography of Mme. Adam introduces the reader to the provincial society of Chauny in Picardy at the beginning of the last century. Her people belonged to the *haute bourgeoisie*, but the behavior of the women of the family was entirely untrammelled by bourgeois conventions. Mme. Adam's great-grandmother chose her husband at the age of fourteen, married him a year later, and died at sixteen, bequeathing her determined spirit to her daughter, Pélagie Raincourt, red-haired and romantic, who, next to the writer herself, is the most interesting figure in the book. At fifteen, Pélagie, who "was in despair at remaining a maid so long," heard that a young doctor named Seron had come to practise in Chauny. "If only he has not had too commonplace an existence," thought Pélagie. Pierre Seron's history proving sufficiently romantic, Pélagie, to crown her eccentricities, rode a barebacked horse to church and was married in her dressing-gown and night-cap. "It is a merry marriage," she said. Seron served as a surgeon with Napoleon's army in Germany, while his wife suffered hardships at Chauny from the invasion of the Allies. Their child, Olympe Seron, inherited her mother's beauty and decision of character without her charm.

"Olympe Lambert," writes her daughter, "was tall, with a handsome figure like her mother's; she had an olive complexion, large velvety and luminous eyes, a charming mouth with small teeth, a delicate nose with pink nostrils, brown hair with ruddy tints in it, handsome arms and hands, and a very small foot. It was impossible to discover a more fascinating creature to look at, and one of less good-humor."

Mme. Seron chose and educated as a husband for her a friendless youth named Jean Louis Lambert (Mme. Adam prefers to spell the name Lamber, but is not consistent), and when her parents consulted Olympe, she replied: "Since you desire it, I will resign myself to it. Where you have tied the goat she will browse." "Ah! that phrase, what a rôle it played in the disputes between the Lambert and Seron families, so frequent in later years" (p. 44). The child of this unpromising marriage was Juliette Adam.

Her grandmother kidnapped the infant and refused to resign her, so that Juliette's childhood was "a long series of dramatic scenes of which I was the cause, and which occasioned my being carried off many times." Mme. Adam's memory goes back to her third birthday, and she gives a lively account of the family drama in which she was destined to figure three or four times a year during her childhood.

"They dragged me first to one side, then to the other; they kissed me with faces wet with tears, they grew very angry with one another, and they almost made me crazy by asking and repeating: 'Don't you want to come with your papa and mamma?' 'Don't you want to stay with your grandfather and grandmother?' . . . On that day, as on many subsequent days, my parents from Blérancourt yielded and grew calm."

Juliette Lambert's father was a "Socialist-Democrat," a disciple of Saint-Just, and an admirer of Louis Blanc. He took advantage of the brief visits to him which her grandmother permitted to convert Juliette to his theories.

"I am the daughter," she says, "of a man who was a sincere sectarian, disinterested even to self-sacrifice, and who dreamed of absolute liberty and absolute equality. Until the terrible year 1870, his mind mastered my own. For an instant, during the days of the Commune, he thought his dreams were about to be realized. Were he alive now, he would be a disciple of Monsieur Brisson, whose political ancestor he was. He would have pursued only one idea: the upsetting of everything."

Mme. Adam's grandfather was a stanch Imperialist; her grandmother was an ardent royalist, and when the child was six years old they all tried in turn to convert her to their own ideas. No wonder that she writes of her father: "Sometimes it seemed to me that he actually probed in my brain as with a red-hot poker, as grandmother, also, too often did. I felt great pain in my temples, and would say: 'I can't listen to you any longer; I feel ill.'"

Juliette Lambert learned Latin from a great aunt, of whose pastoral life and devotion to Virgil she gives a charming account; but it was no doubt to her father's conversations that she owed the best part of her education. Her mother was a morbidly jealous woman, who never cared for her daughter, and regarded with gloomy disdain the infatuation of the other three for the pretty, precocious Juliette. "A pedantic, unbearable child," she would say, "with her intelligence overheated at an age when it should have been set on calm foundations."

When Louis Philippe fled and the Republic was proclaimed, Lambert thought his ideals were on the eve of recognition. He was elected Mayor of Blérancourt.

"Grandmother and I went to see them plant the tree of Liberty, but it displeased us to behold my father attending this ceremony dressed in a blue blouse. His tricolored scarf was tied so as to show the red only. Already my father declared: 'Of the three colors we like only the red.' White seemed to him too Legitimist, and blue too Orleanist. 'Juliette,' asked grandmother in my ear, as we were starting for the ceremony, 'do you like that blouse? Does it not shock your taste?' 'It is partly blue, at any rate, grandmother,' I answered, laughing; 'and, with papa's ideas, it might have been all red!'"

For these republicans of 1848 Mme. Adam expresses the warmest admiration. Their exultation was shortlived, and ended with the election of Napoleon III., when the tree of liberty at Blérancourt was pulled down and Lambert narrowly escaped being exiled as a dangerous revolutionist. He wished to take part in a phalanstery founded to make trial of Fourier's doctrines, to which he was a convert, but his friends persuaded him to stay quietly at Blérancourt.

In 1850, when Juliette was not quite fourteen—

"There came one day to breakfast with my father a very advanced Republican, who was, moreover, a Comtist—a name that my father was obliged to explain to me. Our guest was a lawyer of the Court of Appeals at Paris, but lived at Soissons for the time being. His name was Monsieur Lamessine. . . . He was of the type of an Italian of the South, with very sombre eyes, a pallid complexion, lustrous blue-black curling hair."

A year later he asked for the hand of Juliette. Her grandmother favored the match, while her father wept and implored Juliette not to leave him for a man whom he considered unworthy. For months they quarrelled and raved at each other, and finally Juliette, to escape from so much violence, gave her unwilling consent to the marriage. It proved a most unhappy union, and when Juliette Lamessine's daughter was born, and her husband, having secured her dot, showed himself in his true colors, Juliette's grandmother starved herself to death rather than live to see the misery she had brought on her idolized granddaughter.

"From the day my grandmother left us, my father's one thought was to replace her in my life; . . . he encouraged me to work, and said to me, 'When your married life becomes even more intolerable to you than it is now, your mother and I will dedicate our lives to you. Work, work, and become known. There is no other way by which a woman can gain her liberty than by affirming her personality.' I worked while nursing and bringing up my daughter. Then one day, after some insignificant literary at-

tempts, revolted at the insults Proudhon had thrown at Daniel Stern and George Sand in his book, I wrote my Anti-Proudhonian ideas, and my real literary life began, with the record of which I shall some day continue these memoirs."

With these words the book ends. It is not easy to escape being tedious in a memoir of one's childhood that runs to four hundred pages. But Mme. Adam is never for a moment dull, and it is doubtful whether the record of her later life will rival in interest this romance of her youth, which ends with her marriage. The translation, which is anonymous, is admirably done, and the book is attractively got up.

Literature and Life. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Brothers.

There have been moments in Mr. Howells's long and brilliant literary career when he has been mistaken (has seemed to mistake himself) for a moralist, philanthropist, reformer, for something other if not better than a literary person—one, that is, with the literary sense so active and efficient that it generally manages to decorate his opinions and lend some sort of grace to his prejudices. In his word of explanation prefixed to 'Literature and Life' he corrects such misconception of his true character, and reveals considerable self-knowledge. "I am never quite sure of life," he says, "unless I find literature in it. Unless the thing seen reveals to me an intrinsic poetry and puts on phrases that clothe it pleasingly to the imagination, I do not much care for it." Such a frank confession should go far to modify any bitterness that kings and queens and aristocracies and millionaires may cherish towards Mr. Howells, and might even bring authors of romantic novels, historical novels, to regard him with a feeling milder than implacable hatred. For he writes about these persons, their privileges and their practices, not primarily because he despises and hates them and wishes to ruin them, but because they attract his imagination and "put on phrases."

For all imaginative writers whose work has a serious intention, who are sometimes apparently acrimonious in controversy, Mr. Howells's plea constitutes a defence. They should never be taken literally; allowance should always be made for the temptation of the phrase. The volume of casual sketches under consideration needs no defence. The subjects, with few exceptions, are not controversial, and these exceptions are of interest chiefly to the literary guild, notoriously irritable, and less than any other class (when opinions and theories are in dispute) willing to make that desirable allowance for the temptation of the phrase. Against occasional denunciation (doubtless spoken in dead earnest) of romantic and neurotic fiction, and the public that reads it, may be set a genial, indeed light, treatment of certain social conditions which Mr. Howells is supposed to abhor. At the "Horse Show" his harshest criticism of the display of wealth and fashion is that it did not come up to his preconceived notion of splendor. "I should not," he says, "have objected to the swells at the Horse Show looking dreary if they had only looked more like swells." When he is among the last of the permanent guests at a European hotel, and is pleased with the respect paid to his quality of permanency, he reflects:

"We shared the regard which all over Europe attaches to establishment, and which sometimes makes us poor Americans wish for a hereditary nobility so that we could all mirror our ancestral value in the deference of our inferiors. Where we should get our inferiors is another thing, but I suppose we could import them for the purpose if the duties were not too great under our tariff."

That sacred subject, the American language, comes in for frivolous if not disrespectful notice. Certain friendly Germans, having parted company with Mr. Howells at Scheveningen, "we were left for some meals to our own American tongue, with a brief interval of that English painter and his wife with whom we spoke our language as nearly like English as we could."

In a collection of essays and short sketches, the personality of an author is often more completely revealed than in a long work. From this volume we get a clear impression of the kind of man Mr. Howells is, and of the things that most attract his imagination and engage his sympathies. These things are recognizable by all Americans as fragments of common experience, and, as we read, we are actually living, struggling with our problems of existence, and taking our leisure and pleasure in the companionship of a wise and kindly guide, philosopher, and friend.

Aristotle's Psychology: A Treatise on the Principle of Life (*De Anima* and *Parva Naturalia*). Translated, with Introduction and Notes, by William Alexander Hammond, Assistant Professor of Ancient and Mediæval Philosophy in Cornell University. Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. lxxxvi. + 339.

We recently called attention to the comparative neglect of Aristotle's works by the classical scholars of America. After those words were in type, we received the volume named above, by one who, though he is primarily a philosopher, has received a classical training, and dedicates his work to Professor Goodwin of Harvard University, one of the two chief leaders of classical study in this country. The translation was undertaken primarily in order to make accessible to English readers Aristotle's tracts on perception, memory, sleep, dreams, and the like—his 'Parva Naturalia'; but to these is prefixed a translation of his main work on the soul, the 'De Anima,' which is nearly as long as all the rest together, and then an Introduction of more than seventy pages, which gives a concise and generally clear statement of Aristotle's psychology, with references to the passages on which the statement is based.

The notes to the translation are brief, and almost never touch on questions of text criticism. In general the editor follows closely the text of Biehl, in the Teubner series. The translation itself is not only more accurate, but also less technical and more readable, than its predecessors, and will be found both intelligible and interesting by many who have shrunk from the perusal of Aristotle's philosophical works. Rarely does the translator modify the author's thought, as he does where Aristotle says boldly that some men never have dreams, and others only in old age, while the translator, more cautiously, says (p. 246): "It has occurred in certain instances that men have never in their lives known themselves to have a dream; in other cases they have observed them when far advanced in years, without having noticed them earlier." If Aristotle was too bold in this, he ought to be allowed to stand by his statement.

Still more rarely does the translator miss the point of a sentence as he does when his author, in speaking of the mantic element in dreams, says that if we dismiss the divine origin of dreams (as we must, for these visit not only the wise and good, but also the worthless), the reason can discern no other cause for their fatidic character, since it transcends our intelligence to discover a cause which should make certain persons foresee what is to happen at the pillars of Hercules—the extreme west—or on the Dnieper—the extreme north. Here the translation reads (p. 248), "For it seems to transcend our power of understanding to discover an explanation of the story that certain persons foretell the future through legends on the pillars of Hercules or on the Borysthenes." As so printed, the sentence interrupts Aristotle's argument.

Such slips are rare, as we have said, and the book as a whole is warmly to be commended. It should be read by all who are interested in the study of psychology.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Academic Honors in Princeton University, 1748-1902. Edited by J. R. Williams. Princeton (N. J.): Published by the University.

Adamson, William. The Life of Joseph Parker. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.75.

Augier, Émile, and Sandeau, Jules. Le Gendre de M. Poirier. Edited by E. C. Roeder. American Book Company. 40 cents.

Avary, Myrta L. A Virginia Girl in the Civil War. D. Appleton & Co.

Baldry, A. L. Sir John Everett Millais. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.

Branch, Mary L. B. The Manner of Life of Nancy Hempstead. New London (Conn.): C. J. Viets. 35 cents.

Brown, E. E. The Making of Our Middle Schools. Longmans, Green & Co., $3.

Delavan, jr., E. C. Col. Francis Lovelace and his Plantation on Staten Island. New Brighton (N. Y.): Natural Science Association of Staten Island. 50 cents.

Easton, B. S. The Constructive Development of Group Theory. (Publications of the University of Pennsylvania.) Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.

Edser, Edwin. Light for Students. Macmillan. $1.

Eggleston, G. C. The Master of Warlock. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.

Fairbanks, H. W. California. Macmillan.

Fredericq, Paul. Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Haereticae Pravitatis Neerlandicae. Ghent: J. Vuylsteke.

Gareke, Emile, and Fells, J. M. Factory Accounts, their Principles and Practice. New ed. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.

Hansen, George. His Calculations; Baby Roland. San Francisco: Paul Elder and Morgan Shepard. 50c.

Hapgood, Isabel F. A Survey of Russian Literature, with Selections. The Chautauqua Press.

Harvard Psychological Studies. Vol. I. Edited by Hugo Münsterberg. (The Psychological Review Monograph Supplements.) Macmillan.

Herrick, Robert. Hesperides. (The Caxton Series.) 2 volumes. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $2.50.

Holme, Charles. Representative Art of Our Time. Part I. (The "Studio" Library.) John Lane. $1.

Hooper, W. L., and Wells, R. T. Electrical Problems for Engineering Students. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Hope, Graham. All's Well. H. W. Bell.

Hovey, Alvah. Barnas Sears: A Christian Educator, his Making and Work. Silver, Burdett & Co.

Howe, D. W. Civil War Times. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company.

Hulbert, A. B. Colonel Washington. Marietta (Ohio): Western Reserve University.

Hulbert, A. B. Historic Highways of America, Vol. iii.: Washington's Road; the First Chapter of the Old French War. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Company.

Hundert Meister der Gegenwart in farbiger Wiedergabe. Parts III. and IV. Leipzig: E. A. Seemann; London: Lemcke & Buechner.

Janet, Paul, and Séailles, Gabriel. A History of the Problems of Philosophy. Translated by Ada Monahan. Edited by Henry Jones. 2 vols. Macmillan. $6.50.

Jay, W. M. L. The King's Garden. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.

John Fiske's Historical Writings. 12 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

John Woolman's Journal. Macmillan. 25 cents.

Journal of Political Science, No. XL. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Published for the American Social Science Association.

Jowett, Benjamin. Select Passages from the Introductions to Plato. Henry Frowde.
Keeler, Charles. San Francisco and Thereabout. San Francisco: The California Promotion Committee.
Kenton, Edna. What Manner of Man. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co. $1.50.
Kingsley, Charles. Westward Ho. 2 volumes. (The Temple Classics for Young People.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
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Physical Papers of Henry Augustus Rowland. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Pierson, N. G. Principles of Economics. Vol. I. Translated by A. A. Wotzel. Macmillan. 10 shillings.
Ross, H. J. Letters from the East. Edited by Janet Ross. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 19, 1903.

The Week.

It is as characteristic of "leading Republican Senators" to go to the President and ask him quietly to withdraw the nomination of the negro, Dr. Crum, as it is of Mr. Roosevelt to tell them that he will do no such thing. He has met his responsibility, let them meet theirs. If they are afraid to have their constituents know that they are ready to subscribe to the new Republican doctrine that color shall be the final test of a man's fitness to hold office, that is no affair of the President's. There is the nomination: take it or leave it. It is time that the Republican party declared its position on the question of the negro's fundamental rights. Nor will the dodge of simply leaving Dr. Crum's name unacted upon until the session expires work. In that case, President Roosevelt will make a recess appointment. Why not? Is not the nominee honest, educated, competent? "Yes, Mr. President, but he is black." That reason, however, can hardly be expected to draw from the successor of Lincoln anything but a citation of Lincoln's reproachful words addressed to those who would dash from the lips of negroes the "cup of liberty."

The Paris *Temps*, commenting on the revival of oppression of the negro in this country, is fair-minded enough to admit that other nations are sharing with the United States in the "general moral slump," as regards treatment of inferior races. We really do not know of any great Power which is entitled to cast a stone at us. Even England seems about to enter upon a system of slavery—"forced labor" it is euphemistically called—in South Africa. If the great mining capitalists have their way, something of the kind will be attempted. So humane a writer as Mr. Benjamin Kidd (undoubtedly humane even with all his transcendental moonshine) allows himself to speak of the "proper place" for the blacks in the Transvaal and Orange River—that is, working like slaves for English exploiters. The plain truth is that this sudden access of contempt for inferior races, and of cool disregard of their rights, is a necessary reflex of the wave of Imperialism and conquest which has swept over the whole world within the last decade. The new movement against the negro is a direct product of the spirit engendered by our treatment of the Filipinos. When you begin disfranchising and maltreating brown skins, you pass on easily to black. We were promised that our good colonial government would react happily on government at home. The movement to deprive the negro of his political rights shows that the reaction has, indeed, set in—with a vengeance!

New discoveries of the meaning of Senatorial courtesy are being made daily. It now appears that this benign institution may extend so far as to include the passage of bills of the most far-reaching importance without discussion or debate, but with a rapidity which is fairly amazing. As everybody knows, the Senate is deadlocked on the Statehood bill. Senator Quay is, to all outward appearances, still master of the situation, and nobody seems inclined to bring on a vote to find out whether or not he has a majority to sustain him. In former days such a condition meant a blockade of legislation. Now, however, the pending measure is frequently permitted to be laid aside by general consent, while the Senate considers and passes a bill or resolution "not involving discussion," but perhaps creating a new executive department, affecting the procedure in our highest courts, or looking to the settlement of a boundary dispute between this and a foreign nation. Possibly this is the "peaceful blockade" in legislation. Undoubtedly it is attended with some dangers, but it is, in any event, a great improvement over the old system under which long-winded orators threatened even the appropriation bills in order to effect their purposes.

With the passage of the bill against rebates on Friday, anti-Trust legislation for the present session of Congress is at an end. Obviously, it is nothing but the steady demand of the President which has extorted from a reluctant Congress as much as it has finally and grudgingly granted. The result shows that he rightly interpreted the popular wish that some action be taken. But for his hearty backing by the constituencies, he could not have made Congress budge. What has been done is, of course, only a beginning. It falls far short of the President's full programme. But certain instruments have now been placed in his hands, and it is for him to make vigorous use of them. If, for example, complaints are made, as they were before the Industrial Commission, that American corporations make domestic consumers pay higher prices than foreign purchasers, it is for the new Bureau of Corporations to investigate and expose the abuse. And if it finds that the practice is permitted, if not directly encouraged, by a protective tariff, it must report that fact to the President as a guide to him in recommending remedial legislation. The President has put his hand to the plough, and cannot look back.

Attention has been so closely directed to the anti-Trust amendment of the bill to create a Department of Commerce that its main object has been practically lost to sight. Yet the new Executive Department, under direction of a vigorous head, may do much to coördinate and improve several important branches of the public service. The Steamship Inspection Service, for example, whose laxness is notorious, is to be transferred from the Treasury to the Department of Commerce, we hope to the public advantage. As for the Nelson amendment providing for publicity for corporations engaged in interstate or foreign commerce, we observe a rather comic dread of the power which it confers on the President. The information gathered is to be reported to him, and "as much thereof as the President may direct shall be made public." What a dangerous power, exclaim certain newspapers, to lodge in the hands of an unscrupulous President! The joke of all this lies in the fact that these objectors are the very ones who rushed joyfully to give the President powers compared with which those granted by the Nelson bill are a mere nothing. When in 1898 it was proposed that Congress should vote the President $50,000,000 to do with as he pleased, these critics who dread the lodging of power in the President had nothing but applause. When it was a question of our Chief Executive governing 8,000,000 of people across the seas according to his own notions of justice, again these belated opponents of a swollen Presidential prerogative saw nothing but what was fair and good and Constitutional and American. It is only when they see a possibility of his governing *them* against their will that they cry out.

Through the appointment of Mr. James R. Garfield as Commissioner of Corporations in the new Department of Commerce, the President has emphasized the character which that body already was assuming. With Mr. Cortelyou at the head, it will be, in no invidious sense, the President's personal department, through which he can work relatively unhampered by party considerations, and unrestricted by any vague obligation to continue the policy of his predecessor. Mr. Garfield, in his connection with Ohio politics, and recently as Civil Service Commissioner, has gained a reputation for steadiness, ability, and complete independence. In his hands the power of investigating corporations en-

gaged in interstate commerce is not likely either to be used recklessly or to wither for want of exercise. In adding this office and power to the Department of Commerce, Congress has very possibly put into the President's hands a serviceable weapon where it supposed it was presenting him with a broadsword of lath. Our only regret at Mr. Garfield's transfer is that it takes him from an important work for which he was admirably fitted, and in which he has been highly successful.

Contrary to all expectations, the Alaskan boundary treaty easily ran the Senate blockade, and now awaits only the appointment of three American and three British Commissioners. The first duty of this Commission is to interpret that section of the Anglo-Russian treaty of 1825 which described the boundary between Alaska and the British possessions. About the beginning of the line there is no dispute. It begins at the southern tip of Prince of Wales Island and runs north along Portland Channel. What Portland Channel was in 1825 must be settled by the Commission. There is a choice between two straits. The Anglo-Russian negotiators of 1825 supposed their task to be accomplished when they had brought the boundary line to the mainland, for they imagined that a clearly defined coast range formed a natural boundary. As a matter of fact, there is no such range for three hundred miles or so, and the Commissioners must fall back upon a clause which the original negotiators framed prudentially, but hardly expected to use —the famous clause which, in default of a mountain crest, draws the line ten marine leagues from the coast and parallel to its sinuosities. The point at issue is, What is "the coast," in the sense of the Anglo-Russian treaty? It is certain that neither of the signatories of 1825 knew in any accurate sense. Their ignorance is the opportunity of the joint Commission.

This Commission will have to decide, in cases where the ten-league line must be run, (1) if it is to be run from an arbitrary line spanning the numerous small inlets, or (2) from the beginning of territorial waters of the United States, or (3) from the heads of even the smallest inlets. It is in many ways a most complicated problem. Successive rows of islands carry the outer coast and the territorial waters of Alaska a hundred miles from the mainland, while Lynn Canal runs as far inland to the roots of the mountains. There can be no doubt that the Russians, who were chiefly interested in the seal and other fisheries, intended to claim the ownership of all the islands. Whether they meant to assert control over "the mainland strip" (which the treaty of 1825 distinguishes from "the coast"), or whether (the Canadian contention) they wished to maintain only a foothold on the mainland, the new Commission must decide. The problem is primarily a geographical one, like th equally difficult one, recently settled by British arbitration—the Argentine-Chilian boundary in the Andes. If the joint Commission agrees upon an interpretation of the treaty of 1825, there may still be something to do to get a reasonable line. Possibly, even, a supplementary arbitration may follow the judicial decision. But any fair compromise may be easily made when once the coast of Alaska shall be satisfactorily defined.

Senator Lodge's idea of "cruelty" seems to be on a sliding scale. When trying on Saturday to persuade the Senate to take up the Philippine tariff bill, he asserted that, in view of conditions in the islands, it would be "absolute cruelty" for Congress to fail to act. Thereupon Senator Foraker asked him why he had made the bill less liberal than the form in which it passed the House. The House proposed to tax the Filipinos only 25 per cent. of the Dingley rates. But Lodge's Committee took that bill and sat down quickly and wrote 50 per cent. That is to say, the tender-hearted Massachusetts Senator was willing to be 25 per cent. more cruel to our Philippine subjects than the House. Senator Foraker pressed him hard. Why could we not treat our dependent peoples decently? Why not at least come somewhere near giving them free trade? Lodge was forced to admit that, personally, he should like to be more generous, but that it would be "impossible" to get through any bill less selfish than the one he was reporting. As it turned out, he could not get even that bill through. Beet-sugar Senators rose to object to as much as the 50 per cent. of injustice which Lodge was urging, and the bill went over. Such embarrassments does a statesman meet when he undertakes to make cruelty a problem in proportion!

A weightily signed petition calls upon the Senate Committee on the Philippines to sit during the recess of Congress and take testimony as to the actual conditions in the islands. The names attached to this petition speak for themselves. They show a widespread belief among men of the highest standing and influence that everything is not as rosy in the Philippines as the Imperialistic imagination paints it. Most significant is the demand that Filipinos themselves be summoned to testify. Their careful exclusion thus far evidently impresses this host of college men as both unfair and unwise. Senator Lodge's committee may pay no attention to this petition, so representative of the university world, but its very presentation is a sign of the times which no real statesman could afford to neglect. Senator Hoar very properly called attention to the extraordinary significance of such a petition, so signed, as he presented it in the Senate.

The argument of the well-known writer, Mr. Henry Demarest Lloyd, cast an interesting light on the anthracite hearing on Monday week. Concerning non-union workmen who labor during a strike, he said that, while they were strictly within their legal rights, they violated "a moral law of the highest sanctity"—the law that "a man must do what he can to help along a necessary struggle for the elevation of his own class and of society at large." Failing in this duty, "obloquy" properly falls upon a workman, as it did upon Tories during the American Revolution. But this doctrine bristles with sheer assumptions and perilous implications. When capital forces all of us to work for the elevation of its class, will Mr. Lloyd tell us that it does well? The attempt to give a kind of religious sanction to social agitation leads to all manner of violent thought and action. Mr. Lloyd is a man of peace, and a believer in the power of reason. In this capacity, he should realize the relative meaning of words. When he says that "obloquy" is the proper penalty for the crime of working for one's self, the less intelligent strikers understand terrorism. If he is willing to admit any method of union propaganda except that of peaceful persuasion, he must be willing to admit all the methods by which violent and untrained minds express their obloquy. Is unionism to assert an intolerance which theology has long given over, maintaining that it holds in its hands the issues of life and of death?

President Baer's eloquent address before the Strike Commission on Thursday is a distinctly valuable contribution to the rapidly growing literature upon the relations of capital and labor. His indictment of the outrages and the tyrannical nature of the United Mine Workers' Union is unanswerable, while his offer of an increase of wages on a sliding scale will undoubtedly figure prominently in the findings of the Commission. He was on difficult ground when he spoke of the number of laborers and their employment. It is true that no one should have the right to prevent law-abiding employers from taking labor which presents itself, and is ready to accept the wages offered. But there is a great difference between the acceptance of such labor and importing thousands of foreigners into already over-manned mining districts where permanent and steady employment is almost unknown. President Baer was at his best in his denunciation of the law-

lessness and destructiveness of the Miners' Union, as evidenced in numberless instances during the strike. Furthermore, his demolition of the new doctrine of labor—namely, that "a man who works during a strike has no moral right to work if his work destroys the hopes and aspirations of his fellow-men"—was complete. A more un-American, undemocratic, and immoral doctrine was never promulgated.

Mr. Darrow, counsel for the United Mine Workers, practically admitted, in his argument before the Strike Commission on Friday, that violence and outrage are necessary accompaniments of a great strike. If the operators were in the place of the men, he said, they would not hesitate to resort to the boycott and intimidation and clubbing. Possibly not; but they would be criminals and enemies of society if they took to rioting and murdering, whether they said they were doing their class a sacred service or not. Mr. Darrow appealed to the Commission to bear in mind the "environment" of the strikers who became violent. That Pole who "struck James Winston on the head with a club" was only acting out his nature. The same might be said of any thief or cutthroat. It is the business of the police and courts to make a new "environment" for lawbreakers—namely, that of a prison cell. If we begin excusing "crimes of passion," where shall we stop? Mr. Darrow, however, deserves credit for his frankness in recognizing the fact that mob law is an essential part of the Mine Workers' programme.

Another proof of the sacred purpose of the United Mine Workers to struggle for "the elevation of their own class," as Mr. Lloyd puts it, is seen in the limitation of the advance in wages, which they have secured, purely to union workers in the bituminous field. In the Pittsburgh district, for example, there are 40,000 miners, and the United Mine Workers do not claim a membership of more than 15,000. Yet the benefit of higher wages is to be confined to the latter, so the union leader of the district coolly announces. This is probably a bit of union strategy, designed to compel the non-union miner to surrender his personal liberty; but what a light it throws upon the alleged altruism of the United Mine Workers! Could a Trust more selfishly clutch at a monopoly, more cruelly disregard the welfare of all outside it? When Mr. Lloyd says "class," he doubtless means all workingmen; but the union understands by it simply the monopoly of labor at which it aims.

The representatives of the labor unions who opposed at Albany last week the Hughes bill to protect National Guardsmen, came dangerously near going on record in favor of rioting and lawlessness. The bill has no other object than to make it possible for a union workman to serve in the militia of this State in defence of peace and order. Yet it was denounced as an "insult to organized labor," and as an attempt to legislate on behalf of non-union men. Throughout the hearing, the labor men took the position that the National Guard is run in the interest of the capitalists, and an uninformed listener might well have thought that the State troops have been employed simply to make successful strikes impossible. Were this so, union men would never dream of entering the militia, and the Hughes bill would be unnecessary. As a matter of fact, there is no case on record in this or any other State in which the State troops have taken one side or the other. If anything, they have shown their sympathy with the strikers, as in Waterbury recently. But their actions have everywhere been directed solely towards the preservation of order. If it is right to criticise the militia for this, it is right to criticise every police force. Logically carried out, the contention of the labor unions means anarchy pure and simple. Their utterances at Albany would give good grounds for the belief that, in their opinion, no industrial strike can succeed if the strikers cannot resort to intimidation and personal violence.

In his second paper in the *Outlook* on the subject of Addicks and Delaware, Mr. George Kennan makes some interesting revelations as to the systematic methods by which the corruptionist went about his work of buying a seat in the United States Senate. He employed a young attorney to make an investigation into the circumstances of each member of the Legislature. The questions which he desired to have answered were: Who is he? Where is he from? What is his age? Is he married or single? If married, how many children has he? Does he own any real estate, and if so, are there any mortgages on it? What is he thought to be worth? and, What are his habits and general reputation? The use Addicks made of this information is obvious. According to the cynical view of the bribe-giver, a poor man, with a large family and a mortgage on his farm, could safely be approached with direct offers of money, while a legislator differently circumstanced must be reached by more subtle means. Addicks made lavish contributions to the campaign expenses of legislative candidates, giving them every opportunity to misappropriate the funds placed in their hands, thus bringing them within his power. His system was to take advantage of weakness and adroitly to undermine character. That with all his money, method, and tenacity of evil purpose, year after year brought him nothing but failure, must ever be to the high honor of the State of Delaware.

The announcement that Mrs. Stanford is preparing to surrender her control of the affairs of Stanford University into the hands of a board of trustees will gratify friends of learning throughout the country. In founding a university in memory of Leland Stanford, jr., Senator and Mrs. Stanford did well; but Mrs. Stanford, though actuated by the best intentions, has not always been wise in her management. Her intolerance resulted two years ago in the dismissal of one professor and the resignation of a number of the strongest members of her faculty. The task of President David Starr Jordan has been peculiarly difficult. In his endeavor to perfect a *modus vivendi* between Mrs. Stanford and her faculty he has been compelled to carry water on both shoulders, and now and then to turn a pretty sharp corner. He will find the change an enormous relief; he will be able to give to the problems of university development the time and energy that he has hitherto been devoting to diplomacy; and he can now hope to engage and retain the services of the ablest teachers and investigators. In the hands of competent trustees Stanford University, with its splendid endowment, should in time fulfil the noblest aim of its founders.

All intelligent lovers of musical drama will rejoice in the decision of the Metropolitan directors by which Mr. Conried becomes manager of the opera for a term of five years. Mr. Conried comes to this work under the most favorable conditions. In Mr. Hertz he inherits an admirable conductor from Mr. Grau, while the prestige of the New York Opera House has so risen that the new manager will have no difficulty in securing the best singers. The choice of the Metropolitan directors is peculiarly acceptable, because it gives assurance that the opera will be managed, not for the display of a few great singers, but with an equal attention to all the details of stage management, to the minor parts, and to the chorus. Mr. Conried's attitude toward these important and often neglected matters is shown in the acting of his own excellent stock company at the Irving Place Theatre. He will carry these principles into his larger work. We may assume that he will no more put up with a chorus that, in German opera, sings two-word parts in German and two-line parts in Italian, than he would tolerate an amateur bandmaster as conductor of his orchestra. Building upon the foundation of financial prosperity laid by Mr. Grau, and falling heir to Mr. Grau's tact in selecting great singers, Mr. Conried has every prospect of renewing the glories of the old Metropolitan Opera House. His successful candidacy is a success for art.

THE REACTION TOWARDS SLAVERY

A Republican committee of a Republican Senate devoted Lincoln's birthday to the shutting of one more door of hope in the face of the slaves whom Lincoln freed. Dr. Crum has been pronounced unfit to hold Federal office—simply because he is a black man. It is agreed that his character is above reproach and his ability out of the common. He is the type of those "very intelligent" negroes upon whom Lincoln wished to confer the suffrage, long before his party was ready so to do, and upon whom he would, by necessary inference, have been glad to bestow office. Lincoln could not have failed to sympathize with Sumner's later position—namely, that a fit colored man in a proper office was a "constant testimony and argument" for equal rights. No wonder that our latter-day recreancy to the principles of Lincoln should have called from Archbishop Ireland in Chicago on Thursday the indignant words, "To announce that the citizen who is black must not aspire to a political life, must not approach the ballot-box, is to war against American institutions."

The two things go together. Disqualification for office means, for the negro, disfranchisement. The New York *Sun* is bold enough to speak out openly what many are saying privately. It would have the ballot taken from the black man. To have given it to him at all was, it says, a blunder. Senator Hoar tells us of a Republican colleague who goes further, and maintains that it was a mistake to have abolished slavery. That is logical, for the movement to deprive the negro of his political rights is really a movement towards reënslaving him. People talk glibly about preserving to him his "civil rights"—the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness—after his political rights are extinguished, but this is to fly in the face of history. Have we got to argue over again the Reconstruction debates of 1867? Must some new Sumner arise to tell us that "a righteous government cannot be founded on the exclusion of a race"?

Disabilities cannot be effectually removed except by conferring privileges. There is no half-way house between a slave and a citizen. Every attempt to stop short in the process of freedom is a confessed failure. Look at Catholic Emancipation in England. It began with the removal of positive stigma, of political pains and penalties inflicted upon Catholics as such; but for a long time the disqualification to hold office remained. Against that lingering injustice, humane lovers of liberty had to contend. To say that Catholics had all their civil rights, yet could not hold office, was felt to be an absurdity. "What have you done?" asked Wilberforce, whose sympathies for the oppressed knew no white or black. "You have let them out of prison, but you still compel them to wear prison garb."

Herein lies the portentous importance of Dr. Crum's case. In him the prejudice of caste strikes at his whole race. His rejection confirms Secretary Root's description of the mighty question that is soon to confront this republic. The South, with an alarming amount of aid and comfort from the North, is determined to drive colored men from office, and to rob them of the ballot. A member of a Republican Cabinet stands up before the veterans of the Union League Club and tells them that negro suffrage is a failure. No outcry follows, no protests are heard. No champion of the black man arises in Congress to make a flaming appeal to the fundamental principles of democracy, or to the memories of our heroic age. It is left for a Catholic prelate to tell these conspirators against the negro's political rights that they are striking at the heart of this nation.

Negro suffrage a failure? So, with as much evidence, is Irish suffrage in this country a failure, or German, or Polish, or Italian suffrage. But does any one propose to take the freeman's weapon—the ballot—from the men who have come to us from foreign lands? Municipal suffrage as a whole might be said to be a failure in this country. But for this are we going to disfranchise cities? That is not the democratic way. That is not the patriotic, the Christian, the truly enlightened way. If any class of the electorate is ignorant, it is our business to see that it is educated. If it is a prey to designing politicians, we must not throw up our hands, confess that trickery is too much for honesty, and call for the disfranchisement of voters whom corruptionists can debauch but whom we are too lazy to persuade. We get down to the fundamentals of democracy, in this business. "We must teach our masters to read," said Robert Lowe, when the extension of the suffrage in England was carried in 1867. That is the secret of democratic progress; of the cumulative amelioration of conditions. The reason why this country has been, as Goldwin Smith has said, a vast hopper into which all sorts of races have been poured and come out citizens of the republic, is that there has been this constant appeal to the intelligent classes to defend themselves against the ignorant and the degraded by educating and elevating them. Strip the black man of his political rights and you cut the nerve of negro education.

Yes, and why educate him at all if the natural fruits of education are to be denied him? Dr. Crum of Charleston is admitted to be an educated gentleman. He stands head and shoulders above the people of his own race. He represents the colored man who has risen, as the disfranchisers say they would like to see all negroes rise. But how can they be expected to want to rise when they see the ordinary recognition and reward of ability and character withheld from a man who has risen, simply on account of the color of his skin? We involve ourselves in all sorts of embarrassments and contradictions the moment we depart from the plain democratic principle of opportunity and a career open to talent irrespective of the accident of birth. If we will not let men freely rise, be they black or red, even if we do not thrust them back into bondage we create for them a limbo of contempt, injustice, and cruelty, which has all the horrid features of the slaveholding relation.

It is a tremendous issue that is forced upon us in this new oppression of the negro. It is big with the fate of parties and of the nation itself. It looms large on the horizon as the question which, in the next few months, will be a supreme test of the Republican party, and will show whether it has indeed turned its back upon its founders and martyrs.

THE SHIP-SUBSIDY QUESTION IN ENGLAND.

The full text of the report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Steamship Subsidies, now at hand, embraces some noteworthy features. The most important of these is the survey of the shipping subsidies paid by the various governments of the world. Among the witnesses examined, there were differences of opinion on the question whether Great Britain now pays more than a fair *quid pro quo* for any steamship service. Mr. Buxton Forman, representing the Post-office, thought that in some cases more than the postal value of the service was paid for carrying the mails. On the other hand, Sir Spencer Walpole, a former Secretary of the Post-office, was satisfied that full value was obtained in all cases. The Committee does not attempt to decide this question. It publishes a full statement of the mail payments, which amount to $3,676,690 per year, for the United Kingdom. Nearly half of this sum goes to the Peninsular and Oriental Company for its Indian, Australian, and Chinese service, being $1,603,800 per year. The company itself considers this sum very inadequate even for purely postal services, but continues to do the work and pays fair dividends to its shareholders. In addition to mail payments, there are admiralty subventions amounting to $378,171 altogether.

German state subsidies to steamship lines amount to $1,688,850, of which $1,200,800 goes to the North German Lloyd for Asian and Australian service. The Hamburg-American Line receives no state subsidy, but that company and the North German Lloyd together receive $315,900 from the German Post-office for carrying the mails from Hamburg and Bremen to America. The Committee thinks that an indirect subsidy is grant-

ed to German steamships by preferential railway rates on goods destined for East Africa and the Levant. The fact is noted that the North German Lloyd has more than doubled its tonnage in five years. How much of this gain is due to subsidies, direct and indirect, and how much to the "energy and enterprise of the recipient," the Committee does not attempt to decide. The North German Lloyd, like the Peninsular and Oriental Company, considers itself very inadequately paid for its Asian and Australian service.

France pays more for steamship subsidies than any other country, and gets less for her money. There was entered in her budget for 1901 no less than $8,686,137 for subsidies, for bounties on shipbuilding, and for premiums for voyages made. France pays bounties on foreign steamers of iron or steel employed by Frenchmen in ocean or international coasting trade. Two-fifths of the tonnage under payment is of this class, and one-fifth consists of sailing vessels. "All of these subsidies," says the report, "are quite out of proportion to the services rendered, and, speaking generally, it is certain that French trade has not advanced with the increased munificence of the subsidies, while French shipowners, and especially French sailing-ship owners, have unduly benefited at the expense of their country."

Japan has gone into subsidies rather recklessly in late years. In 1899 the total amount paid was $2,841,632. Since that time new lines have been subsidized to China, Korea, Australia, and Bombay, the payments on which amount to $781,978. The present aggregate of $3,623,610 would seem to be beyond the limits of reason and prudence, if not beyond the resources of the nation.

Holland has a flourishing mercantile marine, but she pays no subsidies either for construction or for navigation. Her payments for mail service are on the basis of value received. Norway pays $50,000 for mail service on the same basis, and $84,940 for "facilitating steamer communications." It is a curious fact that complaint has been made by British shipowners at Hull that Norwegian subsidies, and the low rate of wages paid to Norwegian sailors, are seriously damaging British trade.

The report tells us that the United States does not pay any general subsidies, but does pay for mail carriage in American-owned ships much more than the service could be obtained for. It first pays $15,000 per voyage (in the transatlantic service) without regard to the weights carried. Then it pays $1.60 per pound for letters and post cards, and 8 cents per pound for other mail matter, the rates paid to foreign ships being about 44 cents per pound for letters and post cards, and 4½ cents for other matter.

The fact is pointed out with some misgiving that Great Britain has fallen behind Germany in the matter of speed, and that the *Oceanic* has passed under American control with the White Star Line. The necessities of the British national prosperity, however, are inextricably bound up with the possession of a strong navy and a fast mercantile marine. Therefore, in the opinion of the Committee, speed should be a condition of all ocean mail contracts hereafter, and in some cases very high speed should be required, since such ships might be needed as carriers of the food supply of the United Kingdom in time of war.

Closely connected with the public safety also is the right of transfer of British ships to foreigners. The Committee is of the opinion that no mail or admiralty subsidy should be paid except on the condition that the ship shall not be transferred in whole or in part to foreigners without the consent of the Government—the penalty for violation of the agreement being forfeiture of the subsidy and the ship. It is pointed out that such an agreement exists between the North German Lloyd and the German Government in respect to the subsidized ships of that company.

Considerable space is given to the question of shipping "conferences," by which term is meant agreements of shipowners to maintain rates, or to advance them as against the public, or to lower them as against new competitors. Instances are cited showing that many of the evils of railway monopoly exist also in steamship traffic, and that a "long and short-haul clause" would not come amiss in certain cases. For example, goods have been taken from Amsterdam to Java via Liverpool at 20s. per ton, while the rate charged from Liverpool to Java is 30s. per ton. With some hesitation, the Committee recommends that the Government retain some control over the rates to be charged by ships running under subsidy, for "if a company merely aims at a fair and reasonable rate it ought to have no ground to fear the control; if it aims at something more, the control is obviously desirable."

The question whether foreign subsidies have had a damaging effect upon British trade is examined at some length. The conclusion is reached that British shipping has maintained its flourishing position and held its own in most places, despite subsidies paid to competitors. Between 1890 and 1902, British steam tonnage increased from 8,250,000 to 13,500,000 tons, while that of Germany rose only from 928,000 to 2,600,000. Germany's percentage of increase was greater than England's, however, because she began at a lower figure. "It is easier to increase from 1 to 2 than from 100 to 200." It is admitted that the disproportionate bounties paid by France to sailing vessels (1f. 70c. per gross ton per 1,000 miles sailed) have given them some advantage over British sailing-vessels, but it is not deemed expedient to offset this advantage by a resort to bounties, nor do British shipowners recommend such a policy. They are generally opposed to subsidies except as fair payment for services rendered. The Committee thinks, however, that a special case for subsidy exists in the need of direct communication with British East Africa. At present a transshipment has to be made at Aden. Germany has a direct line to her East African possessions, and has thereby increased her trade.

ARCHITECTS AND AMATEURS.

That watchdog of the Treasury, Mr. Cannon, on Wednesday week, gave his support to a bill to erect an office building for the House of Representatives, at a cost of $3,100,000, and to add an east wing to the Capitol at a cost of $2,500,000. Under the amendments introduced by him, the responsibility for these great constructions falls to Mr. Wood, Superintendent of the Capitol Building and Grounds. The next day, in a spirited debate on the appropriation for the recent improvements of the White House, Mr. Cannon, speaking of architects, exclaimed: "I have sometimes thought that I would gladly contribute to help raise a million dollars to assassinate large portions of them." From Mr. Cannon's unwonted liberality in the appropriation bill and from his murderous intentions towards the entire architectural profession, it might safely be inferred that Superintendent Wood, who is to have the charge of the spending of five million dollars, is no architect.

Such is notoriously the case. Mr. Wood, for years the chief clerk of the late Mr. Clarke, Architect of the Capitol, has had an honorable record in managing the business of the office. He has made himself acceptable to the Senators and Representatives. His appointment, however, was a subterfuge. Lacking all architectural training, he was obviously ineligible for the position of Architect of the Capitol. Accordingly, that post was abolished, and Mr. Wood was made Superintendent of the Capitol Building and Grounds, on the understanding that his duties were to be limited to keeping up the present building. He promptly showed his incapacity for even this modest function by having Statuary Hall smeared in imitation of colored marbles. He had begun a similar disfigurement of the dignified and historic room in which the Supreme Court sits, when he was restrained by one of the justices. Now, thanks to Mr. Cannon, it is proposed to put in Mr. Wood's hands a great building facing the Capitol, and to intrust to his ignorance the carrying out of Thomas U. Walter's plan for the east wing of the Capitol. Surely Mr. Cannon has shown most signally his contempt for the architect's profession.

We have no idea that the bill can pass in its present form. If the House shares Mr. Cannon's dislike of architects, the Senate will realize that no amateur must be allowed to touch the building —one of the most impressive in the world—which all Americans regard with a peculiar reverence and affection. Mr. Cannon's idiosyncracies may impose themselves upon the House, but the Senate will ask why, in the case of the most precious of the Government buildings, a plan utterly out of keeping with the present-day spirit of Washington is pursued. The Senate will see the inconsistency of spending vast sums upon the general improvement of the outlying park system of the Capital City, while its very heart is left to the mercy of a clerk exalted through personal and political influence to an architect's position.

It is curious in this connection to note that, whereas the Government requires special skill in a Fish Commisioner, an astronomer, a statistician, and the rest, it often exacts only good intentions of an architect. This is due to a deplorable lack of training in this respect on the part of our public men. In the debate last Thursday on the new White House offices, Congressmen Gaines and Fitzgerald indulged in all manner of cheap witticism at the expense of what is for its purpose a very sensible and satisfactory building. They did not seem to realize that the all-important thing was to maintain the historic White House intact, and to provide a temporary office for the President, pending the erection of a permanent building for the Executive and the Departments of State and Justice. The architect of the "Little White House" had at best an ungrateful task; any new structure on the President's grounds is something of a necessary evil. But Mr. McKim's solution of the immediate problem of making a habitable house and practicable offices for the President, has headed off at least one absurd plan for the enlargement of the White House, and its virtual destruction as a historic monument.

It was an architect of the Wood type, Col. Bingham of the United States Engineer Corps, late Superintendent of Public Buildings and Grounds, who for years tried to get his hands on the White House. He was an amiable person, popular in society, and influential with Congress. He had worked out for the enlarged White House a frosted-cake structure of his own planning, in which the old White House was to play the minor but honorable part of the cake. Fortunately, his plan was thwarted and the Executive Mansion preserved in its simple and beautiful proportions. Col. Bingham himself has just been transferred to a position of wider, but unarchitectural, usefulness at Buffalo. The ease with which Washington has lost an amateur architect in his case, leads to the wish that all amateur architects still surviving were army officers, and subject to transfer for the good of the service. This, we submit to Mr. Cannon, would be a worthier plan than that of allowing millions of public money to be spent by an incompetent person, or that of invoking fire and sword upon those whose only fault is that they have studied the profession of architecture before practising it.

WHO ARE THE DREAMERS?

The French Deputy, M. Jaurès, probably the most eloquent man in France, and certainly one who has the respect of all, made the other day a powerful plea for disarmament, in a speech in the Chamber. He is a Socialist, but his great oration was followed with rapt attention by members of all parties. At the close, the Government, with its vast military budget on its hands, felt compelled to attempt to dissipate the profound impression caused by M. Jaurès's description of the way in which the burdens of war, even in time of peace, were crushing to the earth the aspirations of the working classes. Accordingly, Minister Millevoye rose to say that it was only a beautiful dream which the orator had been recounting to the Chamber, and that his solution of the difficulty was purely "idealist," applicable only in the distant future.

This gave M. Jaurès an opportunity for a retort as effective as his original speech had been. "You say that my solution is chimerical. But what is yours? You come here year after year with a programme which, you say, will be sufficient to guard the country against war, and yet each year's programme eats up the one of the preceding twelvemonth. Does that look like the work of severely practical men? Does the charge of lack of finality lie in the mouths of those who shift their argument and change their estimates every year? You affirm that our proposal of disarmament can be realized only at a distant day. *Mon Dieu*, when will your plan of ever-swelling and competitive armaments come to fruition? It is an infinite series of enlarging budgets upon which you bid us enter. If anything is chimerical, it is that policy. If any men are dreamers, it is the men who advocate that course."

We refer to this acute exposure of a fallacy because the latter is one afloat not in France alone. If there is anything stamped all over with evasion and vagueness, it is the building programme of the navy in this country and in Germany at the present day. We might almost add in England. The English formula for a navy has long been the "two-nation" plan. That is, the English navy must be as strong as the combined navies of the two nations nearest it in power. But even this approach to definiteness is now being thrown over. The increasing size of other navies and the possibilities of international alliance have led some English public men—Mr. Asquith, for example—to maintain that Great Britain will not be safe unless she adopts a "three-nation" formula. That is a measurably precise, though a sufficiently disheartening, programme for the British taxpayer. But with us, and with the Germans, plans for naval increase are as shifting as the sands of the sea and conjectural as the flight of a bird.

Who can pin the advocates of a larger navy down to an exact statement of how large it ought to be? Have they a definite basis to go upon? Is there any end to the expense they would have us incur? What we object to in their attitude is its extreme indefiniteness, coupled with the assumption that they alone are exact and business-like, while every one else is a dreamer. The Emperor William hangs up in the ante-room of the Reichstag a chart showing the immense disparity between the number of German and of English battleships. Does that mean that he wants Germany to have as many as England? He knows he could not get them. His appeal is really all in the air. Herr Richter asks for a definite programme, but all he gets is a swelling phrase about Germany's future being on the sea. The battleship-building programme is certainly on the sea—lost there in the fog.

Probably if the Emperor were to tell the honest truth, he would admit that the only definite notion he had was to get as many cruisers and ironclads as he could wheedle or frighten the Reichstag into voting. Certainly that is the nearest approach to a maturely considered plan that can be discerned at Washington. A navy on a peace basis is capable of being defined. So many coaling stations are needed; so many cruisers to serve as an adjunct to the diplomatic service and to protect commerce. But when you launch out into the great unknown of a possible war, as we are asked to do, you are at once in wandering mazes lost. We are not arguing at this moment which policy is the true one for this nation. The only point we make is that the champions of a big navy do not agree among themselves; have no well-defined programme which they can defend; could not tell within $200,000,000 how much money it would take to carry out their ideas, or within fifty years when their plans will be completed. Under these circumstances, we submit that they are the real dreamers. They cherish plans which are in perpetual flux, and demand appropriations which progress in a series ending only in national bankruptcy. And these are the men who reproach the friends of peace with being idealists!

THE FUTURE OF THE DRAMA.

The theatrical outlook here and in England is so discouraging that the most ardent believers in the possibilities of the stage as an artistic, moral, and educational force, as well as a source of the best entertainment, might well despair of its future, if it were not for the occasional schemes suggested for its reform. These, as a rule, are far too vague and ill-considered to justify the expectation of practical results, but they reveal, at least, a growing feeling of contempt and disgust at the imbecility or indecency of most of the current exhibitions, and a desire for something better. Therefore they work together for good.

Most of the reformers clamor for a national or an endowed theatre of some sort to be run in accordance with their own peculiar theories. Several of them have been identified with experiments on this plan, which failed because they appealed only to a handful of enthusiasts. The plays may have been the best in the world—it is not necessary to discuss that point—but the public would have nothing to do with them. Plainly, a theatre conducted upon such lines, no matter how perfect the play or the performance, would be an absolutely futile establishment, as regards any permanent effect upon the general situation. Nor would a National Theatre, supposing that such a representative institution could be maintained in this country (which is exceedingly doubtful), be of much use, except as a show place for visitors, and a pleasant harbor of refuge for actors possessing the necessary political influence. Subsidized State or municipal theatres in all the principal cities might, under honest and capable direction—if that could be secured—help to create a demand for higher standards, but under present conditions the idea is too fantastic for serious consideration. As matters now stand, the subsidized theatres would be obliged either to enter into an alliance with the existing syndicates, or to declare war upon them. If they should adopt the first alternative, they would have no excuse for existence; if the second, they would soon be bankrupt. They might get plays, they would never get players. The syndicate managers know their business and control the actor market.

Is the case, then, hopeless? Is the theatre doomed to extinction, or to an inevitable degradation to the level of the music hall or the circus? Not by any means. But it cannot be restored to its pristine vigor or stimulated to higher development by any system of financial coddling or legislative enactment. Protection benefits art no more than it does trade, except under very rare and peculiar conditions, and then only for a season. What the theatre is suffering from to-day is the domination of the speculative and commercial managers, who, after building up a monopoly and practically putting an end to competition, have gone into the business of making reputations by advertisement, and substituting notoriety for merit as the standard of comparison in all matters connected with plays and players.

In this revolution they have been assisted to an incalculable extent by a careless, complacent, selfish, or unprincipled press. Probably it would not be much of an exaggeration to say that without this assistance the controlling syndicates could never have come into existence. Certainly they could not have attained so quickly such vast and mischievous power. This statement will not be disputed by any person conversant with the facts. It does not necessarily imply that there has been a great amount of direct bribery and corruption on the part of individuals. But any one interested in the question who will take the trouble to examine the files of newspapers published during the last decade or two, will be struck not only by the increase in the size of the theatrical advertisements, but by the much greater increase in the amount of space devoted, not to criticism, real or pretended, but to all manner of silly or scandalous gossip about players, most of which emanates from the various box-offices. This is one way, not to mention others, in which modern journalism has become the confederate of the speculative manager in his circus-like methods; and it may be taken as an axiom that one of the first essentials to theatrical reform upon a large scale is a determination on the part of the press to give to stage productions the same competent, conservative, and dignified consideration which it extends to other branches of art.

But reforms to be effectual must originate in the theatre itself, and, perhaps, the most alarming feature in the dramatic situation just now is the dearth not only of first-rate actors, but of second-rate. It is to this latter class that all our so-called stars belong, and even they have few visible successors. The same state of affairs prevails in England. A writer in a London weekly, referring to a series of performances in that city by a German stock company, dwells enthusiastically upon the extraordinary versatility displayed by every member of the organization, the constant appearance of the most noted players in subordinate parts, and the exquisitely truthful effect secured by this artistic co-operation. Such work would be impossible, he says, in England, except, perhaps, in one or two of the larger provincial theatres still possessing companies trained by the old stock system. He suggests that the excellence of the German companies may be due to the superiority of the middle-class education in that country, but it can be accounted for more simply by the continuous training in every variety of drama which the members received in the days of their apprenticeship. The standards of middle-class education in Italy are not remarkably high, but the Italian actors, as has been demonstrated in this city by the companies of Salvini, Ristori, and Duse, are as versatile as the Germans. The art of acting can be acquired only by long, laborious, and varied practice.

This can be provided only in stock companies. In them the novice is paid for his services, and therefore can serve a longer and more thorough course of apprenticeship than in a so-called school of acting in which he can learn nothing that he does not pay for. Without stock companies there will be no supply of good actors, and without them there can be no theatrical resurrection. There must be a reversion to first principles, and it may be nearer than superficial observers suspect. Our present managers, by their short-sighted policy, are killing the goose that has laid their golden eggs. They have filled their theatres and are building more, but they have stopped the production of actors and made play-writing either discreditable or hopeless. Sooner or later a financial crash is inevitable, and when it comes there will be a period of terrible trial for the profession. But that is what is needed. Nothing else will compel a revival of individual enterprise. To-day, the whole army of mummers are the placid slaves of a solvent oligarchy. Left to their own resources, they must combine or starve. But, with the dissolution of the Trusts, will come again the day of the really independent theatre. With the independent theatre will come the honest and honorable competition, in the face of that adversity which, throughout history, has been the rough but kindly foster-mother of art; and thus, and not otherwise, will the dramatist and the actor resume their Shaksperian function as the abstract and brief chronicles of the time.

CIVIL GOVERNMENT IN PORTO RICO.

February 9, 1903.

The appearance of a second annual report of a civil governor of Porto Rico under American sovereignty, and its utter failure to receive even the modicum of interest ordinarily accorded to an important Government document, emphasizes how completely that which was but recently an acute phase of national politics has become a neglected incident of national history. It is doubtful whether the position now occupied by Porto Rico in the consciousness of the American people is very different from what it was before the war with Spain. At any rate, if our acquaintance with and interest in the island and its people are greater now than then, they are of a quality to be described as potential rather than positive. We have given the island a workable instrument of government, we have sent there good men to

administer its affairs, we have been generous in permitting free trade relations with the United States and in granting exemption from the burdens of Federal taxation, and we stand ready, when occasion requires—be it German naval soundings, a devastating hurricane, or the extradition of a defaulting insular official—to convert a protecting ægis into something more real and tangible. But, having done these things, we dismiss the island from our further concern, and we incline to estimate the efficiency of its administration by the completeness with which this course of inattention can be pursued. An academic attractiveness attaches to particular phases of insular experience, as the currency policy and the financial reorganization, and the public mind has a certain recurrent interest as to whether the net result of American sovereignty has been for good or for evil. But in the main we have cheerfully forgotten Porto Rico, and we ask for nothing better than to be allowed to continue to do so.

And yet the work of establishing civil government in Porto Rico was a notable performance; and when a future historian of modern colonial experience shall review the course of events from the introduction of civil government in May 1, 1900, to the establishment of the island upon a self-supporting basis and the introduction of free trade relations with the United States on July 25, 1901, he will accord a large measure of praise to the devotion and ability of the first civil governor, Charles H. Allen, and the remarkable group of men whom President McKinley associated with him. Within a period of fifteen months three extraordinary results were attained. The military rule under which the island had groaned for more than four hundred years was replaced by civil government. A perfected system of economic exploitation yielded to a modern equitable system of revenue. Finally, the old insular isolation was modified by favorable educational and economic influences. During the second year of civil government there has been healthy and encouraging progress along these several lines. Old difficulties have been solved and new problems have arisen, often of increasing difficulty and complexity. The paradox of civilization, that an improving standard of life and a dawning social consciousness bring impatient aspiration and discontent with status, is realized in Porto Rico to the utmost.

With the retirement of Gov. Allen the efficient insular secretary, Mr. William H. Hunt, succeeded to the executive office. Similarly, with the return to academic duties of Dr. Hollander and Dr. Brumbaugh after the completion of the respective services for which office had been accepted, viz., the introduction of a revenue system and the organization of an educational department, Mr. W. F. Willoughby was appointed treasurer and Dr. S. M. Lindsay commissioner of education. The vacancy in the office of insular secretary was filled by the appointment of Mr. Charles Hartzell. Better appointments could not have been made, and yet the occasion therefor brings to mind one of the gravest problems that will confront the United States in the administration of its dependencies. Up to the present time it has been the peculiar attractiveness of a constructive period, the urgent appeal to patriotic sentiment and the extraordinary public prominence of our insular policies, that have secured the services of remarkably capable men in the administration of our dependencies. But these are transient conditions. Triumphant democracy will not permit the adequate remuneration of an insular service, and, after concentrated public opinion no longer holds the appointing power to a strict accountability, there is serious danger of a gradual deterioration in the character of appointments in Porto Rico as elsewhere. It is in crystallizing a public sentiment which will tolerate no other course, that each succeeding appointment of the right quality is at this time of all others important.

During the second year of civil government the keynote of insular politics in Porto Rico has continued to be the sharp opposition of the two local parties. The Republicans have been in legislative power, and the Federals have continued to denounce the organic act and to criticise and obstruct the insular administration. Gov. Hunt thinks that latterly the Federal party has undergone a change of heart, and notes that many of its members are even advocating a change of name and an abandonment of policies of obstruction. A definite test of this reformation is now being afforded. The Federals, abandoning their previous policy of political non-participation, went to the polls last November, and are represented in the insular Legislature now in session by an efficient minority.

The economic improvement of the island, as indicated by statistics of exports and imports, has been remarkable. For the fiscal year ending July 1, 1902, the export of sugar to the United States was $5,890,087, of cigars and cigarettes $1,570,938, as compared with $4,695,104 and $296,901, respectively, in the preceding year. The revival of the prostrate coffee industry is indicated in an exportation to foreign countries of $3,168,662 in 1901-1902, as compared with $1,674,460 in 1900-1901. The tremendous differential involved in free trade relations with the United States is reflected in a growth of total importations from that country to $10,719,444, as compared with $2,429,004 from foreign countries. As credit relations and consumers' tastes readjust themselves, a further movement in this direction may be anticipated. The development of internal trade has also been marked. "Merchants report business as better and sales as increased."

The public finances of the island are in no less encouraging condition than its private economies. The Hollander Law has more than realized the high expectations entertained of it, and public opinion in Porto Rico would consent with great reluctance, if at all, to any modification of its essential provisions. The financial system instituted under it has been found to be, Gov. Hunt notes, "sound in principle and flexible in application." The available balance of insular revenues increased during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1902, from $74,631.41 to $314,600.40, showing, as Auditor Garrison records in a characteristically lucid report, that, for that period at least, "the insular taxes and revenues have been well and closely collected, and the expenditures kept within reasonable and moderate bounds." But eternal vigilance is the price of sound financiering, and in the sharp relative decline of the excess of receipts over expenditures for the first half of the current fiscal year—$64,079.56, as compared with an excess of $239,968.99 in the preceding fiscal year—is to be found a clear admonition that should not be neglected. The fiscal ideal in Porto Rico for some years to come should be a public expenditure which will entail neither increase in the existing burden of taxation nor premature resort to public credit. To the Latin-American mind, spending and borrowing are peculiarly agreeable processes, and increased taxation and funded indebtedness constitute an easy administrative descent.

In educational lines the work so successfully inaugurated by Dr. Brumbaugh has been continued under the capable management of his successor. On February 21, 1902, the last date at which accurate statistics are obtainable, there were in activity throughout the island 876 schools, in which were enrolled 41,642 pupils under the direction of 934 teachers. This indicates an increase of more than 80 per cent. over the number of schools in operation under the Spanish régime, to say nothing of improvement in quality. Commissioner Lindsay declares "the work done under the Spanish school system is scarcely worthy to be called a school." Governor Hunt explains further that it is true there was a teacher for each school, but he often hired a substitute, not because better fitted for the work in hand, but that the tedium of mental exertion might be shifted from himself to another; or he sometimes appointed one of his older and brighter pupils to conduct the exercises, pretending to keep a general direction over the one or the other, although absent at times from the district for extended periods.

There has been marked progress in the other great reform connected with American sovereignty, namely, road construction. Under American control, 87½ miles of road have been completed. That is to say, within four years we have completed more than half as many miles of road as the Spaniards did in nearly four hundred years. This activity has been possible by reason of the $2,000,000 "customs refund" made by Congress for the benefit of Porto Rico, and reserved for permanent improvements of this kind. Governor Hunt expresses the hope that within three years the island will have a complete system of principal highways, and that thereafter, with better municipal conditions, local or municipal roads can be built which will be short and comparatively inexpensive.

It is interesting to note that Porto Rico affords an object-lesson of governmental ownership of a telegraph system, the insular Government having taken over the lines from the War Department in February, 1901. Commissioner Elliott gives an encouraging report as to its development. The number of offices for the transaction of business increased from ten on February 1, 1901, to thirty-two on July 1, 1902. Receipts have increased by an average of $2,101.67 per month between January and May, 1902, as against an average of $1,-895.03 for the same period in the year previous. It has been, and will probably remain, the policy of the insular Government to operate the system with a view to developing internal communication within the island rather than to make it immediately self-supporting and ultimately revenue-producing; but it is thought that, during the coming year, despite a further increase

in the number of offices, if allowance be made for the cost of public messages the operation of the system will entail no drain upon the insular Treasury.

The serious deficiency of political organization in Porto Rico still remains—the inefficiency of its local governments. The system which Spain established was designed to serve the political convenience of the central Government rather than to secure efficient service for the local bodies. American sovereignty, in neither its military nor early civil periods, introduced the radical reorganization that the situation demanded. In consequence, from this source proceed the largest number of difficulties that now confront the insular government. Some radical measures have been taken, as in the reduction of the grotesquely large number of municipal districts and in the central inspection of local finances; but, on the other hand, there has been what can be hardly considered as other than a premature resort to local borrowing, and an increasing aversion to any radical change from the essential features of the system now in vogue.

REBELL'S BALZAC, STENDHAL, AND MÉRIMÉE.—II.

PARIS, January 29, 1903.

In his 'Lettres à une Inconnue,' Mérimée writes: "Believe that you will never know either all the good or all the evil there is in me. I have spent my life in being praised for qualities which I have not, and in being calumniated for defects which are not mine." It is quite true that Mérimée remained a sort of problem even to his best friends. That he had real friends, who remained attached to him to the last, shows that he must have had some sterling qualities; but even to those friends something always remained hidden. He bragged of vices which he did not possess. He liked mystery, as is proved by his relations with the "Inconnue." He had a very broad mind; he liked the world, but hated its conventions and its limitations. He had a curiosity which was never quite satisfied and was always looking for new sensations.

The chapters which M. Hugues Rebell devotes to him and which form the second half of his volume on 'The Inspirers of Balzac, Stendhal, and Mérimée,' are interesting, as they show a relation between Mérimée's literary work and the incidents of his life. The grandfather of Mérimée was a lawyer of Normandy, and became the *intendant* of the Marshal de Broglie; his father was a painter and an art critic. His mother was a clever lady, imbued with the philosophical ideas of the eighteenth century. It was in her salon that young Mérimée made the acquaintance of Viollet-le-Duc, the architect, of Ampère, the writer, of Fauriel, of Henry Beyle, so well known later under the name of Stendhal. He was first taken as secretary by the Count d'Argout, and became during four years his *chef de cabinet*, when the Count d'Argout was successively Minister of the Navy, of Commerce and of the Interior. At the age of twenty-eight he had published already the 'Théâtre de Clara Gazul,' the 'Guzla,' the 'Jacquerie,' the 'Famille Carvajal,' the 'Chronique du Temps de Charles IX.' He saw the best society of his time, and his critical faculty found in it perpetual subjects of observation. His mind had an ironical turn, which was shown only in his correspondence. See, for instance, what he wrote to a friend about Madame Récamier:

"When her eyes had lost some of their beauty, she began to try conversation. Her method was so simple that it will appear coarse to you, but such methods are the best. She told you with a hushed voice, and for yourself alone, that you were the most extraordinary man of the century. Her manner of speaking was calculated. The first words of each phrase were pronounced with extraordinary vivacity, and seemed a sort of avowal forced by enthusiasm. The end of the phrase was spoken very slowly, and with a sort of shamefacedness which produced even greater effect upon the hearer's vanity."

Mérimée made the acquaintance of Madame Sand at the time when her famous quarrel with Alfred de Musset was making the greatest noise. His curiosity did not blind him. When he saw her, in men's clothes, such as she wore at the time, he was somewhat discouraged; he became even more so when she tried on him, ironical and skeptical as he was, her burning romantic phrases, speaking of Musset in such terms as these: "What have I done to the angels of heaven that they should inflict on me a lioness's love? In vain did Alfred get angry; he was but a lamb. . . . Alas! I lied to him, but say yourself if there exists a woman more sincere than I am at present." And she finally told Mérimée: "Passion is a severe gift, but it is divine. Prosper, you will see that my soul is not corrupt." Prosper did not wish to prolong his acquaintance with such a gushing person, especially as, with the exception of her fine, eloquent eyes, she had no womanly charms. When an allusion was afterwards made to Mérimée, Madame Sand said: "Don't speak to me of that man! He is a monster." Mérimée met Musset every week at a dinner which was given at the Palais Royal, at the Café de la Rotonde. The ordinary guests were Eugène Delacroix, the painter; Count Horace de Vieil-Castel; an English lawyer, Sutton Sharpe; Baron de Mareste, Stendhal, and his doctor, Koseff. Vieil-Castel gives curious details regarding these dinners in his memoirs, which are not easy to find.

It was in 1830, during a journey in Spain, that Mérimée made the acquaintance of Madame de Montijo, mother of the future Empress Eugénie. She was of Scotch origin, but had become thoroughly Spanish. She was very intimate with Marshal Narvaez; it was at her instigation that Mérimée composed his historical essay, 'Don Pèdre,' and wrote 'Carmen' (the subject of which has in our day inspired a musical composer). In 1830, the Countess of Montijo, who had become a widow, established herself in Paris with her two daughters, Paca and Eugenia (the latter born in Granada during an earthquake). Mérimée lived in intimacy with the family, spoiled the children, instructed them also. A letter written by him to Stendhal shows what was the exact nature of his relations with Madame de Montijo:

"I will take you on my return to an excellent woman of this country [Spain], who will please you by her wit and her simplicity. She is an admirable friend, but there has never been a question of anything but friendship between us. She is a very complete and very beautiful type of the Andalusian woman. She is the Countess of Montijo, formerly called Countess of Teba, of whom I have often spoken to you."

When Narvaez came back to power, the Countess of Montijo returned to Spain with her two children. It was after her departure that Mérimée met at the Count d'Argout's a very charming and cultivated person, Madame Cécile D——. She was married to the banker Gabriel D——, and was the daughter of the Count de L——. She became the inspirer of Mérimée, and he dedicated to her the book which may be considered as his masterpiece, 'Colomba,' a most original and dramatic account of Corsican manners, as well as the 'Vase Étrusque' and 'La Vénus d'Ille.' He entered the French Academy during the period of this new intimacy, which lasted no less than fifteen years and was suddenly interrupted by incidents which might as well have been left unrelated by M. Rebell. Mérimée had better also not have written what follows:

"Imagine the face you make when, after having admired for long years what you thought was a diamond, you discover that it was a mere piece of glass. . . . The result is, that I must lop from my life fifteen years, which not only are lost, but of which the memory is poison to me. I do not regret the time lost, but there are memories which were a superhuman world to me, a world to which I had access and which is now shut to me."

It seems as if the creative genius of Mérimée became exhausted during the years which he gave to a person, of brilliant wit and intellect, who inspired him with the only violent passion he ever felt in his life. His literary work came to an end: during the eighteen years which followed, he published only 'Lokis' and the 'Cosaques d'Autrefois'; as for the rest, there were only "articles and studies of a remarkably intelligent man, but you can no longer find in his writings the divine flame." He himself wrote:

"I am asked to do a lot of tiresome things which I dare not refuse. A friend wants a *tartine* for a book; a minister wants a memoir on the *Bibliothèque*. So I spend my time in doing useless things, but my great reason for not refusing point blank to do them is that I should otherwise do nothing at all. When I had an object, it was very different. I had then a great desire to please, and I worked hard to do so. Now, if I found at my feet the finest diamonds in the world, I would not stoop to pick them up, as I have nobody to whom I could offer them."

Mérimée held the post of Inspector of Historical Monuments. What would have been for many a sinecure, became to him an interesting occupation, and an occasion to show the great delicacy of his artistic sense. The reports which he made on his journeys from place to place in various parts of France are extremely valuable; they have become rare, as only a few copies were printed at the time, but they are much valued by bibliophiles as well as by architects. In his latter years, Mérimée found some interest in a correspondence with a Mademoiselle Jenny Dacquin, a governess of Boulogne, who amused herself by sending him a criticism of his 'Chronique de Charles IX.' Mérimée answered her, and many letters were exchanged before he saw his correspondent in London. Mademoiselle Dacquin became a friend of his, and nothing more. M. Rebell seems, however, to think that the limits of friendship and of a warmer sentiment become very uncertain; but I

believe that he is nearer the truth when he says that Mademoiselle Dacquin never was really more than an innocent *remplaçante* of what he had lost. Their correspondence is too ironical in many parts, too maternal and paternal in others, and too sensible generally to suggest the idea of a violent passion.

Mérimée had always kept up his correspondence with Madame de Montijo. The girl whom he had seen so familiarly in his youth had become Empress of the French; she offered him the post of private secretary, but he refused it, and was named Senator. "They say," writes Mérimée to the Countess of Montijo, "that the Empress kissed her husband with effusion when he reported to her what he had done. This little detail, I assure you, gives me more pleasure than the thing itself, to which I am not yet perfectly reconciled." Mérimée never took any part in politics. He gave many notes to Napoleon III. when the Emperor had the fancy to write his 'Life of Cæsar.' He was an intimate guest of the sovereign, but discussed with him only historical questions. He was at heart a skeptic in political matters; he had no belief in formulas. He knew many men and many countries, and what was good for England did not always seem to him good for France, Italy, or Spain.

His end was painful. He became very ill in the latter days of the Empire, and the war of 1870, which he had long foreseen, was a terrible blow to him. After the first defeat, he lost all hope; on the 21st of August, he wrote to his old friend Panizzi: "*Finis Galliæ.* We have brave soldiers, but no general. I see nothing but folly around me. The Chambers, which are to meet, will do nothing but help the Prussians. I expect in a week to hear the proclamation of the Republic, and in a fortnight to see the Prussians. I assure you that I envy those who have just been killed near the Rhine." After Sedan, he was a witness of the Revolution of the 4th of September; he left Paris for Cannes, where he died on the 24th of September.

Correspondence.

THE AMBUSHING OF BRADDOCK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Noting in your issue of February 5 (p. 117, col. 3, lines 2-5) the sentence, "Occasionally there is a slip, as where the old charge that Braddock 'walked into an ambush' is given another lease of life," may I ask if this correction rests on new contemporary accounts discovered within the last fifteen years, or a fresh analysis of the old? The current view was accepted without question, after a reëxamination of the accessible evidence, both by Parkman ('Montcalm and Wolfe') and by Winsor ('Narrative and Critical History,' v., 497-8, where he repeats the word "ambush" twice); and I confess to being among the darkened with them, but more than glad to learn new truth on any subject. I am sure many other readers must be equally glad of information.

Very respectfully, F. M.

February 8, 1903.

[Parkman's words are: "Braddock has been charged with marching blindly into an ambuscade; but it was not so. There was no ambuscade; and had there been one, he would have found it. It is true that he did not reconnoitre the woods very far in advance of the head of the column; yet, with this exception, he made elaborate dispositions to prevent surprise" (*Montcalm and Wolfe*, i., 214). Winsor's only reference is as follows: "They [the French] knew from scouts that Braddock was approaching, and Beaujeu was sent out with over 600 Indians and 300 French, to ambush the adventurous Briton" (*Narr. and Crit. History*, v., 497). Winsor's account is very brief as compared with Parkman's, but gives no other support than as above to the ambush theory.—Ed. Nation.]

WILSON'S HISTORY AND ITS ILLUSTRATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I trust you will do me the honor to present this letter to the writer of the review of President Wilson's 'History of the American People,' in your issue of the 5th inst. (p. 117). It is evident that he has misunderstood my connection with the illustrations of the work, and, to an unwary reader, it might appear that the inclusion of "fancy pictures" and the use of the inscription "from an old print" should be charged to my account. This is in no wise the case. I had almost nothing to do with the selection of the illustrations, but prepared the full "Notes to the Illustrations" of Volume I., and about eighty full notes in Volume II.—nothing more.

Yours very sincerely,

Victor H. Paltsits.

Lenox Library Building, New York, February 6, 1903.

[Volume i., p. xxvi., contains this note: "For the verification of the documents and the illustrative material here, and for the notes on their sources, we are indebted to Mr. Victor H. Paltsits, . . . whose scholarly researches made possible so full a list." The language is not very clear, but was taken to mean that Mr. Paltsits had a share in the selection of the illustrations, besides being responsible for the annotations. We regret that any injustice should unintentionally have been done him.—Ed. Nation.]

CARLYLE'S FRENCH REVOLUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the admirable review of Fletcher's recent edition of Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' in the last number of the *Nation*, following as it does so closely upon a notice of the new Macmillan edition of FitzGerald's Writings, in the same number, it may not be amiss to cite the following, from FitzGerald's letter to Allen of July 25, 1840:

"I hear Spedding has written a Review of Carlyle's Revolution in the *Edinburgh*. I don't know a book more certain to evaporate away from posterity than that, except it be supported by his other works. Parts may perhaps be found two hundred years hence and translated into Erse by some inverted Macpherson."

Few literary prophecies can show more complete justification than this, sixty odd years after utterance.

Alfred L. Ripley.

Andover, Mass., February 14, 1903.

Notes.

The one-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Emerson will be celebrated by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. with a centenary edition of his Complete Works, printed from new Caslon type, with an introduction by Edward Waldo Emerson, and notes (an innovation for Emerson's publications) from the same hand. Two volumes, possibly, may be filled with unpublished material from the Emerson papers; but these will follow the reprint at a date later than May 25. There will also be a parallel autograph centenary edition, limited and numbered, and each set will contain an original sheet of Emerson's manuscript.

Baker & Taylor Co. announce "The Story of the Churches," brief volumes designed to answer the general question, "What is a Baptist?" etc.; 'Leavening the Nation: The Story of American Home Missions,' by Dr. Joseph B. Clark; 'God and Music,' by the Rev. John Harrington Edwards; 'Social Ethics,' by Prof. J. M. Coleman; and 'Reciprocity,' by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin and H. Parker Willis.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce the early publication of 'The Principles of Money,' by Prof. J. L. Laughlin.

'Variations in Animals and Plants,' by Dr. H. M. Vernon, of Oxford, will be published this month by Henry Holt & Co.

A. S. Barnes & Co. will shortly issue 'The Real Benedict Arnold,' by Charles Burr Todd, author of 'The Real Aaron Burr.'

A very becoming Memorial of the late Archbishop Corrigan, of simple elegance in bookish attire, and free from extravagance in the biographical sketch contributed by Dr. J. A. Mooney, has been brought out by the Cathedral Library Association in this city. It comprises further an account of the obsequies, Bishop McQuaid's sermon, and the varied testimonials of the Catholic laity and the press. The impression of sweetness and integrity made by all these documents is confirmed by the numerous portraits of the lamented prelate.

Dodd, Mead & Co.'s 'New International Encyclopædia' has now advanced with its sixth volume to "Ether." In these later volumes there is undoubtedly at many points a marked improvement over those which we reviewed some time ago. This holds especially of the sub-editing and proof-reading. Though not yet immaculate in these regards, the Encyclopædia is no longer so irritating to read or such a trap for the unwary. But, with all this, much remains to be done in other directions. The illustrations are still beautiful but inefficient; the bibliographies, though better, could be greatly improved, and the assignment of space is still eccentric. The department of biography remains perhaps the poorest, unless that preëminence be disputed by the writer on characters in literature; the crudity of these is unabated. Yet it is clear that the editors must have taken

the condition of the first volumes to heart and labored at their task. In volume six the fates, too, have been good to them. An encyclopædia with such articles as it includes on Egypt and England—especially an admirable sketch of English literature—cannot be finally sneered at. Also, on natural science and art it now plainly can be consulted with general safety.

In 'Twenty-six Historic Ships' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), Mr. Frederic S. Hill, who served with distinction as volunteer lieutenant in the navy during the civil war, has given the stories of certain American men-of-war, from the *Alfred* in 1776, with John Paul Jones as her first lieutenant, to the *Oregon* in 1898. The ship's name, in each case, serves as the thread upon which are strung accounts of naval actions, histories of successive ships bearing the same name, sketches of eminent naval commanders, reflections on naval policy—anything, in short, which seemed to the writer germane to the subject under the most elastic interpretation. The book is excellently got up; the author's style is simple and pleasing; the stories themselves of perennial interest. It is in telling of the actions during the civil war that Mr. Hill is at his best, for he was a participant in several of them. Careless proof-reading is, presumably, responsible for a number of curious statements; among them, that the *Louisiana's* "bottom was twenty-two inches thick before plating with 500 tons of three-inch railroad iron." The last picture, "Naval Heroes of Santiago," by the way, is misleading, since portraits of Higginson and Chadwick, who were not in the famous battle, are given, and those of Taylor and Cook, who were in it, are omitted.

So charming a series of Egyptian pictures as Mr. R. T. Kelly has given in his 'Egypt Painted and Described' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan), we have never seen before. At every point, except the process reproduction, which will not stand close inspection, they are utterly delightful. With the seventy-five, all phases of the country are covered—Cairo scenes in glows of color and costume; Nile scenes in exquisite atmosphere effects; at the cataracts and among the temples; by the pyramids; in the desert; among the fellahin in the Delta; on the sea front at Damietta. Through the land for years Mr. Kelly went, an artist at large, and gathered in the rich harvest here suggested. The people, too, he learned to know as well as the country, and, in consequence, has picked up wonderful bits of defiant realism which the ordinary Orientalist will find hard to assimilate. What, for example, are we to make of a Moslem district where the portrait of the Sheykh, just painted, is carried in triumph and hung in the mosque? The idea makes the canonist's hair stand up, but such things, evidently, can happen. And the book is full of similar scraps of strangeness. Mr. Kelly, apparently, found nothing theologically unseemly in this picture episode, and, in another place, he tells us that something is forbidden in the Koran of which the Koran never dreamed. His mind, therefore, was absolutely clear for impressions; they came to him richly, and he has booked them picturesquely and faithfully here. Yet, in curious contrast to his keenness of eye and general alertness, is a phenomenal carelessness for the representation of language. Arabic he evidently picked up colloquially and from all classes—donkey boys to desert Sheykhs—and it, as given in this book, is Arabic of the most weird, broken to unintelligibility. But that only adds another touch to the fresh realism, and a book so absolutely fresh as this on an almost threadbare subject seldom appears. Mr. Kelly must give us some more pictures and details of the *vie intime* of the Egyptians; the more *intime* the better.

The two large volumes of 'Parliament, Past and Present,' by Arnold Wright and Philip Smith (London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: Dutton), are history of an eminently popular sort, liberally provided with anecdote and adorned by some three hundred illustrations, some colored. The pictorial record would be far more valuable if the source of the various portraits and views were always given. It is a work that will entertain for occasional reading any one interested in parliamentary history, if it does not add to his enlightenment; and for general readers whose instinct warns them against special treatises, it will be a mine of reasonably accurate information about the buildings Parliament has occupied, about the procedure of legislation and state trials, and concerning famous party whips, premiers, speakers, and debaters. All this is sufficiently diluted to serve as the daily food of political human nature of the amateur sort, and with this understanding the book may safely be commended.

Nearly twenty years ago M. Paul Bourget spent a few weeks in Oxford, and expressed some of his reveries and meditations in a publication which tells us scarcely less about M. Bourget than about the university city. A translation of 'Some Impressions of Oxford' has just appeared (London: Howard Wilford Bell), illustrated by fourteen delightful drawings by E. H. New. The chief value of the book is in these pictures. The translation is not well done. The annual subscription to the Union Society, for instance, is not a "rate" (p. 45), and the reading-rooms of that club are not used for different kinds of "lectures," in the English sense of that word.

The same publisher has issued a very much better piece of work in the form of a reprint of a paper on "University Magazines and their Makers," read by H. C. Marillier before the "Sette of Odd Volumes." It is an admirable sketch of the history of college journalism—mainly consisting of lighter verse—at Oxford and Cambridge, with sufficient quotations to whet one's appetite for a study of the "sources." Among the best-known names connected with this history are those of Thackeray (the author of a skit on Tennyson's prize-poem "Timbuctoo"), C. S. Calverley, William Morris, Sir George Trevelyan, H. R. Haweis, and, in more recent times, J. K. Stephen, A. D. Godley, A. T. Quiller-Couch, Owen Seaman, G. W. Steevens, and Barry Pain. It appears that English college wits are generally most successful in parody, of which form of literary art several brilliant instances are given in this little volume. It is a pity that Mr. Godley's delightful verses on the Rhodes scholarships came too late for inclusion. The book contains as an appendix a complete chronological list of college publications, with the names of their chief contributors.

A lecture on 'The Rise of the Experimental Method in Oxford,' by Prof. Clifford Allbutt, M.D., F.R.S. (Henry Frowde), is Oxfordy in the bad way—wordy, perfunctory, confused in the extreme, presenting nothing new in matter or form, often inaccurate, and, where right, relying on inferior authorities.

A booklet of ninety-seven pages, translated from an article in an Italian periodical, but which should not be confounded with the official Report of the Italian *Polar Star* expedition shortly to appear, has been published by Howard Wilford Bell (London). It has the not altogether happy title, invented by the English publisher, of 'Farther North than Nansen,' and is illustrated by a few rather inferior half-tones. It forms a preliminary announcement of the chief events and discoveries of the expedition of which the revised, amplified, and fully illustrated account will appear in the Report. The translation, while not idiomatic, is sufficiently accurate, and the tone of the narrative admirably modest. The expedition wintered at Teplitz Bay, where the vessel had a narrow escape from being crushed in the ice, and the party were obliged to set up tents on the shore, in which they spent the winter. In February, an attempt was made at a sledge journey northward, which proved abortive. On the 11th of March, a second party set out with the intention of sending back detachments at intervals, leaving four men under Commander Cagni for the last supreme effort northward. The difficulties proved great, as usual in attempts to traverse the pack-ice. The first detachment, composed of Lieut. Querini and two men, left the advance March 20, but nothing has ever been heard of them since, and they doubtless perished. Cardenti, with the second detachment, reached the camp in safety April 18. Cagni pressed on with great courage and energy, and on the 25th of April reached latitude 86° 33′ 49″ in about east longitude 64° 30′. After severe struggles, he and his men reached Teplitz Bay, June 23. The *Polar Star* was laboriously freed from the ice, and reached Hammerfest on the 5th of September. The geographical results of the expedition were chiefly the determination of the mythical character of some of the supposed islands north of the Franz Josef group, and the correction in detail of the existing charts. The enumeration of the scientific observations must be deferred until the publication of the final Report.

'Precious Stones: A Book of Reference for Jewellers,' by W. R. Cattelle (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), is designed to give all the necessary information about gems. There are chapters treating in an elementary manner the general physical properties (specific gravity, cleavage, hardness, etc.), the desirable qualities, methods of cutting, prices, modes of discrimination, history of celebrated stones, etc., with special descriptive chapters for the principal gems. The book, which is illustrated with ten plates, abounds in practical hints, and should be useful both to jewellers and to the general reader.

Prof. Henry A. Miers of Oxford, in 'Mineralogy: An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Minerals' (Macmillan), has produced a thorough text-book of the essential characters of minerals, omitting any extended mention of their mode of occur-

rence, geological distribution, origin, alteration, etc., which the author prefers to treat separately. Part I. includes the geometric properties (Crystallography), optical and physical properties (Crystal Physics), with specific chapters on the practical measurement and optical determination of crystals, and others on the general physical and chemical properties, the relations between these and the methods of description and determination. Part II. describes the more important mineral species in detail, with brief mention of well-known occurrences. Tables of the principal properties are added. The typography is excellent, and the figures of crystals sharp and clear. An unusual feature is the employment, in the descriptive portion, of shaded drawings of mineral specimens and groups which are wonderfully effective.

On June 1 will issue from the University of Chicago Press the first number of *Modern Philology*, "a quarterly journal devoted to research in the modern languages and literatures." It will appear regularly, and make a volume of about 600 pages, under the editorial conduct of Philip Schuyler Allen (manager), Frederic Ives Carpenter (English), Camillo von Klenze (German), and Thomas Atkinson Jenkins (Romance). An advisory board includes Professors Kittredge, Bright, Thomas, von Jagemann, Warren, Matzke, Hempl, and Gummere. The coöperation of all scholars in America and Europe is solicited.

Practically the entire double number, 1 and 2, of the *Zeitschrift* of the German Palestine Society (vol. xxv.) is devoted to a discussion of the climatology and meteorology of the Holy Land from the pen of Dr. H. Hilderscheid. The article, besides furnishing complete data collected for decades, not only in Jerusalem, but in other parts of the country, is also historical, and discusses fully the information to be gained from the Scriptures and the Talmud. It is accompanied by four excellent charts and one meteorological map. Of timely interest are the concluding sections, in which the author discusses the old problem as to material climatic changes in Palestine, and reaches the conclusion that there is no evidence to this effect; least of all, proofs that there ever has been a general destruction of forests which changed Palestine from a land flowing with milk and honey, supporting some six millions in the time of David and Solomon, to a comparatively dreary waste that now can scarcely sustain half a million. The best historic data go to show that there never was an abundance of forests in Palestine. Hilderscheid, accordingly, agrees with Conder and others in holding that political causes alone have produced the present deplorable conditions, and points to the success of the German Temple Society colonies as proof that the projects of the Zionists to reëstablish the Jewish nationality on the historic soil of the fathers is not a visionary dream, so far as the capacity of the country again to support a large population is concerned.

For the first time in the history of German universities a common agreement has been reached in the various states of the Empire regulating promotion to the degree of doctor of philosophy. Hitherto each school has done in this matter what seemed good in its own eyes. The Prussian Cultus Minister has now published an agreement according to which, beginning with the new academic year, the minimum requirements shall be that the candidate must be the graduate of a nine-years' secondary school, and must have been in attendance at the university for three years. Promotion is permitted only on the basis of a printed dissertation, supplemented by an oral examination. Exceptions to these rules are to be discouraged, and granted only if the authorities are satisfied with the preparation of the applicant. Only the following four grades will appear on the diplomas, viz., "rite," "cum laude," "magna cum laude," and "summa cum laude."

The "census" of Japan, heretofore taken annually from 1872 to 1900, has been rather in the nature of an enumeration. The publication of the rough results with the Résumé Statistique, annually issued since 1886, has heretofore sufficed the purpose of the Government. No enumeration has been published since 1900, and this probably because it has been recently decreed that, hereafter, a census on modern principles and with scientific thoroughness is to be taken every five years. Meanwhile the Imperial Cabinet has issued a printed document of folio size (pp. 400) in French text, with Chinese and Arabic numerals, showing the movement of the population for 1899. The statistics of birth, marriage, and divorce are elaborately tabulated, showing, for example, not only the sex of the stillborn and the normally born, but also the details, by sex and age, of the Japanese at home in the various cities, districts, and villages, and even in some foreign countries. The data in regard to marriage and divorce are very full as to sex, age, and cause. Other tables concern naturalization, loss of nationality, prolonged absence, foundlings, and some minor details.

On every New Year's Day, the daily newspapers in the large cities of Japan vie with each other not only in the bulk of their issues, comprising between ten and fifty-two pages of printed matter, but also in reproductions in color of pictures by famous artists, artistic designs, or original drawings, some of which are exquisite works of art. This year, in addition to its usual chromograph, the *Nichi-nichi Shimbun* issues a map of Tokio, covering six square feet, which most accurately represents the new features of the modern city. The boundaries of the Fu, or municipality proper, and of the various wards, the Shiro or castle enclosure, the business and residence portions, Government reservations, Buddhist and Shinto temples, Christian churches, barracks, parks, parade grounds, school property, etc., are clearly delineated. The course of the great railways entering from the south, north, and east, and of the tram or horse-cars, canals and water courses, the hills and rising ground, ponds, the great reclamations of land in the shallow bay at the mouth of the Sumida River, both proposed and accomplished, are also shown, together with the half-dozen insular curiosities out in the bay opposite Shinagawa —forts hastily thrown up at the time of Perry's visit in 1853. The execution and accuracy of the map are alike creditable, and its publication is a boon, since perhaps nothing of the sort has been issued since the publication, in 1874, by one of the American professors in the Imperial University, of the "Map of Tokio, with Notes Historical and Explanatory." It is almost startling to compare the modern and true national capital with that of Yedo, the great camp of wooden tents of a feudal suzerain, with his vassals, and the headquarters of an ecclesiastical oligarchy, exhibiting a curious union of State and Church. The maps of forty years ago show that about one-fourth of the total area was occupied by the feudal caravansaries, and fully another fourth was held as temple property, chiefly for the benefit of the priests and monks. This real estate represented the accumulation of centuries, during which Buddhism basked in the patronage of the Tokugawas. Nearly all this Buddhist property, excepting areas actually required for the sacred edifices, long since sequestrated by the Government, has served for educational and other public purposes. The map tells eloquently a grand story of progress.

—To reach the present point of progress of the new series of the Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A., the old series required but six volumes, whereas the volume Hernia-Inquiry, lately issued from the Government Printing Office, is numbered seven. Some idea of the reasons for this can be got from a comparison in the case of a relatively recent topic. Hypnotism in 1885 demanded but two and a half pages; now twenty-five are needed to keep up with the literature of the subject. With Immunity the growth in the same period is from a dozen lines to ten pages. But the same holds good even of the older bibliography; Hippocrates, for example, filling eighteen pages now as against ten formerly. Steadily goes forward the great task of making this library historically complete and unrivalled by the purchase of the earliest editions of medical writers. We will cite but one, Hock der Brackenau's 'Mentagra,' a tractate "de cura morbi Gallici (vulgo malafrancosz)," as the Strassburg edition of 1514 expresses it, "sive, ut Galli dicunt, Neapolitani," as the Lyons edition of 1529 insinuates—each country shifting upon another the odium of the disease. Hernia has 75 out of the 1,000 pages of this volume, and other voluminous rubrics are Hydrotherapy 15, Hydrophobia 25, Influenza 39, Infants 64, Hospitals 128, and Hygiene (by countries) 164. Homœopathy has 38 pages, against 25 in the old series, yet the difference seems, at a hasty glance, due rather to the acquisition of oldish books on the subject than to an expansion of the doctrine and the practice. However, we observe a third edition of 'L'Omopatía' in Naples in 1895. One may expect to find anything in this collection, from a report on kitchens to the House of Commons, to a Zoo in which the Hippopotamus furnishes one item, Hogs 5 pages, and Horses 14, while there is a Russian report of the commission on disinfecting cattle-plague hides. A discussion of early imprints is to be found in the note to Hugo Senensis's 'Expositio,' on page 460.

—Heilprin's 'Mont Pelée and the Tragedy of Martinique' (Lippincott) is the most thorough account of the Antillean eruptions of last year that has yet appeared. It is the work of a trained scientific observer who visited Martinique twice, and who, on his second excursion, was a close witness of some of the later violent eruptions of Pelée. The book is indeed one of the best descriptions that we possess of an active

episode in the long life of a volcano, and is freely illustrated. The most remarkable feature of the May eruption was without doubt the singularly narrow limitation of the volcanic blast of burning-hot gases by the valley that directed them toward St. Pierre, where 30,000 persons were burned to death within five minutes. The subsequent destruction of Morne Rouge in August is fully described from notes made by Professor Heilprin at the time. On the afternoon of August 29, the diameter of the eruptive column of dust and bomb-laden steam was estimated at 1500 feet as it rose over the crest of the crater; its velocity of ascent at from one and a half to two miles a minute. Its summit was lost in the great leaden umbrella cloud that overspread the sky. Bombs af lava fell near the author and his companion; one hardly smaller than a flour barrel landed within ten feet of them, spattering them with mud from head to foot. It was on the night following this close contact with the volcano that a burning hot blast, similar to the one that had destroyed St. Pierre, but now turned in another direction, devastated Morne Rouge and Ajoupa-Bouillon: houses were laid flat on the ground, trees were overturned, boards were penetrated by other boards that had been shot through them. The people were fearfully burned, and the few survivors were suffering terribly when Professor Heilprin visited the ruins of the villages the next morning. Readers of this interesting book will unite in congratulating its author on his fortunate escape from the fury of Pelée.

—Kennan's 'Tragedy of Pelée' (Outlook Co.) is a vivid personal narrative by a trained although unscientific observer. It is for the most part a straightforward account of what was seen around the volcano, or of what was learned from those who had been present at the eruption; it is entertaining in a high degree, except for certain too realistic descriptions of decaying human bodies in the ruins about St. Pierre. Several of the plates give excellent illustration of the barren ash-covered slopes of the volcano, and of the new ravines worn in ashes by the torrential rains. It seems to be well proved that the destruction of St. Pierre was not caused by flaming gases, as stated in some of the earlier accounts, but mainly by superheated steam rushing down from the mountain with overwhelming velocity. A good account is given in chapter viii. of some explosions in the valley of Rivière Blanche, when streams of water from higher up the mountain made their way down into masses of hot ashes; explosions of this kind being among the most notable secondary features of the volcano's activity.

—Of books about New York there promises in time to be a surfeit. Among the latest, the Burrows Brothers Company (Cleveland) publish Charles Wolley's 'A Two Years' Journal in New York, and Part of its Territories in America'—a reprint from the original edition of 1701, limited to 250 copies. Prof. Edward Gaylord Bourne furnishes an introduction and notes. Very little is known of the author of this brochure, but the description of the New York of 1678-80 must have been very entertaining in its time—and, indeed, is so still—from its quaint style. At this period New York was a little trading town of 3,500 people, with a commercial marine of about 1,500 tons. Trade was fostered by protection, slavery, and the practice of cheating the Indians out of their property after they had been made drunk—not an agreeable community, according to our notions. Probably the only tolerable life was among those who, like Mr. Wolley, were sent out by England to help govern it, and the higher class of merchants. Later on, as appears in the pages of 'New York: Old and New; Its Story, Streets, and Landmarks,' by Rufus Rockwell Wilson (Philadelphia: Lippincott), the practice of burning negroes at the stake was not unknown, and trade and commerce were further fostered by piracy. It is not our fault if the early annals of New York seem mainly what they seemed to Diedrich Knickerbocker—a fit subject for satire, and otherwise not an important chapter in the history of the New World. According to Mr. Wilson's "foreword," the object of his book is to bring the subject "within the reach of the busy reader of slender purse." The first of his two volumes is historical, the second descriptive; but the work is not very well written, and there is too much of it for a handbook. There are a good many illustrations.

—There is much more that is valuable in 'Social New York under the Georges, 1714-1776,' by Esther Singleton (D. Appleton & Co.). This makes us acquainted, in considerable detail, with the "Houses, Streets, and Country Homes, . . . Fashions, Furniture, China, Plate, and Manners" of the period. Of course, New York under the Georges was half-English and half-Dutch—Dutch customs lingering on down to our own time; but the American city was beginning. The author's object is to show how the prosperous class lived—"the opulent and fashionable life that revolved around Fort George." By this time luxury had made considerable progress; and this volume, with its innumerable illustrations, gives a very good view of what the author wishes to show us. The materials have been gathered from many sources—old letters and diaries, wills and inventories, newspapers, "the publications of Messrs. Zenger, Gaine, Holt, Parker, and Rivington." The volume is a provincial museum, not to be neglected by any one who cares for history, for art, or the immediate past out of which he has sprung and part of which still inheres in him. Of 'New York Sketches' (illustrated), by Jesse Lynch Williams, published by Charles Scribner's Sons, we cannot say that either text or pictures are thoroughly satisfactory. The water front, High Bridge, and Brooklyn Bridge, for instance, are not by any means brought out in full perfection, to say nothing of the Park, certain street intersections emphasized by those unique structures, the elevated stations, etc. This is rather a prettified New York. Our own "New New York" is more impressive—picturesque at one point, grotesque at another, "stagey" at a third. " 'S giebt nur a' New York."

—At a first glance Mrs. M. Sturge Henderson's 'Three Centuries in North Oxfordshire' (Oxford: B. H. Blackwell; London: Edward Arnold) might seem to be of merely local interest, but a careful reading shows it to be of considerable value to students of the history of English social life in general. The district considered in this book is small in area, but its records afford material for an investigation of a wide range of topics, including witchcraft, the Journals of George Fox and John Wesley, eighteenth-century factories, Warren Hastings at Daylesford, early ideals of women's education, mail coaches, and the revolt of agricultural laborers under Joseph Arch. Mrs. Henderson's inquiries have led her to question some of the statements commonly made by historians. She finds, for instance, sufficient evidence to disprove the theory that the growth of factories called the apprenticeship system into being, and she believes that the influence of the railways upon the migration of villagers into the towns has been much over-estimated. This tendency had gone far before the railways came, as may be inferred from the serious overcrowding in Manchester, Leeds, Liverpool, and Birmingham at the time of the Chartist risings. "Further, the rustic in search of employment does not travel by train; any and every day he is to be seen drifting up to town by the highways and hedges." Among the many curious notabilia scattered up and down the book may be mentioned the custom of ringing the congregation out of church on Sunday morning at Charlbury, which is believed to be a survival of the mid-day Angelus. Record should also be made of the comment of an aged woman at Enstone, who attributes the decay of a friendly spirit in that village to a cheapened press. "Folks were neighborly in my young days; they had need, when the papers were sixpence," and were lent from hand to hand. The writer has collected her facts by means of a diligent burrowing in the Bodleian, especially among the files of the *Oxford Journal* from 1753 onwards, by researches in parish registers, and by the use of the manuscript diary of a cottage weaver who lived at Charlbury late in the eighteenth century. She has also drawn largely from local oral tradition, which she has had reason to regard as much more trustworthy than commonly supposed.

—The fifth volume of Prof. Paul Fredericq's monumental 'Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Neerlandicæ,' which appears with the new year (Ghent: J. Vuylsteke), comprises only the period between September 24, 1525, and December 31, 1528, with an appendix of additions to the previous volumes. The sixth volume, now in preparation, will embrace an even shorter term—the three years, 1529 to 1531. With this wealth of material and conscientious exhaustiveness of research it is to be feared that the end of this valuable collection is still far off, and until it is completed no one can venture to write on the struggle of the Netherlands for religious liberty. There is yet to come a quarter of a century of the domination of Charles V., and then nearly half a century of Philip II., while this latest section is that in which the interest is greatest and the documentary evidence most abundant. We can only hope that life and strength may be spared to Professor Fredericq for the completion of his gigantic and most useful task.

—The first persecution which forms the subject of the present volume, was brisk enough to test the endurance of the reformers and the popular favor with which the reform was accepted. The machinery of persecution was not yet scientifically organized, and its operation was somewhat

fitful, but the results were ghastly enough. Not the least suggestive among the documents are the accounts of expenses incurred in the execution of the sentences. When wood was dear, burning was not an economical process. When Hector van Dommenne was burnt at Bruges, the cordwood and faggots cost six livres, and a hundred bundles of straw thirty-six sous, to which the porterage added twenty sous; and in addition to this were the stake and the chains and other implements. The body, we are told, took a long while to burn, and it was not until evening that it was wholly reduced to ashes. When Pierrette Pourreau was burned at Fleurus, a bargain was made with Jehan, the "maistre de la haulte œuvre," by which he was paid five gold caroluses for his services in this and in torturing her twice; and there is a charge for three pots of wine given to her after the torture, for we are told that she was greatly exhausted. The confessors who attended her were likewise paid, but they were not admitted to the dinner with which the officers of justice regaled themselves after the execution, the cost of which they conscientiously charged to the town, so that the whole expense amounted to eleven livres, eight sous and six deniers. It is well sometimes to have a glimpse at the horrors of the good old times to which some sentimental enthusiasts look back with regret. The modern scientific study of history, so conspicuously illustrated in the admirable labors of Professor Fredericq, affords ample material to dispel the illusions so long maintained by writers of the romantic school.

THE CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY.

The Cambridge Modern History. Planned by the late Lord Acton, LL.D., Regius Professor of Modern History. Edited by A. W. Ward, Litt.D.; G. W. Prothero, Litt.D.; Stanley Leathes, M.A. Volume I., The Renaissance. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1902.

Few books of our time have been awaited by the learned world with more interest than the first volume of what is designed to be the most full, comprehensive and scientific history of modern times in the English language, or perhaps in any language. Its French and German competitors are neither so large in scale, nor to so great an extent the work of accomplished specialists, as this series of volumes is intended to be. The conception belongs to the most learned English-speaking man of our time; and Lord Acton was not more remarkable for his learning than for the breadth of his views and the severity of the standard of accuracy and finish which he set before himself, and held up to the contributors whom he enlisted.

The plan of the series has some elements of novelty. Each volume is to contain a number of separate chapters on particular sections or aspects of the history of the period covered by the volume. These chapters are written by different hands, and from different points of view. For instance, of the last two chapters in the present volume, that entitled "The Ancient Catholic Church" is the work of Dr. Barry, a Roman Catholic priest, while that entitled "The Eve of the Reformation" has been prepared by one of the oldest and most respected of our historical scholars, a Protestant and distinctly a Protestant, Mr. Henry C. Lea, of Philadelphia. Moreover, the chapters do not constitute a connected narrative. Sometimes they treat what is almost the same topic over and over again from different sides. Thus, the policy and careers of Pope Alexander the Sixth and Pope Julius the Second are handled thrice in three of the five chapters that are devoted, and rightly devoted, to Italy in the days of the Renaissance. Thus one may say that the book is really a series of monographs arranged on a system, a collection of essays on history rather than an historical narrative. There are some obvious drawbacks to this scheme. It may be less convenient for the purposes of reference than the conventional and familiar kind of history. It may fail to give so clear a view of the order of events. But it ought to have the great merits of securing a more thorough treatment of each particular department of study than could be expected from the labor of any one man or small group of men, and of enabling the important facts of history to be brought into their true connection, so as to illustrate leading principles or tendencies, better than can be done where the chronological succession of events is strictly followed. The very selection of subjects, the very titles of the chapters, are suggestive of the way in which history ought to be studied, and reveal the mind that framed this comprehensive scheme.

Lord Acton has, to the inconsolable regret of those who knew his attainments, not lived to see even the first volume of the treatise published. Neither is there a word of his writing in it. The Introduction which he had, it is understood, intended to prefix to it, summing up what the Europe of the Renaissance had received from the Middle Ages, was never composed. Some sort of introduction was needed, for the late Dr. Creighton's introductory note relates only to the scheme of the work, and does not launch the work itself by giving a picture of things as they stood before the action begins. This loss may be regretted, but cannot be repaired.

To review with any attempt at completeness the nineteen essays contained in this volume would be impossible within the limits of an article in these columns, so we can only indicate the general impressions which the book makes upon us. One of these impressions is that of thoroughness. The whole field of European history is covered, except that Scotland, Russia, and the Scandinavian kingdoms are not dealt with, being apparently reserved for the next volume. The treatment is careful, the methods are exact. There is no eloquence, no effort at picturesqueness. Facts and views are packed tight together in an eminently businesslike way, which is like the German way, except that the style is not dull, and that there is more compression than most German scholars achieve. We say "the style," for although these nineteen monographs are from seventeen different pens, they have in common this quality of businesslike directness and this avoidance of all ornament, so that the differences in manner and language between the various writers are not salient. The intense practicality which most of the writers show is probably due to the sense they have of the limits of space to which they must conform. Compression excludes ornament, and reduces even philosophical reflections to their minimum. The result is a book in which nothing can be skipped. In the condensation of the vast mass of matter it contains it reminds one of a dictionary. Yet it is not dry. The writing is generally vigorous and pointed.

Sir Richard Jebb, for instance, in his chapter on the Classical Renaissance, manages, together with a long catalogue of names and books, to give lively and effective characterizations of some of the great figures, such as Erasmus. Mr. Armstrong analyzes the character of Savonarola with penetration, and describes the dramatic incidents of his career with spirit. Dr. Garnett presents a clear and graceful narrative of the complicated policy and enterprises of the Popedom from the accession of Sixtus IV. to the death of Julius II., and puts as good a face as can fairly and properly be put upon the conduct of Alexander VI. Mr. E. J. Payne, who has allotted to him two enormous subjects, "The Age of Discovery" and "The New World" (A. D. 1426-A. D. 1565), presents in these chapters a summary and philosophical view of the course of exploration in East and West, and of the foundation of the Spanish dominion in America. So, too, Dr. A. W. Ward (Master of Peterhouse), who has undertaken the very tangled history of the Netherlands, gives us, in the compass of forty-five pages, a succinct narrative and a weighty estimate of the economic as well as political causes which told upon the prosperity of the Flemish towns, and created that singular divergence between the course of their fortunes and those of the northern part of the Low Countries which has lasted ever since, and which embodied itself seventy years ago in the creation of the Belgian monarchy.

Though we have selected for the sake of illustration a few only out of the nineteen monographs which the book contains, we can say, after having tested every one of the nineteen, that a remarkably high level of care is maintained through them all, and that all are pervaded by a truly scientific spirit. It remains to note some points of detail in which the execution of a plan excellent in itself is susceptible of improvement.

One of these points is the addition of a chronological table of events for the period covered by the volume. As several of the monographs do not follow a strictly chronological order, and as no dates are given in the margin, it is not always easy for the reader to fix a date or to correlate one chapter with another by noting the contemporaneity of the events recorded. The construction of such a chronological table might no doubt be attended with some difficulty, for the field covered is so wide that a good many parallel columns dealing with the different countries would be required. Still, the attempt ought to be made, for even a table less than perfect would be a help to the ordinary reader, if not so often needed by the professional student. Another omission, that of footnotes, is expressly stated to be a feature of the plan, and may doubtless be defended by strong arguments. Yet the persistent adherence to it has some disadvantages, one of which is that when some remarkable passage in an author is quoted or referred to, we do not know where in that author's works to look for the passage, which it may be nec-

essary to examine in its *ipsissima verba* or with the context. The reference to some striking dicta of Francis Bacon's on pages 62-66 is an instance in point. There is, to be sure, at the end of the volume a very full and very carefully prepared bibliography for each monograph. It is a welcome addition to the volume, and compensates for the absence of constant references to the authorities on which the text of the several chapters is based. But it does not meet the particular difficulty to which we have referred. A third improvement, and one which might easily be introduced in the subsequent volumes, would be the amplification of the index to each volume, at present rather scanty. We are promised a full index to the whole work, but for that we shall have still some years to wait. Lastly, it would be a convenience—the point is small, yet worth a mention—to have in the corner, at the top of each page, the name of the writer of the particular chapter. The book is as much one for reference as for reading straight through, and it is rather troublesome to turn back to find in what particular author's hands one is at the moment.

Taken as a whole, this volume raises high hopes of the value to English historical literature which the work will have when completed. It brings together within a convenient compass a mass of carefully sifted and lucidly presented knowledge, such as one would otherwise have to extract from a large number of treatises, some, perhaps, not easy to procure. And it secures, better than most of us had ventured to hope, a certain unity of character and purpose. It makes the reader feel the similarity of conditions and influences which were at work in the chief countries of Europe, and it makes him also feel, though perhaps less clearly and fully, the differences in the circumstances of those countries which were destined to make the emancipation and stimulation of thought by the New Learning bear such different political and religious fruits in Spain and Italy, as compared with Germany and England. We rise from the book with a livelier sense of the skill with which its illustrious designer planned it, and with a sense also of the diligence and judgment shown by him and by the three eminent scholars who have succeeded to his work.

THE PHŒNICIANS AND THE ODYSSEY.

Les Phéniciens et l'Odyssée. Par Victor Bérard. Tome I. Paris: Armand Colin. 1902. Pp. 592, with 98 maps, plans, and cuts.

The Ancient Histories of a hundred years ago are as useless for scholars as a chemical treatise of the same year to a man of science. Hundreds of thousands of inscriptions have been found, bearing contemporary evidence to events in ancient Greece and Rome, Egypt, Babylonia, and Assyria, and clear light shines on many periods and lands which were shrouded in mist during the boyhood of scholars now living. The Hittites, whom many counted fabulous, have been rehabilitated as subjects of a widely extended empire. We are no longer obliged to scrutinize and weigh the evidence for the three accounts of the capture of Babylon as given by Herodotus, Xenophon, and the author of the Book of Daniel, since we have a contemporary report in the Annals of Nabonedus. But we know little more of the Phœnicians now than was known a century ago. The nation to which all western peoples indirectly owe their alphabets seems to have made little use of the art of writing to record its life and achievements in any of its trading-posts, which extended from the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea to the Atlantic Ocean. As a trading people the Phœnicians may have cared little for literature in the modern sense, but we should expect to find at least some copies of private or public contracts, inscriptions containing details of privileges granted and conditions demanded, as evidence of their sojourn in Greece or Sicily in the early ages when they were the chief mariners of the world, and when the Phœnician "ships of Tarshish" corresponded to the British East Indiamen of half a century ago. But in fact we have no such monumental evidence of Phœnician settlements in any Greek lands, and are obliged to trust to old traditions, the indications of names, and traces of religious influence. The Greeks believed that Cadmus, the Phœnician, founded Bœotian Thebes; and many other memories of Phœnician settlements, with strange religious rites which seem to have been borrowed from the same people, were retained in various parts of Greece. The Hellenes thought of the Phœnicians as bold sailors at a time when the Greeks themselves shrank from any voyage which would take them out of sight of land. But, curiously enough, the Greek nautical terms seem to have been uninfluenced by those of the Phœnicians. This is the more curious since the English borrowed many such terms from the Dutch, and the French in turn have borrowed many from the English. We cannot, then, suppose the Greeks to have been the pupils of the Phœnicians in the art of navigation. In a rather long list of words of common life which Bérard believes the Greeks to have borrowed from the Phœnicians, is found no nautical term Influenced by similar observations, the historian Beloch goes so far as to say that "nothing proves the presence of the Phœnicians in the primitive Aegean." The book before us is intended to furnish such proof.

According to his publisher's announcement, Bérard aims to do for Homeric geography what Schliemann and Evans have done for Homeric history, and in particular to show that the Homeric accounts of places are not drawn from the imagination, even in what has been considered fairyland. He believes that the grotto of Calypso, the river of Nausicaa, the meadow of the Sirens, and the cave of Polyphemus may still be identified, and he accepts for the most part the old traditions as to the sites: Corfu is the land of the Phæacians, and Charybdis is the strait between Italy and Sicily. Like Strabo and Schliemann, he has full faith in the literal accuracy, the inerrancy, of the Homeric poems. His two main theses are, first, that a Phœnician thalassocracy in the Mediterranean either preceded or was contemporaneous with the composition of the Odyssey, about 850 B. C.; and, second, that the poet had before him the original or a translation of a Phœnician *periplus*, or itinerary, of a coasting voyage about the Mediterranean. The poet, on his theory, had not seen with his own eyes the sites of which he gives an account, but, on the other hand, he does not trust to "sailors' yarns." "The Homeric poems presuppose not only the use of writing, but also the study of written material." The poet was a native of Asia Minor, and had never been in Peloponnesus; the stories with regard to sandy Pylus were handed down in the royal family of Miletus, which claimed descent from old Nestor. To Bérard the wanderings of Odysseus appear a Phœnician (whether Sidonian or Carthaginian) *periplus*, put into Greek verse and poetic legends, with "anthropomorphizing of objects, humanizing of the forces of nature, and Hellenizing of the subject-matter." In names, routes, customs, conceptions, and theories, the Odyssey seems to our author to be not Greek. Even certain expressions (as "I have the honor to be," εὔχομαι εἶναι) seem to him Phœnician rather than Hellenic, and at least once the poet is suspected to have mistranslated an ambiguous Phœnician word. In short, Bérard accepts most heartily the doctrine that the Phœnicians were the masters of Homer. The distinguished Germanist Müllenhoff of Berlin suggested a similar theory thirty years ago, but did not advance detailed arguments in support of his position.

The Homeric material for a study of the Phœnicians is limited. They are mentioned in but six passages of the poems, twice in the Iliad, and four times in the Odyssey, and none of these passages gives detailed information. The poet tells us of Phœnicians in relations with Egypt, Crete, Libya, Elis, Lemnos, and Syrie (wherever this may be). They are characterized as sailors and traders, as skilful weavers and silversmiths, as tricky rogues who are ready to kidnap children or men and sell them into slavery. This is all that Homer has to say of them, and it seems a small basis for a work of which the first volume has 592 large pages.

Bérard was a member of the French School at Athens for three years, 1887-90, and had charge of the French excavations at Mantinea and Tegea, but he does not call himself an archæologist—rather he distrusts the conclusions of archæology. This distrust may be explained in part by the fact that archæology has little to say in favor of his theories. The references at the foot of the pages in the work before us are almost entirely to the accounts of ancient and modern travellers, and above all to the French Government's *Instructions Nautiques*. The greater part of the volume has been published in substance previously, mostly in the *Revue Archéologique;* but in the spring of 1901 the author followed in the track of Odysseus, accompanied by Mme. Bérard, who carried her photographic camera and furnished more than fifty views for this volume. The author has not been content with the study of maps and documents, but his eyes have seen land and sea from the point of view of the old mariners. He furnishes the reader, however, with many excellent maps, chiefly from the charts of the French Admiralty.

The author's main reliance for the establishment of his theses is on "topology and toponymy." Topology he would have re-

lated to topography as geology to geography. The *-logies* penetrate beneath the surface to the law and reason of things. Topology shows under what circumstances and in what relations, with what ambitions and in what degree of culture, a definite site would be chosen as a centre of trade or of political life. If the circumstances are known, topology points confidently to the site; if the site is known, topology indicates the circumstances which led to its choice. Traders who come from the East are likely to seek different harbors from those chosen by traders from the West. Thus, in Sicily, Greek commerce brought wealth to Syracuse, Carthaginian to Agrigentum, and Roman to Palermo, and Bérard claims that the earliest cities of the Greek archipelago were built with reference to Phœnicia and Egypt. A trading-post held by foreigners will have a different situation from one controlled by the people of the country. Chalcedon, opposite Byzantium, and Byzantium itself are taken as types of the two forms of harbor desired by the earlier and the later commerce. Chalcedon was fitted not to control the land but to be independent of it, and this was a characteristic of the Phœnician settlements, in contrast with those of the Greeks, who came to remain and desired to extend their control over the territory. Bérard has made a careful study of the conditions of navigation on the Mediterranean in the second millennium B. C., with constant comparison of modern experiences, and large quotations from the *Instructions Nautiques*, showing what was natural and practicable and what was impossible for the early mariners with open boats. No one before him has applied modern knowledge of the Mediterranean and Aegean seas, their harbors, their currents, and their winds, to the interpretation of ancient Greek literature. Side by side with the Homeric story are placed extracts from modern authorities which illustrate the poet's familiarity with winds and currents.

Our author's consideration of the Greek trade routes by land is interesting, too. Athens had two harbors, the Piræus or Phalerum on the Saronic Gulf, and Oropus on the Eubœan Strait. Thebes had three harbors—one on the Corinthian Gulf, Megara on the Saronic Gulf, and Chalcis at the Euripus. In Argolis, Mycenæ, strongly and magnificently built in the uttermost recess of the plain, about a day's journey from the coast, on the flank of a mountain and fortified by cliffs and ravines, is the key to the passage between the Gulfs of Nauplia and of Corinth, and its masters took tribute from the passing caravans. The neighboring fields alone could never have made Mycenæ "rich in gold." According to Bérard, a great trade route in very early times crossed Arcadia, starting at Gythium, and ending at Triphylian Pylus, a little south of the mouth of the Alpheus, with stations at Sparta, Lycosura, and Aliphera. He makes the best argument which has been offered for Triphylian Pylus as the seat of old Nestor, and identifies the site with Samikon, a little south of Olympia, where, at a height of about 900 feet, are walls which Lolling in Baedeker's Guide calls "perhaps the finest extant specimen of the ancient Greek polygonal building style."

In treating of toponymy, the author is conscious that he is on dangerous ground. He lays no stress on the Phœnician derivation of isolated names, but seeks a series of names, or still better a doublet, where the Phœnician and the Greek names exist side by side—as, Thera (said to mean *Beautiful* in Phœnician) is equivalent to *Kalliste*. A group of Phœnician names is found about Megara. Salamis, of course, is the Port of Peace; compare Melchizedek "King of *Salem*," which is King of Peace, and *Solomon*, who was a man of peace as compared with his father, and the modern *salaam*, which implies a wish for peace. Megara itself is interpreted as meaning *cavern;* Caria, its acropolis, means *city* (compare *Car*thage, 'Newtown'); its King Nisus is a *Hawk*, and Nisæa, the promontory of its harbor, is *Hawk's Point;* Minoa, the island off its harbor, is the *Island of Rest* (compare Manoah, father of Samson); Abroté, the wife of Nisus, is *Flying Thing;* their daughter Scylla is *Rock*. Cadmus, of course, is Kedem, the *Man from the East*, and Europa is the *One from the West;* but why the Greeks should have used Phœnician words for these designations the author does not tell. All these etymologies must be judged by specialists in Semitic philology; and clearly, if they stand, we must assume an important Phœnician settlement, much more than a mere trading-post, at Megara, and a well-established trade route through Bœotia under the control of the same people. Why the Phœnicians withdrew from a land where they had such a footing, our author does not consider. No Greek tradition mentions a conflict of races, an anti-Semitic war, which might have led to their expulsion.

The Homeric Syrie is identified with the modern Syra, which was the chief seaport of the Aegean Sea during a large part of the last century. This was of no importance in Hellenic times, and is hardly mentioned by Greek authors; all the ancient inscriptions found on the island are of the Roman period. Bérard tries to show that it was, however, a natural centre of trade for Phœnician corsairs, and had just such a port as they liked, with adjoining islet. The name Syrie he believes to be a mere repetition of Tyre, *Rock*, and the same as Syria east of the Mediterranean. Another instance of this root he finds in Syracuse, which he considers a Phœnician name for *Rock of the Halcyon*. Another identification is that of the island of Calypso with a Parsley Island (Isla de Perejil) at the foot of Apes Hill, just outside of the Strait of Gibraltar, though this has no springs, no trees, and no vines. The Phœnician name of this island Bérard believes to have been I-Spania, equivalent to *la Cachette, Calypso*, and he thinks it to have had such prominence in itineraries that it became attached to the neighboring region on the north, when the island itself was superseded by Tarshish, and that thence we have received our name for Spain.

The last ninety pages of the volume are devoted to an argument to prove that the city of the Phæacians was on a promontory of the west coast of the island of Corfu, just across the island from the main harbor. The Homeric land and city of the Phæacians have distinct characteristics, but such as are found in other parts of the Mediterranean. The land had high mountains, cliffs by the sea, and reefs; at a little distance from the rocks, a river flowing into the sea, with sloping pebbly banks, where women came from the city to lave their linen; a city surrounded by a high wall, on a peninsula with a harbor on either side; a sacred grove, with a place of assembly; and copious springs which irrigated the king's garden by the palace, and supplied the town with water. The promontory chosen by Bérard seems not more than 1,000 feet long or broad, and at least 250 feet high. The sides are precipitous, and the slope toward the open sea is at an angle of about forty-five degrees. The site never was surrounded by a wall, and has no spring upon it; no remains of ancient buildings have been found. The river to which Nausicaa and her maidens resorted for laundry purposes is found so far away that the author spent an hour and a half in driving from it to the promontory over a macadamized road; and the photographs show it to be no broad stream such as that up which Odysseus swam—in fact, no one could swim in it at all—and the shipwrecked hero might better have made his way upon the shore on either side of the stream. One who interprets Homer so literally as Bérard, ought also to appreciate the force of this objection to Corfu as the land of the Phæacians: from Calypso's island, which, as we have seen, he thinks to be at the Strait of Gibraltar, Odysseus sails for seventeen days and nights "with the Great Bear which men call also the Wain on his left hand," *i. e.*, due east. Then he is shipwrecked, and driven by a strong north wind for two days and nights before he reaches the land of the Phæacians. If he was north of Corfu at the time of his shipwreck, he had sailed directly past his home on Ithaca, which nothing indicates. But if, as the Homeric story would show, he was due east of Gibraltar when the storm struck him, the north wind would have carried him to Africa and not up the Adriatic. Thus we cannot accept this proof for the identification of the site. In company with several distinguished scholars, who have laid stress on the good seamanship of the two peoples, Bérard believes the Phæacians to be Phœnicians. But these scholars have failed to notice that while the Phœnicians are eminently traders, the bitterest insult which a young Phæacian noble can devise for Odysseus is the word that he "does not seem like an athlete, but like one who goes as commander of seamen or as a supercargo, to be mindful of wares and gains." Odysseus himself and the rest accept this as an insult, and the young noble is compelled to make an humble apology; but no Homeric Phœnician could have felt or shown such disdain for trade.

In his second volume, Bérard proposes to identify the cave of Polyphemus, the home of Circe, and the other places visited by Odysseus. The exact relations of these places he believes to have been perfectly distinct to the minds of the Carthaginians, who invented the dreadful stories about them in order to frighten the Greeks away from their trading-posts. They desired to retain their monopoly in the west.

The work is well printed and beautifully illustrated. The author's style is pleasant and idiomatic, and the reader is annoyed by few minor errors in interpretation. We trust a good index will accompany the second volume, for a large amount of interesting matter is introduced where an ordinary reader might not expect it.

SULLY'S ESSAY ON LAUGHTER.

An Essay on Laughter: Its Forms, its Causes, its Development, and its Value. By James Sully, M.A., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. 441 pp.

That pleasure and pain tread on each other's heels, that veiled Melancholy sits "in the very temple of Delight," is now the commonplace of every minor poet. Like so many other truths, this was detected by the fine palate of Plato, and in his 'Philebus' makes a first appearance in philosophical literature. Aristotle and Burton pursued the discussion of mirth as the complement of melancholy, and, in poetry, from Andromache's tearful smile in the Iliad to Keats and Swinburne, "Pleasure with pain for leaven" has been sung as the portion of man. Aristotle's lost essay on Comedy was written as a companion-piece to his theory of Tragedy. But for a thorough and independent treatment of laughter, the world has had to wait for the inspiration of modern psychology.

Prof. Sully, who is well known as the author of 'The Human Mind' and 'Studies of Childhood,' has now given us a serious inquiry into the laws that control laughter, and a determined attempt to define the characteristics and the limits of the objective region of the laughable. So far the psychologist. But Professor Sully is a philosopher, which is more than can be said for many modern psychologists. He goes on to test the value of laughter in human relations, and to give it a purpose in the scheme of human life. To quote his own summary (p. 392):

"In looking for the germ of laughter, we found ourselves in the wide and misty plains of biological speculation. In tracing its development, we took a dip into the pleasant vales of child-psychology and anthropology, and then tried to climb the winding paths of social evolution. Having reached in this way the heights of modern civilization, we made a special investigation into the social organization of laughter, as represented in the art of comedy, and into the gradual appearance of a new type of laughter, essentially individual and independent of the social standard, to which is given the name of humor. Throughout this voyage of discovery we have kept in view the function of the laughing spirit in the life of the individual and of the community."

Professor Sully, in reviewing previous theories, dismisses as too remote for the conceptions of the ordinary man the Hegelian notion that "the comic is a moment in the dialectic process which the æsthetic Idea has to pass through," and dwells chiefly on the theories of Kant and Schopenhauer. Two ways of envisaging the laughable stand out conspicuously in the history of the subject. The moral theory, or theory of degradation, dates from Aristotle, who said that comedy is "an imitation of characters of a lower type—not, however, in the full sense of the word bad." Hobbes amplified this theory of the ludicrous, and defined laughter as a "sudden glory" at the realization of the inferiority of others to one's self. "All the world is queer," said the Quaker, "except thee and me; and even thee is a little queer." When we laugh at this, our mirth is due to the "sudden glory" that follows on our immediate recognition of our superiority to the complacent Quaker. Bain enlarges Hobbes's principle, and improves on it by adding that, in addition to the emotion of power or glory, the spectacle of degradation brings with it the feeling of release from constraint.

The second main theory is that of incongruity. This is intellectual rather than moral, and goes back to Schopenhauer. It is an interesting point that the German theories of laughter tend to be intellectual, like their theories of ethics, while the British philosophers dwell on the moral aspects of laughter as of ethics. Schopenhauer's theory of incongruity is important, but the illustration that he selects is worthy of a German metaphysician. It is "the amusing look of the angle formed by the meeting of the tangent and the curve of the circle; which look is due to the reflection that an angle implies the meeting of two lines which, when prolonged, intersect, whereas the straight line of the tangent and the curve of the circle are able merely to graze at one point, where, strictly speaking, they are parallel." The illustration is unconvincing, but an element of incongruity must stand in a comprehensive theory of laughter. Kant's theory placed the cause of laughter in "the sudden transformation of a tense expectation into nothing." One objection to such one-sided theories is that, as Lotze said of Kant's explanation, they do not show us why we should *laugh* rather than cough or sigh at a moment, say, of dissolved expectation. Professor Sully easily shows that such hypotheses will not bear the strain put upon them. Loss of dignity and incongruity will account for many occasions of laughter, and they often coöperate. Herbert Spencer's phrase, a "descending incongruity," obviously combines them, but the realm of the ludicrous is wider than the theorists have implied.

Professor Sully's inquiry into the occasions and causes of laughter dwells at length on forms that are due to a sense stimulus, where the intellect is subordinate, *e. g.*, the laughter due to tickling. In drawing up twelve categories of the laughable, he points out that the things we laugh at have usually more than one "distinguishably amusing facet." It is not always easy to say where the fun begins or which kind of fun it is. One chapter is devoted to the origin of laughter in the inevitable cradle of the race, and discusses the supposed rudiments of mirth in animals. That the laugh followed the smile is a theory supported by the study of the modern infant, whose babble is a prelude to laughter as to speech. Professor Sully goes on to trace in some detail the development of laughter during the first three years of the life of certain babies who lived, as it were, under the microscope, who never smiled unseen, who were tickled for the purposes of statistics, whose every passing emotion was recorded with a date as a contribution to Child-Study.

The eighth chapter, on the "Laughter of Savages," appeared as an essay in the *International Monthly*, and one may note in passing that every one of Professor Sully's chapters would stand alone as a separate essay. The social uses of laughter, the influence of the mirthful spirit on social changes and the refining effects of culture on hilarity are discussed in detail. Professor Sully finds in several varieties of laughter a relief from strain; this would account for the explosive vigor which is one element in a laugh. "Perhaps the first great laugh was produced by man, or by his proximate progenitor, when relief came after fear or the strain of battle." The nervous titter of a congregation at an incident in church that seems unbefitting the solemnity of the occasion should, he thinks, be classed rather as a case of this relief from nervous tension than as a case of "degradation." Another element in laughter that has been practically ignored in German theories is the play-mood. "To be glad with the gaiety of laughter, to throw off the stiff and wearing attitude of seriousness, . . . is in truth to begin to play" (p. 145). Professor Sully therefore makes the principle of play fundamental in his theory of laughter.

The distinction between choral laughter, which is declining, and humor, which is individual laughter and probably on the increase, leads to a charming chapter on "Humour," the laugh of the mind. One remembers the regret expressed by Flaubert that, as he grew older, his sympathy for men and things became disproportionately keen and destroyed his sense of humor. Professor Sully tells us that, though sympathy is essential to humor, it must not be allowed to overbalance one's humorous appreciation. Humor, "nourished by sympathy, tends, when something of philosophic width of contemplation is reached, to combine the social and the individual mode of projection by taking up the self into the spectacle of the whole." Satire, on the other hand, projects society, turning it into derision; while comedy projects the eccentric individual or group of individuals as a laughable show. In the realm of art, comedy plays the most important rôle in stimulating the laughter of mankind. Professor Sully's analysis of comedy, to which he devotes one of his longest chapters, is about as long as Mr. Meredith's fascinating essay; if not so brilliant, it is more profound and not less humorous. It might well be reprinted separately as a contribution to literature for the sake of those whom the present work might not reach.

In his last chapter, on the "Value and Limitations of Laughter," Professor Sully does not forget the claims of the "agelast"—to use Mr. Meredith's word. Laughter is not for those who have a great mission in life and live in the shadow of a cause.

"If Rousseau had been a great laugher, we should certainly never have had his picturesque and instructive attack on civilization and all that flowed from it. Would Dante and Milton and the other builders of the vast and sombre architecture of verse have achieved their task if the laughing imp had been pulling vigorously at their coat tails? How many of our valuable social institutions would have been built up if the beginners had been keenly alive to the absurd aspects of the bunglings which are wont to characterize first attempts?" (p. 425).

Professor Sully's forecast of the future of laughter is cautious as befits a humorist. But he points out certain tendencies which bear on the question. This is not an age of mirth or optimism. We no longer talk, like our grandfathers, of the perfectibility of man. Our enthusiasm for the future is mainly devoted to the perfectibility of machinery.

"It is as though men had no time to laugh. Even at a social entertainment you will find men and women who meet your playful challenge only with a niggardly giggle, which they instantly suppress; poor

distracted souls, unable for a moment to free themselves from the chaos of social claims which haunts them."

Even the deep-chested, hearty laugh of the savage is being replaced by the "mission giggle." We know of communities that do very well without laughter of any kind. But Professor Sully hopes for the maintenance and increase of the humorous spirit; laughter saturated with reflection may survive and preserve the capacity for a happier age. Professor Sully is himself a worthy successor of that "laughing philosopher" of Greece whose epithet seems to indicate the rarity of the type in those days of truer choral laughter. His present work will appeal, as did his essay on "Pessimism," to the student of literature no less than to the psychologist and the philosopher.

Wayfarers in Italy. By Katharine Hooker. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903. Pp. 309.

A lady traveller who goes to Brescia under the impression that it is an unknown city, and still says nothing about the masterpieces of early Renaissance architecture that are its glory, nothing about the number and beauty of the altarpieces of Moretto there (though painting is what she has specially come to Italy to see), and nothing about the statue of the Winged Victory, should compensate us in some way for these remarkable omissions. She does, indeed, note the number of fountains, in which Brescia is second only to Rome among the cities of Italy. For the rest, she found the pillow of her bed unpleasantly hard and knobby, and indulges thereanent in a disquisition on bedclothes in out-of-the-way places. She followed the counsel of some wiseacre, and, instead of breakfasting comfortably at the hotel, went out to a café, where she deservedly got bad coffee and worse butter (but good rolls), which she consumed in an atmosphere of cigarette smoke. She records the liking she has for the fussy circumstance of getting rarely visited picture galleries opened for her, as well as for "browsing" alone among the treasures inside. She pays her tribute to the charm of Italian politeness as exemplified in a lady of whom she asked her way, and with whom she made a bit of conversation by telling that she was from America. She makes it quite clear that Brescia was altogether to her mind, and—that is all. No, she took a lovely drive to Paitone to see a picture by Moretto, told the coachman before getting there that she had come all the way from America to see it, and then spent so much time in missing the right chapel that at last she had only a twilight vision—glorified, it is true—of the beautiful Madonna. As an account of Brescia the chapter is to the last degree insufficient, but there is something to be said for it as a record of personal impressions and experience.

This lady belongs to a class of travellers of which America furnishes a larger contingent than any other country. We hasten to say that as a class it is a very good sort. We have often admired its union of energy in seeing all there is to be seen, with enjoyment of everything that is beautiful, or grotesque, or human; its happy philosophy over the petty miseries of travel, and its unfailing kindness to all with whom it has to do. It is never grudging in the matter of fees, though it has its notion of thrift; it may be indignant at impositions, but is never soured by them, and we do not fear the reproach of a bull when we say that it waters its path with the milk of human kindness. If sometimes sentimental, it is, on the whole, more just to apply to its members the term *genial;* they restore its ancient respectability to a word that in our day has been sadly abused. It is quite a matter of course that they, almost without exception, come from families in which good breeding and a certain culture are hereditary. If they are neither profound scholars nor connoisseurs, they at least inform themselves from good books, and they prefer good works of art to bad. The author under consideration shows a particularly nice taste in paintings, and a knowledge of contemporary Italian poetry that is far from common.

A word, however, as to the feelings for art of this and of many other writers. A lady, who did not exactly belong to the class of which we have been speaking, was the wife of the American consul in a large city which boasts one of the most magnificent galleries of pictures in the world. She confided, however, to the consul of a European Power that she did not care much for the old masters in the museum: "There was nothing in them that spoke to a mother's heart." This consul, inspired, no doubt, by motives that were not of the noblest, lost no time before repeating, with a touch of malice, to colleagues and friends, the worthy lady's opinion; and yet he must have known that of those who unfeignedly admire those same pictures, the greater part resemble the American lady in that the art of them is not what they appreciate, and that they seek in them the gratification of some sentiment that is not æsthetic. They differ from her in that they find what they seek, while she did not. In the book under examination the somewhat rare mention of pictures seems to indicate that the ruling interest in them is human, and yet they reveal refined perceptions and familiarity with what is best in art, which is as much as we have a right to ask of them. They are quite in harmony with the predominant characteristics of the book, which are those of an intelligent woman with keen and varied sympathies and of infinite kindliness.

And it is this last quality that overtops all the others: the railway porters, the waiters, the *vetturini*, the custodians who serve her (and, as a matter of course, her gondolier), the very children who follow her, all come in for such immortality as she can bestow upon them. She is continually getting interested in people in the streets, in shops, wherever she goes, in fact, and in telling of them she forgets to describe the churches, galleries, palaces, that are what she thought she came for. And every once in a while she manages to invade some interior, humble or palatial, and then a great cementing of the universal brotherhood takes place. She is always delighted with the spontaneous, sunny character of Italian politeness, and it bespeaks an answering quality in the genial traveller that she so frequently elicits and so heartily responds to its charm. If "kind hearts are more than coronets," we may assume that a record of Italo-American civilities is worth any amount of amateur description of well-known monuments, and may even be accepted in place of art criticism. It is certain that such a work does not encroach upon the province of the guide-book. When she will, however, our author can interest her readers in things as well as persons; the chapter on Avezzano and the results obtained by Prince Torlonia from the draining of Lake Fucino, by way of example, is there to prove the contrary. Her muse is homely, and in general chooses to tell about things not too bright and good for human nature's daily food; but we shall have given an erroneous idea of our opinion if we have not made it plain that we have enjoyed reading 'Wayfarers in Italy,' of which it is no disparagement to say that, of all the pleasant things in it, the pleasantest is the evidence it furnishes as to the character of the writer, one of the best and most charming examples of the class to which we have assigned her.

From blunders in statement or in the use of Italian words, and other common blemishes of a tourist's book, this one is commendably free. We may say, however, that *panetone* (always under the same name) is a specialty of most of the cities of north Italy, and not of Venice alone. We are puzzled, too, at being told that Fiesole is to the *south* of Florence, that the Anglo-American hotel in that city is "a little too far up the river," and that driving westward from Brescia the mountains are to your left. It is still more to be regretted that, in telling of the Poldi-Pezzoli museum at Milan, the things that our writer thought alone worthy of anything approaching description, are the only serious lapses from taste in that charming collection.

The volume is a fair one to look upon, well printed on good paper, and illustrated with photographs taken by one of the author's company, which never repeat the things that Alinari and Brogi and Naya and Anderson have made familiar to all the world, and are sometimes good. There is a sufficient index.

Modern Spiritualism: A History and a Criticism. By Frank Podmore. London: Methuen; New York: Scribners. 1902. 2 vols., xviii., 307; xii., 374.

Mr. Podmore is the most sceptical of psychical researchers; so sceptical, indeed, that his readers must sometimes wonder why he should have thought it worth his while to persist in his researchings into a subject which he seems to consider as mostly, if not entirely, compounded of varying proportions of fraud and delusion. At the same time, he is one of the very few of the writers on such topics who has really studied them, and possesses an extensive and first-hand acquaintance with the evidence. He is thus well equipped for a critical history of Spiritualism, and has, moreover, extended his researches into the obscurest depths of an almost inaccessible and forgotten literature. And as he selects judiciously, writes well, and has provided a good index, the resulting book is not only interesting, but likely to become the standard work on the subject. The only drawback is the bias; for Mr. Podmore seems to assume that there is something intrinsically absurd and incredible about the spiritualistic interpretation of the anomalous phenomena connected with trance, antomatism, hypnotism, and mediumship. But as Mr. Podmore makes no attempt to conceal his bias, and

not infrequently allows it to provoke him to entertainingly satirical remarks, and as, moreover, a similar bias is very widely prevalent among cultivated persons, it is not likely to be a serious obstacle to the success of his work. Mr. Podmore's danger is rather that he may seem to his readers to have been too successful in explaining everything away, and may thereby destroy the interest in his study. In this way his very ingenuity and plausibility, acting on a public which is either wildly credulous or unjustifiably indifferent, may operate as a real hindrance to the further exploration which his subject seems manifestly to require.

And so it seems not inappropriate to point out that Mr. Podmore's rationalistic explanations are by no means always completely satisfactory. In dealing, *e. g.*, with the extraordinary testimony for D. D. Home's miracles, Mr. Podmore is driven to a number of rather violent hypotheses, which culminate in the attribution to Home (ii., p. 269) of "a faculty of inducing false perceptions in his clients." And even his scepticism, which appears to be largely temperamental, is clearly distinguishable from the scepticism either of vulgar ignorance or of scientific conservatism, and has, moreover, to make a number of concessions to the facts. He admits, for instance, that the long-continued denial of the facts of hypnotism by medical orthodoxy was highly discreditable. He concedes in the main the genuineness of the various automatisms, trances, impersonations, inspirational speaking and writing, etc., even though he explains them by psychological principles which could hardly have been devised but for the interest in these phenomena. He makes a point of accepting the telepathic experiments of the Society for Psychical Research, although he doubts whether the thought-transference they seem to imply involves more than an obscure action of brain upon brain. He needs, indeed, to assume telepathy in order to explain the evidence derived from Mrs. Piper's trances, which produces (ii., p. 345) "the almost complete conviction that Mrs. Piper is possessed of some faculty beyond the normal—a faculty at the lowest of tapping the thoughts of her interviewers."

But beyond this Mr. Podmore will not go: to communications from the dead he will only say "not proven." To that, perhaps, a judicious man, viewing the present state of the evidence and the imperfections of all but the most recent records, would be inclined to agree; but there would also seem to him to be occasion enough for further inquiry in the matter, and glimpses enough of stupendous possibilities to demand from him the preservation of a perfectly open-minded suspense of judgment. This position Mr. Podmore would not, apparently, grant him; for he attributes to nature, what certainly seems true of human nature—an abhorrence of a mugwump (i., p. xviii.). But perhaps there are cases, in science as in politics, when the attitude of a mugwump is more intrinsically reasonable than that either of a partisan or of a Gallio.

Ancient and Modern Engineering and the Isthmian Canal. By William H. Burr, C.E. John Wiley & Sons.

This book, as stated in the preface or introduction, consists of six parts, each part representing a lecture delivered at the Cooper Union in New York, in the early months of 1902. The first four lectures, which cover the subjects of Ancient and Modern Engineering, have been extended into several chapters of very unequal lengths. The last two lectures, one of which describes the Nicaragua Canal and the other the Panama Canal, and which are practically condensations of the report of the Isthmian Canal Commission, of which Mr. Burr was a member, are apparently printed about as they were delivered. Ancient Engineering is covered by the first part, consisting of five chapters, which contain descriptions of hydraulic and structural works from the early Egyptian period to the Roman. Modern Engineering is divided into three parts, Bridges, Waterworks, and Railroads, a division which the author can hardly have intended to be exhaustive, and which excludes the principal branches of mechanical and electrical engineering, as well as the development of water powers, one of the most important branches of civil engineering. It would, of course, be impossible to cover all these subjects in six lectures in any satisfactory way, but it might have been wiser to adopt a title limited to the subjects treated.

In general, the book is of a popular character, easily understood by the average reader. The second part, however, is an exception, as six of its eight chapters are largely mathematical. The book is well illustrated, and is a very fair presentation of the specific subjects which it covers. Two or three errors may be pointed out. In the early portion granite is spoken of as the prominent material in the Egyptian pyramids, which are almost entirely limestone, granite being used only in a few trimmings. Another unfortunate error appears on page 326, where the gauge of 4 feet 8½ inches on the New York Central Railroad and 4 feet 9 inches on the Pennsylvania Railroad is shown between centres of rails instead of the clear distance between heads—an error so obvious that it would not trouble an engineer, but might impart erroneous ideas to a layman. In the historical section devoted to bridges, one is tempted to ask why, in the list of wooden trusses now superseded, the MacCallum truss, which was for a time one of the most prominent, is omitted.

A book of this kind, which is largely a compilation, loses much of its value from lack of an index. The author's belief that the table of contents supplies the information ordinarily given by a comprehensive index, is one with which persons accustomed to use an index are very loath to agree.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. K., and Trent, W. P. A History of the United States. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.50.
Armsby, H. P. The Principles of Animal Nutrition. John Wiley & Sons. $4.
Bacon, E. M. Literary Pilgrimages in New England. Silver, Burdett & Co. $2.
Bigelow, John. The Mystery of Sleep. New ed. Harpers.
Carter, C. F. Some By-ways of California. The Grafton Press.
Derby, George. Derby Anniversary Calendar. James T. White & Co. 50 cents.
Doyle, A. C. The Great Boer War. Complete edition. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Dumolard, Henry. Le Japon Politique, Economique, et Social. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Ely, Helena R. A Woman's Hardy Garden. Macmillan. $1.75.
Foster, J. J. The Stuarts. 2 vols. London: Dickinson's; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Goodloe, Carter. Calvert of Strathore. Scribners. $1.50.
Hein, Gustav, and Becker, Michel. Commercial German. 2 parts. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Huntington, W. R. Theology's Eminent Domain, and Other Papers. Thomas Whittaker. 25c.
Ingham, J. H. Pompeii of the West, and Other Poems. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Isham, F. S. Under the Rose. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company.
Kleemeier, Joh. Handbuch der Bibliographie. Leipzig: A. Hartlebens Verlag; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Lane-Poole, Stanley. Mediæval India under Mahommedan Rule, 712 to 1764. (The Story of the Nations.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Lawson, A. G. A Sure Method with Christian Science. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Letters and Literary Remains of Edward Fitzgerald. Vols. i., ii., iii. Macmillan.
McMurray, C. A. The Elements of General Method, Based on the Principles of Herbart. Rev. ed. Macmillan. 90 cents.
McNeill, Angus. The Egregious English. London: Grant Richards; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Outing. Vol. xl. The Outing Pub. Co.
Parker, P. L. The Heart of John Wesley's Journal. Fleming H. Revell & Co. $1.50.
Patterson, Annie W. The Story of Oratorio. (Music-Story Series.) London: The Walter Scott Publishing Company; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Shedd, P. W. The Oceanides. The Grafton Press.
Taylor, J. J. Christian Science Cult. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Terenti Afri Comœdiæ. Edited by R. T. Tyrrell. (Oxford Texts). Henry Frowde.
Thackeray, W. M. The Paris Sketch Book. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
The Georgian Period: Being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work. Part XII. American Architect and Building News Co.
The Journal of Arthur Stirling. D. Appleton & Co.
The Life Within. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
The Quarterly of the Texas State Historical Association. Vol. V. Austin (Tex.): Published by the Association.
Thurston, Katherine C. The Circle. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Wells, Charlotte E. Crœsus and Ione. Riggs Printing and Pub. Co.
Whitman, Sidney. Personal Reminiscences of Prince Bismarck. D. Appleton & Co. $1.60.
Williams, Churchill. The Captain. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Williamson, J. C. Frederic, Lord Leighton. (Bell Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Woodburn, J. A. The American Republic and its Government. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Wright, Arnold, and Smith, Philip. Parliament Past and Present. 2 vols. London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $8.

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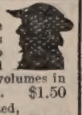

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 26, 1903.

The Week.

The Supreme Court's decision in the lottery cases was handed down on Monday—regrettably, by a closely divided court—and marks a new affirmation and exaltation of the power of Congress over commerce of all kinds between the States. Those who have asked whether the power of Congress in that particular has been exhausted, are now answered definitely that it is not. Under this decision, it extends absolutely to all forms of commerce to which the people, acting through Congress, will that it be extended. That is the gist of the prevailing opinion. It goes frankly to the length of asserting that the power to "regulate" interstate commerce is the power to prohibit it altogether. "May not Congress," asked Judge Harlan, in the majority opinion, "for the protection of the people of all of the States, and under the power to regulate interstate commerce, devise such means within the scope of the Constitution and not prohibited by it as will drive the traffic out of commerce between the States?" His answer was decidedly in the affirmative; and the finding of the Court was that,

"under its power to regulate commerce among the several States, Congress—subject to the limitations imposed by the Constitution upon the exercise of the powers granted—has plenary authority over such commerce, and may prohibit the carriage of such tickets from State to State; and that legislation to that end and of that character is not inconsistent with any limitation or restriction imposed upon the exercise of the powers granted to Congress."

But if individuals may be penalized for sending lottery tickets across State lines, and express companies punished for carrying them, corporations may be penalized for engaging in any other form of interstate commerce which Congress may deem to be pernicious, and railways may be fined and otherwise punished for acting as their carriers. In other words, we have in this decision of the Supreme Court an explicit answer to the question which Attorney-General Knox asked in his speech about Trusts in Pittsburgh on the 14th of last October. This was whether Congress might not so extend the Interstate Commerce law as to destroy monopolies by prohibiting the distribution of their products. Mr. Knox openly put the query whether, in such a case, the Supreme Court would not hold that the power to regulate implied the power to prohibit. The decision in the lottery cases gives him his answer. If Congress chooses to pass an act excluding any class of goods from interstate commerce, the Supreme Court will not declare it unconstitutional.

Judge Grosscup's decision in the so-called Beef Trust case amounts to a bare statement that the acts of the combination of butchers and packers, the defendants in the case, fall within the terms and prohibitions of the Sherman anti-Trust act. This is the act of July 2, 1890, "to protect trade and commerce against unlawful restraints and monopolies," the penalty for violating which is a fine not exceeding $5,000, or imprisonment not exceeding one year, or both, in the discretion of the court. The acts of which the defendants have been guilty, as the court finds, consist in an agreement to refrain from bidding against each other in the purchase of cattle; in bidding up the price artificially to induce large shipments, and then ceasing from bids in order to depress the price; in agreeing upon the prices and quantities of meats to be shipped, and generally in suppressing competition in the meat trade. These acts are certainly prohibited by the Sherman law in all cases where they relate to commerce between the States. Moreover, the Sherman act itself has been passed upon by the Supreme Court, and held to be Constitutional in terms broad enough to embrace the questions at issue before Judge Grosscup. Although grounds for an appeal may be found, there is little doubt that the present decision will stand, and that the defendants will be liable to fine and imprisonment if they repeat the acts which are now enjoined by the court.

To infer that an act which is prohibited by law and enjoined by the courts will not be performed, would be contrary to experience. In this case, there were large profits to be obtained by a combination of the butchers and packers to put an end to competition in the buying of cattle and in the selling of meats. The men in the combination do not consider it wrong to make such an agreement. They see dozens of other combinations operating on the same principle, some of which are more extensive than their own. They are prompted by the prospect of gain to find ways to circumvent the law, and they are not restrained therefrom by any moral consideration. The Interstate Commerce act forbids the making of secret rates and the giving of rebates by railway companies, yet the law has been systematically and continuously violated from the day of its enactment till a very recent date, and is probably violated in some parts of the country now. One of the complaints against the beef men was that they were receiving secret rebates from railways. Are we warranted, then, in supposing that the beef combination will be broken up, or that the acts complained of will cease, merely because a Federal judge has issued an injunction against them? It would be contrary to all that we know of similar combines to suppose so. What form the beef combination will next take we cannot foresee, but it may be a combination like the Sugar Trust or the Steel Trust. The amount of money at stake is too large to be surrendered at the end of the first engagement.

If the Senate of the United States likes being taken publicly by the throat, as it is now in the sight of the whole country by Quay and Morgan, we do not see that any one need waste pity on the way it is being brought into contempt. It is an old story for Quay. At least twice before he has plucked the venerable Senate by the beard and forced it to surrender. Once it was in order to prevent some constituents of his from having to take a contract for ship-armor at a lower rate than they desired. The other occasion when he played highwayman and compelled the Senate to throw up its hands was at the time of the passage of the tariff bill of 1894. With the rules wide open for such unscrupulous abuse, what is to be expected when the unscrupulous man comes along to take advantage of them? Some way out of this particular crisis may be found. Senators hate an extra session as schoolboys hate being kept after hours; and they will move heaven and earth to avoid it. But the opportunity to strangle public business in the interest of private scheming will remain as long as the Senate refuses to adopt rational rules of procedure. By whatever door you go in, there you always come out. In the public interest, as well as for the sake of its own self-respect, the Senate should conform to the usage of deliberative bodies in all civilized countries, and not remain at the mercy of any obdurate or piratical member, or of a tireless *vox et præterea nihil.*

The ice gorge in the Senate becomes tighter and more perplexing every day. Included in the mass are three financial measures of importance—the Aldrich bill for the deposit of public money in banks, the Philippine currency bill, and the Fowler bill. The first is the one of most importance at this juncture, and the most likely to pass without delay if reached. It is a measure to enable this Government to do what all other governments do—to put the unused portion of its daily collections in places where it will be at the service of the business community. If all the railroads in the country should adopt the practice of putting their gross receipts in a cavern, paying out only the amounts needed for

operating expenses and lending their surplus only on United States bonds as collateral security, the situation would be substantially what we now have, and everybody would pronounce it idiotic. Now that a bill for a more rational system has been reported by competent authority, people are wondering why we have not amended it long ago, and why we ever endured the cavern system at all. The answer to the latter question is that there was a quarrel in Washington three-quarters of a century ago which resulted in the Sub-Treasury system—a political quarrel, not a financial one—and that although every vestige of the old quarrel has disappeared, the Sub-Treasury system has never been changed. This fact attests our conservatism rather than our common sense. The Aldrich bill will pass if the ice gorge in the Senate breaks, or if it can be extricated from the mass, since nobody is really opposed to it. The Philippine currency bill is not in so good a position. Here the two houses are in conflict with each other, and, in addition to the original causes of variance, a new one has been added in the form of a plan for a new international silver conference, which the Senate has added as an amendment, but which the House Committee has rejected. If the Philippine bill fails completely, its loss will be due to this amendment.

There is point in Senator Burton's sarcasm about the need of having a "committee on publication" in connection with the secret sessions of the Senate. The profound secrets of the Senate's executive sessions leak out as promptly and regularly as those of a gossiping village tea-table. They are as constantly telegraphed, and with as much accuracy, as the ordinary proceedings of open sessions. Senators are, of course, on their honor not to "divulge," but they really blab everything like so many school girls. Moreover, there is a continual controversy over what is executive business of the Senate and what is not. The habit is growing upon the more irresponsible members of blurting out their views on all subjects, supposedly covered with a veil of secrecy or not. When they themselves thus treat the secrecy of the Senate as an absurd survival, why should the public preserve any respect for it? The truth is that it is necessarily outgrown with the growth of the Senate. The form may be maintained, but the substance is gone. You might as well expect a town-meeting to be really secret as the Senate.

Whatever else may be said of President Roosevelt's negro appointments, it is obviously beside the mark to say of them that they are made in order to win votes in the next Republican Convention. We had supposed it to be so plain that votes would be lost, rather than won, that we were surprised to find a speaker at the Maryland Society dinner on Friday night accusing the President of delegate-hunting in the South. He must be wholly unaware of the revived Hanna propaganda and its rationale. That the Ohio Senator will have nearly all the Southern delegations at his disposal is the understood thing in Washington. He never affronted Southern sentiment, and angered the Republican machine in the South, by naming educated and independent negroes for office. Mr. Hanna gave them his political riff-raff, black and white, and the South took that as a matter of course. What has inflamed race prejudice anew is not negro appointments *per se*, but high-class negro appointments. When Mr. Roosevelt singles out a few colored men who have made themselves intellectual and moral leaders, and bids negroes take them as models, the spirit of caste is mightily stirred up. The brutish, unaspiring black man it does not mind, but the recognition of the negro who has risen fills it with unreasoning fear.

A circular requesting Southern negroes to contribute to a fund to promote Senator Hanna's bill for pensioning ex-slaves bears as its only evidence of good faith its rhetoric, which is unmistakably African, and not that of the Republican headquarters. This appeal is issued from "the Supreme Headquarters of the Ex-Slave Mutual Relief Association," etc. It is signed, among others, by a "supreme national deputy promoter." It asserts that Mark Hanna is "a man of might and power," and (the single lapse into the common political style) that "victory is perched on our banner." All that is needed to make this perch a permanent roost is the slight contribution by all persons of color of a dollar, to be used "in the agitation of our causes." Agreeing with the circular that Senator Hanna is a man of "might and power," we assume that he will use every effort to expose and expel this fraud which is perched on his pension bill.

Mr. James Breck Perkins, Representative in Congress from the Monroe district of this State, and a supporter of tariff reform, is not without honor in his own city and party. He is a Republican of the stalwart kind, but he does not advocate duties on articles which need no protection. He does not make the tariff a fetish. He has introduced in Congress a bill to place lumber, coal, beef, and hides on the free list, and in doing so he made an appropriate speech which has received the cordial endorsement of the Eighteenth Ward Republican Club of Rochester, who have given him a vote of thanks and an invitation to a public reception at some date to be fixed by himself, soon after the expiration of his present term of office. Mr. Perkins is the best type of the scholar in politics. He did not find it necesary to lay aside any part of his manhood when he accepted a renomination, or any part of his convictions after he was elected. It is encouraging to perceive that his constituents stand by him. Mr. Perkins will be a member of the next Congress also.

Gen Grosvenor's latest attempt to serve the Shipping Trust has brought him and it only fresh disappointment. His own Committee would have none of him, or of his unblushing scheme to help the Shipping Trust pay for the English ships which it bought at three times their value. Subsidies have always a suspicious air, but when it comes to voting doles to a gigantic combination of which foreign governments stand in awe, we touch the very sublimity of shameless greed. That the dose was too much for some of Grosvenor's Republican associates is matter of congratulation. They have killed the bill, not only for this session, but, as we believe, for all time. The Shipping Trust will have to sail on its own bottom.

The preponderance of evidence leads us to believe that the trade of the country has actually outrun its means of transportation, and that the shortage is not merely of cars and locomotives, but of trackage as well. New calls are constantly made upon the money market for means to enlarge the facilities of existing railways. The most significant of these is the recent announcement by the Pennsylvania Railway Company of its purpose to double its capital. The freight blockade on this railway has been so severe and protracted that the company has been obliged to discontinue its fastest train to Chicago. Surely nothing but dire necessity could have dictated that curtailment of its passenger traffic. With the approach of spring the abnormal demand for coal will cease, and we shall then be better able to judge whether the freight blockade is temporary or permanent. If it turns out to be persistent, it will supply the advocates of canal enlargement in this State with an argument far more weighty than any which they have yet employed. Heretofore they have urged the necessity of an enlarged waterway in order to regulate the rates. If it shall appear that the facilities of existing railways are not sufficient for the prompt movement of the freight offered to them—in short, that the demand for transportation exceeds the supply—then the public demand for an enlarged canal will be more imperative than before. We incline to the opinion given by Professor Sumner of Yale that the present prosperity of the country, of which the freight blockade is the most striking symptom, is likely to go on unchecked

for some time to come because it results from the development of natural resources.

In several States besides Vermont, local-option sentiment is making headway. A thousand citizens of New Hampshire, many of them former advocates of prohibition, appeared before the House Committee on Liquor Laws at Concord a fortnight ago to urge the repeal of prohibitory laws. In Tennessee, another State where the liquor question has been a very live issue, the situation is somewhat peculiar. A general local-option law, which had passed the House, was rejected by the Senate, but both houses concurred in a law which is, in effect, an extension of the local-option principle. Under its provisions any town of more than 2,000 population can become "dry" if it gives up its charter and reincorporates. A number of cities, including Gallatin, Union City, and Trenton, have at once taken steps to avail themselves of this privilege. Still farther South, in Mississippi, Bishop Galloway's declaration for local control of the liquor traffic has caused wide discussion, for the Bishop in former years was the head and front of the prohibition cause in the State. "There are those who assert that the distinguished churchman has sounded the death-knell of statutory prohibition in Mississippi," says the Jackson *Clarion-Ledger*. "There are many others who hope and trust that it is true."

Close upon the sensational debt-collecting expedition of England and Germany, follows an award of $700,000 to American claimants, made by the highest Venezuelan court. The decision was highly honorable to the judges, for the case was that of a concession granted by a previous government and subsequently revoked in part. A verdict for the claimant, under these circumstances, seems to show that foreigners may count upon receiving justice in Venezuela. The English and German Governments, which have acted upon the contrary theory, would doubtless hold that recent events have expedited the course of Venezuelan justice. But diplomacy is bound to consider not motives, but facts; and the present fact bears out the reply of the Venezuelan Foreign Minister to the British ultimatum of December 9. Dwelling upon the financial difficulties arising from the state of civil war, the representative of Venezuela said:

> "When peace is declared, which will be soon, there will be no need to remind the Government of the republic to fulfil its financial engagements, because it is well aware of its duty in this respect, without any necessity for pressure or coercion which are contrary, as your Excellency will understand, to the laws of mutual respect and healthy cordiality."

"Smooth words," a cynical observer might object; but which is the inferior nation?

There is a delightful and mathematical simplicity in President Castro's method of meeting his payments under the protocol. His creditors are to take 30 per cent. of the customs receipts. *Caramba!* he raises all the duties 30 per cent., claps on an export duty, and stands pat—all this by decree. Certainly President Castro needs the aid of Mr. Carnegie or any other Teutonic financier as little as he craves the praise of the German poets. Tariffs, however, refuse to be governed by axioms, and it is perfectly possible that he will find that 30 per cent. of his new whole is less than 30 per cent. of his old part. But pay he must somehow, and doubtless will cheerfully, for he has made a stir out of all proportion to his own importance or that of the nation upon which he has imposed his rule.

In the British Parliament on Friday it was brought to Mr. Balfour's attention that thirty-three of his Cabinet Ministers held sixty-eight company directorships. He brushed aside the insinuation with rather more than his usual jauntiness. "Why not?" he said. "I have absolute confidence in my colleagues' devotion to the public service. Only on the basis of absolute confidence in Ministers can the business of the country proceed." Mr. Balfour cannot have meant that a Minister should retain any business position which might tend to influence his official action. He would undoubtedly find an impropriety in the appointment, for example, of Mr. John D. Rockefeller to be Secretary of our new Department of Commerce, or of Mr. C. H. Cramp to be Secretary of the Navy, while he would probably defend Secretary Root's five directorships in various trust companies, etc., on the ground, first, that the companies with which he is connected have no interest in the administration of the War Department, and, second, that there was no question of Mr. Root's complete devotion to the public service. One might accept this view in the individual instance and still dissent vigorously from the argument that it is proper for any Cabinet Minister to retain an active connection with any business that is likely to be the recipient of special favors from Government. Mr. Balfour's demand for plenary confidence does not meet the case. One may freely admit, say, that the American Surety Company, in which Mr. Root is a director, might some day serve the Government as J. P. Morgan & Co. did in connection with the public loan of 1898, and yet no suspicion of any sort attach to Mr. Root, without admitting that a Minister ought to be put in such a position. And even Mr. Balfour would hardly contend that such an affair as the Kynochs scandal of last March (in which it appeared that Mr. Chamberlain's enterprising kinsmen had traded in his prestige as well as in lyddite at an extortionate price) is wholly consistent with any theory of confidence in the Ministerial character.

No Cabinet Minister will go far wrong who follows the example set by Bismarck. The Machiavellian Chancellor, Mr. Sidney Whitman writes in his recent 'Personal Reminiscences,' once found himself during critical negotiations with Russia a large holder of Russian bonds. These he promptly sold, although a firm believer in their value, at a considerable loss. His explanation of the act was the simplest: "I did not think it consonant with the etiquette of my position as German Chancellor to be personally interested in Russian stocks at such a critical juncture." *A fortiori*, he would hardly have connected himself with the management of a public service corporation at any juncture.

In his characteristic way of taking all knowledge for his province, the Emperor William has been enlightening his anxious subjects in the matter of Christian theology. For a man of whom it might be said that knowledge is his forte and omniscience his foible, it must be said that his deliverance does not seem very impressive at this distance. It reminds one too vividly of Pascal's pleasantry, "Je suis devenu grand théologien en peu de temps, et vous en allez voir des marques." The Kaiser merely echoes the ordinary utterance of the higher critics of the Old Testament. They assert, as stoutly if not as dogmatically as he, that modern investigation does not touch the essentials of religious faith. Very likely not, in their minds or in his; but it cuts at the root of popular theology, beyond any question, and that is what the row is all about.

Many times before the present the Porte has accepted European demands for reform, and reform has gone no further than acceptance. Accordingly, the rumored acquiescence in the Austro-Russian stipulations has changed the situation only to this extent, that the Sultan has shown that he does not desire war. The programme of reform—the appointment of an "inspector" over the Macedonian and Albanian provinces, the re-officering of the local troops with European nominees, and the recruiting of the soldiery from the Christian as well as the Muslim population—would do much to relieve the situation, it it were honestly put into effect. But who believes that the Sultan will actually place the troops on his northern frontier under Christian officers, or dilute his Turkish forces with Grecian and Bulgarian recruits?

REPUBLICAN CONSISTENCY.

Thackeray once took off his hat in the Reform Club, and bowed low to John Bright, who was passing. When asked why he did it, he said that he wished to express his reverence for "the most consistent statesman whom I know." Could he, or any other independent moralist, salute the Republican party today for a like reason? In the fundamental policy which gave it birth, and which it still professes to advocate—equal rights for all, white or black—has it to-day that clear and consistent attitude which alone can nerve its arm and make its moral port impressive?

We are moved to ask these questions in view of current discussions of the negro question in this country. In one way and another it has come rapidly to the front in the past few weeks. At public meetings of various kinds, in many pulpits on Washington's Birthday, the issue of the negro's political rights has been made the theme of debate. We shall certainly hear much more of it. Politically, the subject of negro disfranchisement in the South is bound to have great prominence in the next Congress. In many Republican quarters we hear again the old clear note of human liberty. The President's attitude, with that of the Senate, in the case of the few select negroes whom he has named for Federal office, has aroused thought and provoked an agitation which bids fair to go to the root of things. It almost seems as if the old moral fervor of the Republican party, in all that relates to human rights and equal opportunity, might be rekindled.

Just as the flame begins to leap up, however, a wet blanket is cast upon it. It is thrown by the Southern challenge of Republican sincerity. At the very moment when Northern speakers and preachers, taking courage from the President's bold stand for fair play for the negro, are beginning to reassert the old doctrine that all men are equal in the sight of God, and should be made equal before human law, an overwhelming retort comes from the South. It was put into words at the dinner of the New York Southern Society on Saturday night. One of the speakers, Mr. Braxton of Virginia, denied that the white men of the North really believe in the Fifteenth Amendment. The moment, he said, it was proposed to apply that doctrine of the political and legal rights of an inferior race—to apply it logically and all around—the "loudest advocates of it in the North stood aghast and retreated." They shrank from enforcing it, the speaker said, in "our new insular possessions." There they frankly accepted what the majority of white men in the South accept—namely, the right of a superior race to do as it will with an inferior race. With what face, then, can the Republican party reproach the South, or go to work to penalize it in the matter of representation in Congress, for doing just what a Republican Administration has been doing as a matter of course in another part of American territory?

There is more involved than mere political consistency. That may be explained away, or ignored, or got over. But human rights cannot vary, under the same flag and the same Constitution, with degrees of either latitude or longitude. If we are going to breathe again the aspirations of a Gov. Andrew, or a Sumner, or a Lincoln in behalf of the black man, we cannot omit to do it for the brown man. If we mean to insist that the negro be allowed to rise, we cannot put fetters upon the Filipino who has risen. Unless our skirts are clear in Manila, we cannot assume moral indignation towards Charleston. This is a truth which the Republican leaders cannot for a moment afford to forget. They cannot enter upon a struggle for equal rights at home, and the suffrage and an opportunity for the poorest negro, without being ready to concede in the Philippines what they demand in the South. There are subtle affinities and deep-lying unities in all this great matter which we should hope have not escaped the attention of President Roosevelt. Where has he had his warmest support in upholding the cause of the negro, as a man for a' that? Precisely from those men and newspapers that have steadily opposed the new policy of conquest and enslavement in the Orient. It is the Imperialist Republicans, the exploiters and dominators, who ask impatiently why Mr. Roosevelt wanted to go and make such a row about a few negroes in office. They would be quite content, and consistently enough, to have the inferior race in the South robbed of its political rights as coolly as the Filipinos have been, and to say that anybody who objects is a marplot, and a fomenter of "trouble between the races."

What do serious men mean when they speak of superior and inferior races? They surely cannot mean the accident of color. A colored man himself, Mr. Booker Washington, gave on his namesake's birthday a definition that puts all such unreal distinctions to shame. The superior race, he said, is that which has "learned to exhibit the greatest patience, the greatest self-control, the greatest forbearance, the greatest interest in the poor and unfortunate, and has been able to live in a high and pure atmosphere and dwell above hatred and acts of cruelty." That must be always the measure, not the mere chance superiority of position or power. Those who now boast themselves of belonging to a race which is superior *per se*, would do well to look to the pit whence they were digged. They should re-read what Tacitus said of their ancestors in the swamps of Germany, and recall the truthful words of Pitt: "We Britons were once as obscure among the nations of the earth, as savage in our manners, as debased in our morals, as degraded in our understandings, as those unhappy Africans are at present." Such considerations show what the argument of race evolution amounts to. Superiority is nothing but superior achievement, and achievement depends upon opportunity and liberty. They, however, mean the same thing in the Philippines that they do in the Southern States, and cannot be secured to the negro if they are denied to the Tagal.

"UNANIMOUS CONSENT" IN THE SENATE.

In the course of the sharp interchange of epithets in the House last week, when the conference report on the Army Bill was under debate, Congressman and Speaker-to-be Cannon made a remark about the Senate's methods of transacting business. The Senate, he said, "passes all bills by unanimous consent; and gentlemen know what that means." At the very moment, Senators were themselves struggling, at the other end of the Capitol, with the question of their own parliamentary rules. Ought they to adopt the closure, or ought they not? Should their presiding officer be clothed with the powers which are inherent in the office of every other presiding officer known to man—the power to make debaters discuss the question before the house and speak to the point—or should the present system be continued, and the public business be put at the mercy of every leather-lunged Senator who takes and holds the floor for a week or a month, as he pleases?

The existing plight of the Senate would certainly seem to call for some heroic remedy. Old traditions have received blow after blow. The snug little privy council has grown to a body of ninety members, and some of them delight to trample upon the ancient amenities. The "courtesy of the Senate"—what a sarcasm lurks in the phrase, with Quay and Morgan just now posing as chief pinks of politeness! The Pennsylvania Senator is as courteous as any gentleman burglar that ever flashed a dark-lantern in the face of his victim, but he is also as audacious and relentless. He keeps his grip upon the throat of Senate business, in defiance of the leaders of his party and of the weightiest judgment of the Senate. Apparently nothing can shake him loose. And Senator Morgan blithely sets out to deliver large sections of the history of the world, under the guise of a speech against the Panama Canal Treaty, with the frankly avowed object of talking to death a measure which an overwhelm-

ing majority of his colleagues are eager to vote for at once.

One would say that the situation must seem intolerable to the men who suffer from it. But no—they like it! Their discussion of the question of a change in the rules made it clear that no change can yet be made. Unlimited debate would surely ensue upon any proposal to limit debate. Much was gravely said about the sacred duty of preserving in this wicked world one "forum of open debate." If it were really debate, we might say amen. But not even the courtesy of the Senate can call that debate which is plainly obstruction, or pretend that the country is any more interested than the empty seats in the Senate chamber are in the prosing of a Depew inventing history as he goes along, or in the continual dropping of a Morgan through nine times the space that mortal men call day. An English Chancellor, once, observing a tedious Lord yawning in the midst of his own speech, remarked in an aside, "Really, the fellow begins to show some taste. But he ought to leave that to us." Certain it is that the Senate and the public have long yawned portentously at the time-destroying and patience-exhausting methods tolerated by the Senate rules. Why, then, do the powerful leaders of the Senate cling to them so tenaciously?

The real reason is that they know that their control of the public business, and so the consolidation of their own power, depends upon a continuance of the present system. Senator Lodge came pretty near confessing the truth when he said that, complain as you will, the fact remains that the majority of the Senate always has its way—or, rather, he added, "a majority of the majority." He put this in to forestall the retort of Senator Quay, who has an apparent majority of the Senate at his back, but not a majority of the majority party. Tested by the history of bills in the Senate, Lodge's statement is quite wide of the fact. Many laws have been passed, or have failed to pass, in spite of the wish of the majority of the dominant party—the repeal of the silver-purchase act, in 1893, for example. But the Massachusetts Senator was, after all, close upon a revelation of the truth. His words pointed to the rule of an oligarchy, and precisely such a rule it is to which the Senate is now subject. In the hands of a half-dozen Senators, more or less, lies the shaping of the great measures of legislation, the decision which shall pass and which shall die, with a command over even the minor bills which very few on the outside suspect.

Now, what is it that gives to this handful of men such enormous power? Is it their superior judgment, their ability in debate, their weight of moral character? The answer is clearly in the negative when we say that Senator Aldrich is the most powerful of these all-powerful leaders. What they grow great upon is seniority in service and the consequent favored committee positions; and the very chaos of Senate procedure they rely upon to give them their great advantage of control. This is what Mr. Cannon meant when he said that business in the Senate was transacted by unanimous consent. Everybody has first to be "squared." When Senator Aldrich politely rises to express the hope that there will be no objection to his bill to rearrange the finances, or what not, "gentlemen know," as Congressman Cannon said, what lies in the background. There lies a perfected system of *do ut des*. The "steering committee" has bought off all objectors. It has flung them this public-building bill or that private-pension claim. In that way the leaders arrange the affair and complete their control. Hence we see why they wish no efficient rules of debate. The greater the confusion, the more prolonged the delay, the more extreme the crush of business, the more imminent the failure of bills necessary to carry on the Government, the finer their opportunity. They ride the whirlwind and direct the storm—all in the secrecy of their committee rooms—and do it by apportioning to each Senator his meat in due season, not forgetting a generous share for themselves, since they, having to work harder than their fellows, naturally have more voracious appetites. That is the real meaning of "unanimous consent" in the Senate. Unlimited debate places unlimited power in the hands of an oligarchy. That is the ultimate fact which must be taken into account in all discussions of the Senate's absurd rules.

M. QUAY, REFORMER.

At last reform has triumphed in Pennsylvania. The delay has been long and disheartening. We confess that there have been times during the last ten years when we seriously wondered whether the spirit of independence could ever be awakened in that State. Political crimes which would have aroused the people of almost any other commonwealth to frenzied activities, have brought forth but languid protests in Pennsylvania. When, a couple of years ago, the Common Council of Philadelphia, acting under temporary authority granted for the purpose by the Legislature, voted away, for nothing, franchises for which a single citizen offered to pay two million and a half of dollars, we did think that some semblance of public spirit might be awakened. A number of Philadelphia newspapers spoke out quite boldly, after that grab, and a Citizens' League began to organize a movement which was at least hopeful. But it came to nothing. Too many men of light and leading held stock in the ring speculations. The usual machine victories were recorded. The reform forces disintegrated. Men shook their heads and said it was impossible to defeat the Republican gang. There was no leadership, they said.

But all this is changed now. Reform in Pennsylvania has a leader. He is experienced, he is resourceful, he knows a "useful" man when he sees one, he is not unknown to fame, and his name is Quay. He has been in the reform business now more than a year. It began with the Governorship. A former Quay henchman aspired to this high office, and brought as his credentials a long list of services duly rendered. But Quay would not hear of it. Some said that he feared the growing power of the Harrisburg ring, but we now know that Quay had determined that only good men should hold high office. The former henchman became defiant, but this only intensified Quay's devotion to his new ideals. Judge Pennypacker was nominated for Governor, and all the anti-Quay Republicans rushed to his support. It was a famous victory. During the campaign Mr. Pennypacker announced his opinion that Quay was a greater man than Webster or Clay, and in his inaugural address he administered a stern rebuke to those who heedlessly criticise great men, Senators and the like. Thus was Quay early rewarded for donning the garments of virtue.

And, finding them becoming, he continues to wear them. There was talk of a Citizens' candidate for Mayor in Philadelphia this winter. Mayor Ashbridge's administration had exhausted the patience even of those Philadelphia patriots who annually, by electing thugs to office, "uphold the hands" of McKinley or Roosevelt, or whoever it happens to be. Durham, the Quay leader in Philadelphia, might not have minded such a movement, for he is resourceful in the lower wards, but he did not know his Quay. When it was announced that District Attorney Weaver would be nominated for Mayor, it was seen that all need of a Citizens' movement was thus avoided. The Municipal League indorsed him. He was elected on Tuesday week by the splendid plurality of 136,000, and it is estimated that in many wards far more votes were cast for him than there are voters.

So also in Pittsburgh. Quay, the Boss, had long been troubled by political conditions in that city. In fact, he had been quite unable to prevent the success there of Republican leaders hostile to himself. But Quay, the Reformer, has no such difficulty. Mr. Hays, the Citizens' candidate, was triumphantly elected Mayor there last week. Nothing disturbs the complete satisfaction which all good Americans must feel in this result, except some proofs, inconveniently made public, that several of the local news-

papers were bribed by Quay's friends to support Hays.

One of the best things about a reformer like Quay is that he is industrious and practical. We all know the stuff the average reformer is made of. His head is in the clouds, and he does not attend to details. He gets a bill introduced in the Legislature, and forgets to appear in favor of it before the committee at the hearing. He has absurd scruples against adopting time-honored methods. Quay is hampered by none of these defects. The returns of February 17 show no weakening in the Philadelphia wards which increased their Republican vote from less than 2,000 in 1900 to more than 5,000 in 1902. The increases since 1902 have perhaps not been quite in proportion, but the standard has been maintained. In no case has the vote been permitted to sink back into any relation whatever to the population. Everything seems to have been thought of and attended to. In short, Quay has demonstrated that he is efficient. This is the highest praise for a reformer. Of course, under present circumstances, Pennsylvania's good citizens will consent to give up one plan which formerly interested them: they used to talk of a personal registration law as a means of fighting Quay. Now that Quay is one of them, the whole thing seems unnecessary. This opinion, we understand, is shared by no less an authority than Quay himself.

THE PLIGHT OF ST. LOUIS.

All students of politics and lovers of good government should read an article by Mr. Lincoln Steffens, in *McClure's Magazine* for March, which is rather startlingly entitled "The Shamelessness of St. Louis." Why St. Louis should be considered shameless above other cities that have let themselves be governed by scoundrels, will appear when it is noted that in St. Louis alone has the cycle of political corruption swung full, producing upon the machine and the quiet body of honest citizens alike its inevitable disintegrating result. In no other instance, on a large scale, has the machine been allowed to run its entire mortal course unhindered. New York cut down her Tweed in his heyday, and made it too hot for Mr. Croker before his dominion over the machine had fairly been shaken. Minneapolis has routed her boodlers, and is now dragging back ex-Mayor Ames to trial and apparently to certain punishment. In Philadelphia, perhaps, the powers of corruption have fortified themselves against internal dissension. But in St. Louis we have a complete and probably a unique example of ring government in its dotage and public opinion in its decrepitude.

How such demoralization has afflicted a proud city may be learned in Mr. Steffens's scornful pages. The "boodle" ring was like any other ring. Col. E. R. Butler and his associated "good fellows," during and after the year 1898, got control of the city government, and began a careful sale of illegal privileges. Gradually becoming stronger, they began to charge a tariff for all the services that the city was bound to render to the citizen. If a railroad wanted a switch, a financial house a franchise, a householder a permit to dig in front of his dwelling or for his block to be lighted—any of these ordinary rights had to be paid for handsomely. The holding up of corporations became a business, with its rules of procedure and etiquette. If there was a certain brutality in keeping the city dark for weeks until the bidders for the lighting contract had "come up" with $175,000, there was delicacy in the action of Councilman Uthoff, who, holding the boss's retaining fee of $25,000 to fight a traction contract, refused indignantly $50,000 from the contractor, finally accepted $100,000, and the next day returned the $25,000 to Boss Butler, because he "had not earned it."

This transaction is typical, and pointed to the dissolution of the Butler ring, which was already in a bad way with fatty degeneration before Circuit Attorney Folk took a hand. Col. Butler's gains were inordinate, and at the very time when he was making a mockery of party government by naming both Republican and Democratic candidates, his own fellows, weary of dividing a tithe against the boss's nine-tenths, began boodling on their own account. Butler was powerless to stop the mutiny; apparently he hardly cared to stop it; for when the sale of franchises and other city assets was running up to $50,000,000 worth, there was boodle enough for all. Great plans were on foot—the sale of certain markets and the transfer of the city water works to private hands. The rival "honest brokers" of franchises began to expose each other, and even to take legal proceedings that revealed wholesale bribery. A great mass of evidence against the ring was becoming accessible, but nobody cared to use it. The Republicans and Democrats, honest citizens generally, went on stolidly "voting the regular ticket," as the boodlers themselves uncovered the corruption of both parties. And this is the really appalling feature of the situation, as Mr. Steffens depicts it, that just as the machine was rickety from its own riotous living, the capacity for moral indignation which might have shattered it once for all was departed from the city.

One man did care, as everybody knows. Single-handed, Circuit Attorney Folk hammered at the ring, if he could not destroy it. Nobody knew much about him when the politicians nominated him. Certainly nobody suspected that he would fight the boodlers. It occurred to neither Col. Butler and his gang nor to the honest citizens of St. Louis that the boodlers could be fought. The sheer accident that a courageous man, who believed in the law he administered, was elected by the piratical fraternity, alone could have led to the exposures that now are a household tale. This mishap might easily have been prevented had it been anticipated, and to-day, while Col. Butler lies under conviction for bribery, his candidates are returned by the city of St. Louis, his creatures, frequently under conviction for crime, are kept by the law's delays in the City Council and State Legislature, and in Mr. Steffens's opinion the activities of the ring are merely suspended—for from this temporary discomfiture it may learn valuable lessons in the matter of making the power of public plunder genuinely cohesive.

New York certainly has little right to assume airs of superior righteousness, but has much to learn from St. Louis. There was, two or three years ago, every probability that the more astute members of Tammany Hall would improve upon the old Platt-Croker alliance and control both the Republican and the Democratic organization. This process, of which there were only indications in New York, was actually accomplished by the St. Louis boodlers. Furthermore, there have been signs that both the inner Tammany ring and the police "system" have been going stale. The disproportionate gains of Croker and Devery were undoubtedly causing jealousy, and might have produced revolt. The inner rottenness of Tammany Hall was likely to impair its strength, just as the shamelessness of the franchise-jobbers of St. Louis made them vulnerable to Mr. Folk's attack. But the case of St. Louis shows that there could be no worse policy than to let political corruption perish of its own exceeding wantonness; for the cost of such a cure is the complete deadening of the sense of public decency. We see the city of St. Louis to-day where New York would be if its municipal salvation depended upon the single-handed efforts of Mr. Jerome. Upon him, by the way, it does depend, not beyond his deserts, but beyond all propriety. Nobody knows so well as those men who have dealt at first hand with the viler sort of corruptionist, that the only way to fight our vicious rulers is to fight them with steel, and not supinely to comfort ourselves because they are mortal and may die without issue.

THE ISLE OF PINES.

In the Senate the other day a resolution was adopted asking the President to define the status of the Isle of Pines; and last week in the House, Mr. Richardson, with that fine sense of property rights which he displayed in the affair of 'Messages and Speeches of the Presidents,' introduced a resolution declaring that this Cuban territory is lawfully

ours. But let us see about that. Under what title do we claim? What is the property, and why should there be just now this sudden eagerness to covet and acquire something that is our neighbor's?

Historically, the Isle of Pines has always been considered as much a part of Cuba as Nantucket is of the United States. Both islands lie at about the same distance from the mainland. The Cuban island, to be sure, is larger, having an area only slightly less than that of the State of Rhode Island; but it has always been held and governed as a part of Cuba. It is, in fact, a district of the province of Havana, both administratively and judicially. What possible shadow of a claim to this island, then, can the United States be supposed to have?

A tricky and indefensible claim has been set up under the Treaty of Paris. It has been maintained that the Isle of Pines was referred to in Article II. of that instrument, which recites that "Spain cedes to the United States the island of Porto Rico and *other islands* now under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies." It would seem perfectly clear, and such we believe was the undoubted intent of the Commissioners, that this refers purely to the few small islands belonging to Porto Rico. "*The* others" is the Spanish phrase—"la isla de Puerto Rico y las demás." Moreover, the usual Spanish way of referring to Cuba is as among the Antilles, not the West Indies ("Indias Occidentales"). Language could hardly be chosen to make it plainer that Article II. contemplated exclusively the cession of Porto Rico and its adjoining islets.

But if not, and if this article of the Treaty really covered all "other islands" under Spanish sovereignty, what would follow? Apparently, that Cuba itself was ceded! Oh, but Article I. dealt with Cuba proper, providing for its "relinquishment," not cession, and Cuba's sovereignty we therefore religiously respect. Cuba was the one specified exception to the "other islands." But what a transparently shabby plea is this! If we are going to dissect out Cuba from an island that has always been considered an integral part of her territory, why should we stop with the Isle of Pines? There are more than 1,300 other islands situate off the Cuban coast; why not claim all of them? Our title to them is just as valid as it possibly can be to the Isle of Pines. They are no more a part of Cuban territory than it is; and if the latter is lawfully ours, so are the former. But this necessary consequence of the strained interpretation of the Treaty of Paris, even the predatory Richardson shrinks from facing.

Much stress is laid in addition, however, upon the Platt amendment to the army bill of 1901. The sixth section of that measure stipulated that "the Isle of Pines shall be omitted from the proposed constitutional boundaries of Cuba, the title thereto being left to future adjustment by treaty." But what, we ask, is the legal effect of that? If the Isle of Pines is ours by treaty of cession, it is sheer impudence in an army bill to propose to "adjust" its ownership. Since when did it become the fashion to cede territory of the United States, or to contemplate the possibility of its cession, in an appropriation bill? If the claim under the Treaty of Paris is valid, the Platt amendment is the most obvious *brutum fulmen* that ever issued. If not, it is only a mean and underhanded attempt to cozen Cuba out of property which is fairly her own. In any case, the Platt amendment is not of the slightest present force in the premises, since it went on to provide that its stipulations should be embodied by Cuba in "a permanent treaty with the United States." That has not been done.

The whole thing has a most ungracious look. Its being urged forward now has almost an appearance of spite. Cuba has got on in her independent life better than the wiseacres of our army believed to be at all possible. All their dire prophecies have gone unfulfilled. The island has been at peace throughout all its borders. It has a government which shows every sign of stability. The system of public schools and of sanitation which Americans introduced has been maintained; withal, by economy of administration, the Cuban Government has saved about $1,500,000 of the annual expenditure under Gen. Wood. All this ought to be highly gratifying to us. But we seize the moment to put forward a vexing and unfounded claim, as if to provoke Cuba into some act or attitude of unfriendliness. It is not a generous thing to do. We hope to see the President, with his instinct of fair play, frown upon the whole ill-timed and ill-looking movement, which we believe to be without warrant of law and are certain is without warrant in morals.

THE IRISH LAND CONFERENCE.

DUBLIN, February 1, 1903.

Public interest is at present concentrated on the report made by a Conference held between four landlords, Lords Dunraven and Mayo, Messrs. Poë and Everard, Mr. T. W. Russell, and three National members of Parliament, John Redmond, William O'Brien, and T. Harrington, with the object of proposing some means by which the land question might be settled once and for ever. The conferrers could not be called representatives, for the landlord organization repudiated beforehand the landlords who took part in the Conference; and the National members were not directly selected by the tenant farmers to represent or treat for them. A unanimous report was received with surprise, and at first with approval from both sides to the quarrel; but subsequent examination and criticism have somewhat dulled that hastily given approbation.

One of the hardest-headed landlords at once pronounced the report of the Conference "bombastic, dangerous, and empty." Public opinion is coming round to that conclusion, although the conferrers and their supporters suggest that it is treason even to criticise their proposals. Divested of its plausible bombast, the scheme appears impracticable, foolish, and unjust. Without going into details, the proposal is, shortly, that the landlords are to be secured in the receipt of their present incomes by a State payment of a capital sum producing the same income at 3 per cent. The landlords' income is defined as "second-term" rents, less 10 per cent. for the cost of collection. Second-term rents are rents which have been fixed by the land courts once after 1881, and again after 1896; and where such rents have not been fixed, the proposal is that their "equivalents" shall be the basis of compensation. But there is no explanation of how this equivalent is to be ascertained. Besides the State thus securing their income to the landlords, it is to pay them all arrears of rent up to the date of the conversion of their rental into an income from stock, to pay all the costs of proving title to their estates, and to lend them money on the security of their mansions and demesnes. The terms are highly satisfactory to Irish land owners; they exceed their wildest expectations, and, wisely, there is very little criticism from their side.

For the tenants, the terms are not quite so satisfactory, but would, no doubt, be accepted by many as an immediate and final settlement. Every tenant is to become owner of his farm by payment to the State of a terminable annuity, which shall be less than his second-term rent or its "equivalent" by from 15 to 25 per cent. This terminable annuity is to be subject to a reduction every ten years, and the occupiers of land "are to be started on their new career as owners on a fair and favorable basis." All investigations into the title of owners to sell, of occupants to buy, and the expenses of the administrative and executive machinery, are to be paid by the State.

Putting this into figures, the owner of a £10 rent, variable every fifteen years under the present law, is to be given a security guaranteed by the State which will produce £9 a year at 3 per cent.—*i. e.*, he is to get £300. The tenant, in place of being subject to the rent of £10, which, though variable in amount, is payable forever, is to become owner subject to a terminable annuity of £8, which shall be subject to periodical reductions. As the tenants' annuity will not pay the income to be secured to the landlord, nor provide a sinking fund for the gradual redemption of the stock, the Conference report suggests that "some assistance" might be given by the State. The upholders of the Conference report have been busy in the press, in speeches, in resolutions showing how this can be done without cost to any one, or what a small amount of assistance will be needed; and the discussion has in substance been as to how a quart can be got out of a pint pot. William O'Brien and T. W. Russell have explained in letters and speeches that their scheme will put no one to a penny of expense, but "no one" doesn't appear to include the general body of taxpayers.

The net rental to be dealt with under the Conference scheme is certainly not less

than 6 millions sterling. If the British Government undertook to pay the landlords in cash, it would have to raise 200,000,000 in round figures, and certainly could not get the money at less than 3 per cent. The tenants' annuities would, on the scheme's hypothesis, be about 4.75 millions, leaving a deficiency in interest of 1.25 millions, and no provision for redemption of the stock issued to raise the required funds. At 3 per cent., 2 millions a year would be required as a sinking fund to redeem the stock in forty-eight or fifty years, so that the whole charge to the taxpayers of the United Kingdom would be not less than 3.25 millions sterling a year. The report of the Conference seems based on the childish assumption that the State has unlimited amounts of money at its disposal without taking it from the taxpayers.

It is suggested that economies in the admittedly extravagant administration in Ireland might be applied to the purpose of ending the land war. But here the taxpayers' representative intervenes, asking why the money unnecessarily spent and now to be saved is to go into the pockets of the landlord class alone. Six years ago they were given £750,000 a year, or a capital sum of 25 millions, by being relieved of all their local taxation, which is now paid out of the Imperial exchequer. There are other claimants for the produce of economies in administration—education, public-health requirements, old-age pensions, the housing of the working and artisan classes, and the like. Why are the landlords to be given thirty years' purchase for agricultural rents which neither in England nor in Ireland will sell in the market for more than eighteen years' purchase? If a charge of 3¼ millions is put on the public for the benefit of the Irish landlords, who will pay it? Mainly the laboring artisan and industrial classes. Within the last five years taxes imposed on flour, corn, sugar, and coal have sensibly increased the cost of subsistence to the poorest classes. Can they and will they endure another squeeze, and will the Government venture to propose it for such a purpose? In short, as between Irish landlords and their tenants, it is proposed that for their present precarious, unpunctually paid, and diminishing incomes, the landlords shall receive an equal income from a gilt-edged stock, and that the tenants, in place of perpetual though variable rents, shall pay terminable annuities from 15 to 25 per cent. less than their present rents.

The conferrers airily say they "do not offer further recommendations upon the subject of finance, which must necessarily be regulated by the approval of the Government to the principles of their proposals." But in finance lies the whole crux. It is an easy solution of the question to propose that it shall be settled at the expense of those who have nothing directly to do with it. Michael Davitt has christened the Conference report "the Dunraven Treaty." Lords Dunraven and Mayo appear to have flattered and seduced the fiery Nationalist William O'Brien, who is now hard set to explain that he did not mean, in agreeing to the Conference report, what he appears to mean and to have said. William O'Brien and T. W. Russell have been the leaders of the movement for compulsory purchase during the last two years. Hundreds of man have been or are now in prison for echoing their words and acting up to the principles expounded by them. T. W. Russell boasted that he should be liable to prosecution in Connaught for what he has said in Scotland and in Ulster. Yet these two have given away the whole case they have been making for the last two years, by agreeing that the landlords are entitled to compensation at the rate of thirty-three years' purchase of their rental, that they have suffered heavily by the operations of the Land Acts, and that the sacrifice of sentiment involved in selling their estates should be the subject of compensation.

The political curve that O'Brien is executing may prove to be a circle, and end where he was two years ago, for he announces that, unless the forthcoming Land Bill give the tenant what he claims, he will take up arms again. Meantime his former colleagues, now his victims, are in prison: they would not be human if they did not feel betrayed, as they certainly have been forsaken, for this momentous Conference made no reference to their fate. Political prosecutions continue, and, though O'Brien has laid down his arms for the present, the Government has not laid down its arms. At best, and even on his own showing, O'Brien agreed to report in favor of more than the landlords' maximum demands, while he contented himself with asking for the minimum the tenants could expect.

To-day the Irish *Daily Independent*, a paper which has peculiar opportunities of knowing the intentions of the Government, announces that, as might have been expected, there is not the smallest intention of covering the hiatus between what the Conference report proposed the landlords should receive and the tenants should give, by a grant from the Imperial Exchequer. The Government are pledged to bring in a sweeping Land Purchase Bill; but if they offer a bonus to landlords as an inducement to sell, it will be a small one, and provided out of economies in Irish administration. Beyond the fact that William O'Brien and Lord Dunraven conferred in friendly council and agreed that the Irish land question might be settled by a grant of from fifty to one hundred millions sterling from the British Treasury, it is to be hoped that the doings of the Conference may be forgotten. O'Brien's hysterical pity for the landlords, "deprived of the incomes they are justly entitled to, suffering heavily by the operations of the Land Acts, ready for the public good to accept compensation for the sacrifice of sentiment involved in parting with their estates," for prices as far beyond the landlords' wildest hopes as beyond the market value of what they have to sell, will, so far as remembered, place him outside the ranks of consistent, practical, and trustworthy politicians.

AN IRISHMAN.

THE NEW OIL COLORS.

LONDON, February, 1903.

I do not know if the interest in M. Raffaëlli's Solid Oil Colors has been as great and as general in New York as in London, but here few matters of such purely technical importance have been as much talked about. The new colors were announced months ago. Reports of what had been done with them in Paris were spread. Certain English dealers advertised that they held the monopoly for England; but when artists flocked to buy, there were still no colors to sell, and expectation grew all the keener. A show of work to prove their practical worth was promised for the beginning of January; it was postponed until the end of the month. Altogether, the patent-pill man or soap manufacturer might envy M. Raffaëlli the advertisement he has enjoyed, partly by chance, partly owing to the eagerness of artists to put his invention to the test. However, his exhibition has at last opened in one of the smaller London galleries—the Holland, in Grafton Street—and there is an opportunity to judge from the most eloquent sort of evidence just what can be done with his colors.

By this time, I fancy, every one concerned knows that what M. Raffaëlli has invented is a preparation of oil colors in solid form, like pastels. He has taken some two hundred pure or mixed tints, and compressed them with a waxy medium into sticks. These are soft internally, but, applied to canvas, paper, or any other surface, they dry like ordinary oil colors in about the same time. The skin that forms over them, a protection really, can be rubbed off in the working, and without trouble even, it is asserted, if the colors have been laid aside for some time. These sticks can be used like colored chalks or like pastels; and they can be put on the canvas more or less solidly, worked over and into each other with a brush by means of any of the usual mediums, and, when dry, gone over again with the point of the brush. In fact, almost anything can be done with them. M. Raffaëlli's theory is that the accepted method of painting in oils with a brush is a barbarism; between the artist and the expression of his ideas, or rather of the beauty which he sees and wishes to express, there is ever a difficult technical process, sometimes so all-engrossing as to demand his entire attention. And then there is the palette to be prepared, and, afterwards, brushes to be cleaned, and work is involved with useless mechanical details, tedious and distracting. The less that comes between the artist and his picture, the more rapidly and directly he can say what he has to say, the greater freshness and spontaneity will he retain in the record of his impressions.

M. Raffaëlli's theory has been absurdly misinterpreted in London already. As every one knows, he has a tendency himself to use the brush charged with color as if it were pastel. Therefore, it has been objected that while his invention is, of course, eminently adapted to his own need, all it will do for other painters is to force them to borrow his technical mannerisms, and, by increasing their facility of production, help them to turn out twice as much work as they do now—an evil greatly to be deplored. The example of the conscientious man who gives years to perfecting one little picture is held up as a warning and a moral. The overproduction of rubbish, it is true, has grown to be a serious enough evil without the assistance of M. Raffaëlli. But the power to work rapidly and to accomplish a great deal has never yet been held a crime when there was question of the masters, or else Dürer, Rembrandt, Titian, Tintoretto, and how

many others must long since have been proved guilty and condemned. This objection can be dismissed without further thought. Besides, to do M. Raffaëlli justice, all he has argued in favor of his colors is that the increased facility they bring means increased freedom in the artist's powers of expression, and it is towards this freedom that the development of art has ever tended. He seems to think he has but accomplished that which was dimly foreseen in Leonardo's question, "Why should we not paint with colors held in our fingers?" As to the other point, the effect the substitution of a stick of color for a brush charged with color will have in modifying or changing the style of the artist, it is settled very conclusively by the show just opened.

M. Raffaëlli has succeeded in obtaining pictures painted in his colors from many artists of many nationalities. From France came Besnard, Carrier-Belleuse, Steinlen, and himself; from Holland, Mesdag and Cassiers; from Scandinavia, Fritz Thaulow. The English artists are more numerous, though hardly as distinguished. The Academy is represented by Herkomer and Alfred East, and, of the men outside the Academy, Grosvenor Thomas is much the most accomplished. Several contributors, it must be admitted, have not gone to great pains to produce masterpieces. Of the greater number, that is—were the quality of the work alone considered—far better examples have been seen in other exhibitions. But there is hardly one who does not, in his own way, help to prove the wide range of the new medium; and this, after all, for the moment, is the great thing. It is only natural that M. Raffaëlli should have taken more trouble than the others to make a good showing. There are landscapes by him, characteristic streets, flowers—in fact, only his portraits are missing. And it is as natural that in these pictures he should have aimed at demonstrating all the possibilities of his colors. In one or two landscapes he has used them just as if they were pastels, and drawn with the point on paper, getting all the delightful qualities of pastel without the drawbacks of that fragile, friable medium. In other pictures he has worked with them as with a brush on canvas—it may be some final touches were put on with a brush—and the result is precisely that of an oil painting done in the ordinary way. Surface and texture are the same, nor does his color lose any of its delicacy in the gray harmonies he loves, nor any of its richness in the stronger effects he sometimes seeks, as in his flowers. If one did not know that there was a special reason for the exhibition, nothing in his work would suggest it. Nor would anything in the contributions of M. Besnard, who, however, seems to have gone out of his way to exhaust all the resources of the new colors within the limits of one small frame. He has a little nude against thick foliage, in which the figure looks as if it were washed in with water-color, while the trees, one would say, were pastel on a groundwork of oils. It is an admirable piece of work for M. Raffaëlli's purpose, but one wonders what the Morellian of the future will make of it, arguing that, because such a chaotic technique is not characteristic of Besnard at any period, therefore the painting cannot be his! No one else has been quite as adventurous. But the pictures that make up the rest of the collection, among them, provide as much variety as even M. Raffaëlli could wish in proof of the value of his invention. M. Carrier-Belleuse sends a drawing of a ballet girl that would not be refused a place with the pastels at the Salon, and M. Thaulow pictures that would surely hang with the paintings. One man gets his effect with line, another with juxtaposed dots of colors in the manner of the Pointillists.

To sum up, each artist here exhibiting does just what he wants with the solid colors, using them in the fashion that suits him best, and he loses nothing of his individuality in the process. M. Raffaëlli, indeed, contends that, on the contrary, the artist, working with the new colors, "improves on himself and in his own peculiar vein." But allowance must be made for the enthusiasm of the inventor. A painter's individuality expresses itself despite his medium, not because of it. Improvement in technical processes never yet created the genius, however much it may have lightened his labors. But, anyway, the advantages of the solid colors are many enough, even if one does not go quite to the same lengths in their praise as M. Raffaëlli. Their great merit is, that they make for simplicity. Whether artists adopt them or not will be, I think, wholly a matter of personal liking—a question of preferring a stick to a brush; but those who do will find them of immense convenience, for they simplify all the mechanical part of painting. For sketching out of doors especially will the difference be felt when a piece of paper and a selection of the little sticks take the place of the old elaborate paraphernalia. The question still to be settled is whether the colors are permanent. There has not been time as yet to see. If they are, then I should say, and I know many painters agree with me, that M. Raffaëlli has contributed a genuine service to art and artists.

N. N.

Correspondence.

WHITMAN AND OREGON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent in the *Nation* of February 5 deprecated the reprinting of Senate Document 37 as ill-advised. I do not know what influences have been brought to bear to secure its reprinting, but I am sure that no inconsiderable number of those who are not averse to being classed as the "friends of Whitman" here in Oregon can only regret that any one has thought that the reprinting of this document was called for.

Permit me to say, however, in this connection that some of us here in Oregon, not "descendants of the missionaries," are not quite ready to accept without qualification your correspondent's estimate of the "utter obliteration of the [Whitman] legend by Prof. E. G. Bourne." If this obliteration mean a denial to Whitman of a large influence contributing to a solution of the Oregon question favorably to the United States, an influence beginning with his first coming to Oregon in 1836 and culminating with his part in the events of 1843, then we may be permitted to hold that "utter obliteration" is quite too strong a term.

In particular, one important piece of testimony to Whitman's influence in this matter has been left unaffected by Professor Bourne's criticism, except so far as it has been really strengthened by his reference of it to its probable source. On page 21 of 'Essays in Historical Criticism,' Professor Bourne says:

"The only evidence that has been advanced to show that the 'saving of Oregon' was attributed to Marcus Whitman before Spalding published his articles, is an extract from a book by a French traveller, De Saint-Amant, published in 1854; and this evidence is secured by the use of deceptive phrases in translating the passage. This writer is said to have 'published to his countrymen that Whitman, the missionary, was largely instrumental in saving Oregon to the United States.'"

The words quoted are from a memorial address by the present writer, which was published in the Whitman College *Quarterly*, December, 1897, and which, so far as I am aware, was the first use made of the testimony of Saint-Amant in this controversy. As to the use of deceptive phrases charged by Professor Bourne, I may say that the words of the original French were in my mind at the time this sentence was written, and with the full understanding of them as given in Professor Bourne's translation, on page 106. I am quite willing to rest my justification of the use I have made of the original in a simple appeal to Professor Bourne's own translation.

As to the probable source of Saint-Amant's information, I agree in the main with Professor Bourne. Saint-Amant was in Walla Walla in October, 1851, less than four years after the Whitman massacre. While there, he doubtless saw and conversed with the Catholic missionaries of that region, as he did with the Catholic missionaries elsewhere in Oregon. There is no reasonable doubt that here was the main source of his information. But this, in my judgment, makes his testimony the more important, for it makes it practically the testimony of these missionaries, than whom there were at that time nowhere keener, closer, or better qualified observers of the influences that were determining the ultimate event in which they, in common with Whitman, were deeply interested.

A peculiar interest is given this testimony by a letter, now in the files of the Indian Bureau at Washington, written by Charles Serrugs to J. C. Spencer, Secretary of War, under date of Georgetown College, D. C., March 4, 1843, and enclosing a letter from the Rev. P. J. de Smet of Oregon, setting forth the "origin, progress, and prosperity of a settlement made among the Indian tribes in the Oregon Territory." This letter is important in this connection as showing that the Catholic authorities in Georgetown were in close communication with the Catholic missionaries in Oregon. The missionaries at Walla Walla were in a position, therefore, to know not only what was going on in their own neighborhood, but what was going on at Washington as well. Add to this, that in 1843 a body of Catholic missionaries from St. Louis travelled the route a little in advance of the immigration of that year, and that, on one occasion at least, Whitman carried back from these missionaries to the Oregon immigrants valuable information as to the route, and we get further insight into the opportunities these men had to observe the influences that were shaping events.

The important fact, then, still remains that the men who of all men on the field at the time were best qualified, by education and training, by interest in the event, and by their opportunities of observation, to weigh the forces of history, have left, through this publication of Saint-Amant's, this early testimony that "Whitman the missionary was largely instrumental in saving Oregon to the United States," or, if Professor Bourne's rhetorically stronger translation be preferred, "contributed in no small degree to promote annexation."

J. R. WILSON.

PORTLAND, OREGON, February 16, 1903.

CULTURE AND "COMMONNESS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The interesting "Observations in a Big University," by your correspondent "Agatha," raise anew the question as to the compatibility of Culture with universal education. Matthew Arnold, in the preface to his essay on 'Culture and Anarchy,' quotes from Renan as follows:

"The countries which, like the United States, have created a considerable popular instruction without any serious higher instruction, will long have to expiate this fault by their intellectual mediocrity, their vulgarity of manners, their superficial spirit, their lack of general intelligence."

This extract is followed by Mr. Arnold's own acceptable definition of Culture as "the disinterested pursuit of perfection."

Now unless it is possible for us to contradict M. Renan by demonstrating that we have in this country a class of people engaged in the disinterested pursuit of perfection, and that this class is increasing in proportion to the increase of college graduates, then "Agatha's" observations on the hordes of imperfectly qualified students who are flocking to the prominent universities of the West and threatening, like the barbarians of old, to overrun the inner defences of enlightenment, would seem to sustain M. Renan's prognostication, and to justify her alarm lest Culture is not holding its own as against "Commonness," in this section of the country at least.

If there is a remedy for so lamentable a condition, it must be found either in the universities themselves, or in the students to whom they award degrees. But in the prominent universities of the West the standards of admission and the requirements for a degree are about identical with those of the prominent universities of other sections. Their professors are, as a rule, able men, thoroughly equipped, finely accomplished, often strikingly original, and devoted to the dissemination of knowledge. If, therefore, in any large Western university the dissemination of knowledge is not accompanied by the spread of Culture, this cannot be due to failure on the part of the university to maintain a standard equal to the best American standards, or to any failure on the part of the professors to fulfil their duties in an adequate way. Is it, then, the student body who are responsible for the triumph of "Commonness" over Culture?

It may be that, tried by the highest standards, the average student of the universities of the Far West is somewhat uncouth in manner, rather unenlightened, and sometimes mistaken as to his or her true vocation. But they are far from dull or negligent. They have set out to obtain an education—in true American fashion—regardless of obstacles, and their earnestness is often carried to the point of heroism. They are unflagging in attendance at lectures, anxiously attentive to their duties. Indeed, they frequently evince a nervous apprehension of "being flunked out of college," in striking contrast to the easy assurance of the Eastern undergraduate who pays a tuition fee.

Now if we cannot impugn the standards of the prominent universities of the Far West—and, as a matter of fact, their requirements for admission and for a degree are constantly increasing—nor the character of the teaching within them, and if of the student body we can say no worse than that "their reach exceeds their grasp," why is it that Culture—and even the outward and visible signs of Culture—are so little in evidence in a region where there is at least one college student or college graduate in almost every home? Can it be that M. Renan is right, and that our experiment in universal education is still in such a probationary stage that we are not yet in sight of the conditions where Culture shall neutralize "Commonness"?

Yours truly, FANNY PURDY PALMER.

PALO ALTO, CALIFORNIA, February 14, 1903.

INDEX MIRABILIS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having occasion to consult the index to Alderson's 'Andrew Carnegie' (Doubleday, Page & Co., 1902), I am surprised to find that it apparently bears no relation to the text of the book. In no case have I been able to find anything bearing on a subject on the page to which reference is made in the index, neither do I find index entries to correspond to prominent subjects in the text. For example, the index contains "Skibo Castle, 203-206, 208-209." These pages in the text are made up of quotations from Mr. Carnegie's writings, with no reference to the castle. An index entry is "Libraries, free, 85, 164, 175-178, 184," but there is nothing about libraries upon any of these pages, although I find much unindexed matter relating to libraries in other parts of the book. On page 156 I find the story of Col. Anderson's kindness in lending books to the boy Carnegie, but the index reference is to page 175, where there is no mention of the colonel. I am unable to find any clue to the principle upon which the index is made. The only suggestion that comes to me is that the references are to the pages of the typewritten "copy." The publisher's explanation would be of interest. At any rate, they owe their customers an apology for selling them a book with an index which is not an index.—Yours very truly,

GARDNER M. JONES.

SALEM, MASS., February 21, 1903.

Notes.

Our recent review of Fletcher's critical edition of Carlyle's 'French Revolution' was based upon the London issue of Methuen & Co., as duly acknowledged. We now receive the work in three handy volumes from Messrs. Putnam, who are its publishers for this country. They will likewise coöperate with Mr. Murray in the forthcoming 'Life and Times of Georg Joachim Goschen, Publisher and Printer of Leipzig,' by Viscount Goschen.

The author of 'Chimmie Fadden,' Edward W. Townsend, is to publish through Henry Holt & Co. 'A Summer in New York.'

'Stories of Old New Haven,' by Ernest H. Baldwin, lecturer in history at Yale University, will issue from the Abbey Press of this city.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s spring announcements include 'Texas,' in the American Commonwealths Series, by Prof. George P. Garrison of the University of Texas; 'William Ellery Channing,' by the Rev. John W. Chadwick; 'Phillips Brooks,' by William Lawrence, Bishop of Massachusetts; 'A Young People's History of Holland,' by the Rev. W. E. Griffis; 'Aids to the Study of Dante,' edited by Charles A. Dinsmore; 'The Enjoyment of Art,' by Carleton Noyes; 'The Flower Beautiful,' by Clarence M. Weed; an anthology of 'The Poets of Transcendentalism,' by George Willis Cooke; 'True Bird Stories from My Note-Books,' by Olive Thorne Miller; the Complete Poems of Alexander Pope, in the Cambridge Series; and 'His Daughter First,' a story by Arthur Sherburne Hardy.

Harper & Bros. have in press 'The Emperor's Speeches,' translated from the German of Emperor William by Wolf von Schierbrand.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'Horace Greeley,' by William A. Linn; 'Millionaire Households and their Domestic Economy, with Hints upon Fine Living,' by Miss Mary Elizabeth Carter; and 'Trust Finance,' by Dr. E. S. Meade, of the Wharton School of Finance.

'Trees, Vines and Shrubs of the Northeastern United States,' by H. E. Parkhurst, and 'The Story of Oratorio,' by Annie E. Patterson, are announced by Charles Scribner's Sons.

The second volume of Professor Wiener's 'Anthology of Russian Literature' is in the press of Messrs. Putnam, along with 'The Gates of Silence, and Interludes of Song,' by Robert Loveman. Their forthcoming "Little French Masterpieces Series," edited by Alexander Jessup, will lead off with specimens of fiction, translated by George Burnham Ives, in six volumes, beginning with Mérimée. Each author will have an introduction—as, Balzac from Brunetière. Soon to appear is 'Penal Servitude,' an account of the prison experiences of Lord William Nevill, who served a reduced term of four years for fraud.

'Women Authors of Our Day in their Homes,' by Francis T. Halsey, will be brought out in March by James Pott & Co.

Macmillan will shortly have ready 'First Lessons in United States History,' by Prof. Edward Channing of Harvard.

'The Child Housekeeper,' by Miss Elizabeth Colson and Anna G. Chittenden, is a novel product of "actual experience in teaching small girls to do intelligent work in their homes." It will bear A. S. Barnes & Co.'s imprint.

Frederick A. Stokes Co. announce 'The Fern Collector's Guide,' by Willard Nelson Clute, and 'The Book of Old China,' by Mrs. N. Hudson Moore.

Brentano's will publish in April an unabridged translation of Sénancour's 'Obermann.'

Joseph Elkinton, of Philadelphia Yearly

Meeting, will publish, through Ferris & Leach of that city, an illustrated book on 'The Doukhobors.'

The Rev. Dr. Mills, formerly of New York, who has entered upon his second quinquennium as professor of Zend (Avesta) Philology at Oxford, having been recently reappointed for five years, will soon be publishing the first issue of a treatise on the rest of the Yasna upon the same lines as those followed in the book on the Gâthas, that is, with the four texts, three of them translated, and with the variants of the Pahlavi. He is delaying his special dictionary, now half published, for a general one by another writer which is about to appear. His book on Zoroaster, Philo, and Israel is about half printed, and the first part will be published in a few months.

Fifteen years ago, if we can imagine history slightly anticipated *ad hoc*, Pierre Loti's 'The Last Days of Pekin' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) would have made a great hit. It is well translated by Myrta L. Jones, and illustrated from photographs and drawings by Jessie B. Jones. The author's account of China first appeared in letters written to the *Figaro*, at the time when he was serving in Chinese waters on one of the French warships. He saw China and Pekin in the hands of the Allies, he penetrated the arcana of the Forbidden City, and the sacred precincts which enshrine the remains of the present race of emperors. The book was worth writing and is worth reading, is full of the author, and hence "personal," and it relates to recent events of extraordinary and lasting interest. If it does not impress the reading public as some of its predecessors did, this must be partly because fashion in books changes nowadays so fast. An author's popularity is now said to have a "life" of only ten years, and Loti must, with others, submit to the common fate.

In the new (third) volume of the 'Jewish Encyclopædia' — Bencemero - Chazanuth— (Funk & Wagnalls) the different articles under Bible—canon, editions, exegesis, translations, etc.—extending in all to fifty pages, are undoubtedly the most important single element. They are generally very well done, much better, part by part, than the corresponding sections in the 'New International Encyclopædia'; the facsimiles especially are excellent. More novel is an elaborate article on cantillation, where the differing musical values of the "accents" are carefully worked out. This article has real significance, and supplements even Wickes's treatise on the accents. Those on blood-accusation and on the effects of the Black Death in causing persecutions of the Jews stand out equally with a melancholy and still modern value. Of mingled tears and laughter is a ten-page article on censorship. The history of this mournful absurdity is minutely traced, and specimens of expurgated pages are given, with, finally, a page from this very encyclopædia, as censored in Russia. This whole article, it is probable, will be able to enter that country only by letter post. Of pure, if unintended, humor is the attention paid to various Jewish pugilists. Apparently the editors are at pains to prove that Jewish strenuousness has not been spiritual only. Equally light in parts is a most serious article on blasphemy. In it one authority is driven to the decision, "He who hears blasphemy nowadays is not obliged to rend his garments, because otherwise his garments would be nothing but tatters." Worthy of mention as a thorough, if somewhat heavy, monograph is the twenty-three-page article on Cabala. It is highly condensed, and has a bibliography of nearly a column. Noteworthy, too, are the articles on Calendar and Charities, and an admirably reproduced Catalan "portulano" of 1375 by Cresquez the Jew. Such facsimiles are evidently to be an outstanding feature of the work, and they go far to heighten its mediæval flavor. But its main stock and substance, apart from sentiment or picturesqueness, remains in the biographies.

'Erromanga,' by the Rev. H. A. Robertson (A. C. Armstrong & Son), is a simple but touching account of thirty years' mission work on one of the New Hebrides group in the Southern Pacific. Here John Williams, the "apostle of Polynesia," was murdered some sixty years ago, and several of his successors, so that it is now known as the "martyr isle." The author, before describing his own experiences, gives a sketch of these men and what they accomplished. He has other chapters upon the habits, industries, and distinguishing characteristics of the islanders; and in the story of his daily life and experiences among them are graphic and attractive pictures of individual natives. An occasional dash of humor lightens up the narrative, which has many pathetic episodes. A great hindrance to the prosperity of the island and the development of its rich natural resources is the Australian labor traffic, which takes away large numbers of its best men, many of whom never return. One of the difficulties encountered in teaching the islanders is indicated in an appendix containing the Lord's Prayer in eighteen different languages spoken by the people of the group. The work is edited by John Fraser, and has maps and illustrations.

The little book entitled 'Faith Built on Reason: A Survey of Free and Universal Religion in the Form of Question and Answer,' by Miss F. L. Abbot of Cambridge (Boston: J. H. West), is rendered most interesting and of really remarkable character by the absolute clearness and simplicity with which the daughter of a highly cultivated man reproduces her father's work, and translates it with unvarying fidelity into the common tongue. Dr. Francis Ellingwood Abbot's thought is here followed out to the last degree, and made intelligible in its foundations, which end in natural religion, based, as its author claims, on absolutely plain and coherent grounds. When the author comes to what many, even among radicals, would consider the weak point, namely, the complete exclusion of what is commonly called the intuitional method, its question is faced in the same perfectly simple and unflinching way which marks all the rest. "Intuition," the author says, "is a purely personal experience and is capable of no universal proof. One man's intuition has no decisive value for another man who does not have the same intuition. Only those answers to these questions will have any universal value which are based on something greater than individual experience and are demonstrable to the whole human race. Such answers can be given by science alone." This is absolutely frank and honest, but to poetic idealists and those who hold consistently to the Inward Light, it would, of course, be wholly inadequate. Whittier could no more accept it than could John Calvin. Yet so few statements on any opinion are made in a perfectly logical spirit and are thus altogether consistent, that it is pleasant to see any such successful effort made, and especially when it comes from the feminine side of the house.

Mr. Andrew J. George's 'Select Poems of Samuel Taylor Coleridge' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) is a thoroughgoing performance, well adapted for private or school use. The poems are arranged chronologically, dated, and accompanied in a separate section by the poet's biography for the period, with such light as can be thrown upon the circumstances of their production. The notes are mainly historical, and there is more borrowed than original criticism, in which the editor hardly shines. His introduction, too, is an essay beyond his grasp. He has, however, given the best of Coleridge and examples of every vein, but the humorous should have been reinforced by the autobiographical "A Character," which is indeed referred to and explained in the notes (p. 396). The poet's text is remarkably free from error. We have noticed only two: on page 262, line 15, "this" is a corruption for "an," and "a" is omitted before "sick" in line 15 of page 42. On the other hand, the editorial matter is greatly disfigured by carelessness in quotations: witness those from Burns and Cowper on pages xxxviii., xxxix., xli., and the last line but one of the Coleridge variorum on page 304. The Greek of page 342 and the German of pages 355, 370 have suffered a sea change. And, on page 385, is there any authority for this lection in Wordsworth's Clarkson sonnet—

"The blood-stained *enemy* is forever torn"?

"Bloody writing" is an accepted lection. With these reserves, Dr. George is to be commended for redirecting students to an author of whom Swinburne has said, with his customary extravagance, but with much truth, "Of Coleridge's best verses I venture to affirm that the world has nothing like them, and can never have; that they are of the highest type, and their own."

'Sally Wister's Journal' (Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach) is a short and sprightly record of the experiences of a Quaker girl of sixteen, who, with her family, took refuge in a farmhouse on the Wissahickon during the brief occupation of Philadelphia by the English in 1777-8. The farmhouse, which still stands, became the headquarters of General Smallwood, and there was a constant going and coming of officers and men, with demure passages between the writer of the journal and certain youthful Virginian captains and majors. The editor, Mr. Albert Cook Myers, has dignified a slight school-girl diary into an historical document, with copious biographical notes and numerous illustrations. The glimpse of Sally Wister herself, with her quotations from Pope, and her most un-Quakerish interest in pretty clothes, is entertaining enough. Quaker maidens, in those days, read Fielding's 'Joseph Andrews' and Pope's 'Iliad' with uncritical enjoyment. Sally Wister's apparent laxity in the choice of fiction was atoned for by a habit of rising at four in order to spend the morning in ironing, and by an extraordinary devotion to knitting. No pains have been

spared to make the book attractive, though the journal itself can hardly possess an intrinsic interest except for members of the Wister family.

Another book on astronomy by Prof. Simon Newcomb—'Astronomy for Everybody' (McClure, Phillips & Co.)—attests the good appetite of the public as well as the productivity of a distinguished scientist. The book is written in a simple style, without technical or mathematical language, and therefore treats hardly more than the outlines of its subject, yet the outlines include a sketch of the four methods of measuring the sun's distance, and something about the repulsion of comets' tails by the pressure exerted by sunlight. Modern methods are illustrated in the application of photography to the search for asteroids, and modern results in the account of Eros, the most curious of all the minor planets. Spectroscopic observations by Belopolsky are accepted as proving a rapid rotation for Venus, in contradiction to the results gained by Schiaparelli and Lowell. The moon is credited with a total lack of atmosphere. The explanation of its action in causing tides on the earth may leave the reader less satisfied than he is likely to be with the other pages of this concise book.

We should have completed our notice, a fortnight ago, of the complete and abridged Muret-Sanders German-English Dictionaries by mention of the still further condensed Pocket Dictionary in the Langenscheidt series—a new edition (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). This does not belie its name, as to compactness and convenient form, and it has had the advantage not only of the greater work, but of the Oxford Dictionary in its present stage. This, say the publishers, has enabled the compiler to discard all the deadwood (*den ganzen Ballast*) of antiquated expressions, always the stumbling-block in bilingual dictionaries. So far does Dr. Murray's candle throw its salutary beams. In this little companion of the tourist or the reader, the familiar signs of the Muret-Sanders scheme pleasantly dot the pages (as, a locomotive for the class "transportation," a comet to denote "rare," etc.). Pronunciation is indicated in the English portion; and it is noticeable that Shakespeare, Lincoln, and Washington are admitted to the general vocabulary, along with Mabel, Madge, Dorothy, etc., and a select group of geographical names, for all which separate lists are commonly provided in dictionaries.

Parts 5 and 6 of the 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana, 1847-1899' (Milan; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), stride from Grimaldi to Levinstein, thanks to two letters, H and K, which perforce include only foreign authors. Guides, Instructions, Laws, and Letters are noticeably full rubrics of from four to seven pages. Among classic Italian writers, Guicciardini shows a reprint of his History of Italy as late as 1876. Leopardi continues much in vogue. In the foreign list, Guizot has been practically relegated to the reference shelves since the forties; Victor Hugo's revivals seem mainly confined to his 'Notre Dame de Paris,' 'Les Misérables,' 'Dernier Jour d'un Condamné,' and 'L'Homme qui rit'; Paul de Kock is uninterruptedly reproduced, while Lamartine barely gives signs of vitality. Heine survives bravely. Humboldt has had no edition since 1865, and is about in the case of Hippocrates. Paul Heyse and Ibsen are in active request. Landor's Italian sojourn did not prompt a single translation from his writings. Washington Irving was thus honored as late as 1893. Richard Hildreth's 'Archy Moore (The White Slave),' profiting by the furore excited by 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' in 1853 went into one French and at least two Italian versions (four imprints). Judge O. W. Holmes's 'The Common Law' was translated in 1888-9, while his father never gained a footing on the peninsula in its vernacular. Mrs. Mary Catherwood is entered here under her maiden name of Hartwell, as Liszt's pious correspondent, the Countess Sayn Wittgenstein, is entered under Ivanoska.

The fifth volume of the Quarterly of the Texas State Historical Association, just come to hand, is composed of articles strictly confined to the State and its eminent citizens, with a range from "The Connection of Peñalosa with the La Salle Expedition" to a "Genealogical and Historical Register of the First General Officers of the Daughters of the Republic of Texas Elected in 1891." While the editors properly disclaim responsibility for the views advanced by the authors of the several papers, they might hold these to some accountability in respect of the historic temper, the absence of which is too conspicuous in the paper on "The Annexation of Texas and the Mexican War."

The fifth volume of the now classically housed Buffalo Historical Society is a substantial one of some 500 pages, containing much valuable original matter pertaining to the war of 1812, which is to Buffalo what the war with Mexico is, for perennial interest, to Texas; much other, from the pen of Judge Samuel Wilkeson, regarding Buffalo's beginnings as a port and as an international thoroughfare; and a history of the Buffalo Free Library movement. La Salle has a place here, too, for the Society erected last May a boulder monument to the explorer, with a tablet showing that "hereabout, in May, 1679," he built his *Griffon*, the first vessel to sail the upper lakes. The Secretary, Mr. F. H. Severance, contributes a very valuable Bibliography of the Upper Canada Rebellion of 1837-8, with sundry facsimile title-pages.

A most interesting account of the battle of Sackett's Harbor is printed among the Historical Manuscripts in the February Bulletin of the Boston Public Library, in a letter from Gen. Jacob Brown, commanding the American forces, to Gov. Tompkins of New York, written the second day after the battle. When the British made their attack he was with the militia, and, "as I was attentively watching thier movements & the happy effects of our fire to my utter astonishment my men rose from thier cover, broke & before I could realize the disgracefull scene there was scarcely a man within several Rods of where I stood." He exonerates Lieut. Chancey from all blame for burning the storehouses on the supposition that the day was lost. "He was decieved by the materials on whom he relied & nothing short of Divinity can guard against such occurrences." Brown assures the Governor that he does not "bear hard upon the militia. I do them justice Sir. . . . The noble men both officers & Soldiers of the Regular Army & some few, precious few Citizen Soldiers who nobly resisted the Shock of the Foe men the Foe of Basswood Cantonment are the men who merrit the honor of this Victory & Sir they must have it." Senator S. R. Bradley of Vermont, in a letter dated January 27, 1810, to Judge Royall Tyler, says that he is tired of his seat in the Senate, and makes this suggestion, "that I shall take Govr G.'s place—that you shall take the place I now hold—that Judge Robinson shall take the place you hold, and that D. Chase shall be placed on the Supreme Court *vice* Judge H. who may probably wish to retire to preach the gospel to the Baptists." The plan miscarried, as Gov. Galusha remained in office till 1813, at which time Bradley also retired, to be succeeded by Chase.

The first of the "Reports of the Princeton University Expeditions to Patagonia, 1896-1899," issued by the J. Pierpont Morgan publication fund, gives a narrative of the expeditions and a general sketch of the geography of Southern Patagonia (Princeton). The narrative contains much material of interest to the general naturalist: the habits of the condor, the great tides of the eastern coast, the extraordinary fossils collected from the bluffs along the shore as well as far inland, the natives of the interior, the glaciers of the Andes. So little is known of much of the region, and it appears to be so rich in specimens of many kinds, that many explorers should be attracted to it. The geographical chapters treat of the plains, with special accounts of the great shingle formation and of the valleys that it cloaks, the mountains and their longitudinal valleys, the rivers, the lakes, and the coast. The Tehuelche tribes are described with some detail, and, here as elsewhere, heliotypes from photographs make excellent illustrations. The reader must certainly hope that the enthusiastic explorer may be spared the pain of being "forced to abandon all hope of ever again visiting" the plains of Patagonia.

From the office of the weekly journal *South Africa*, published at No. 39 Old Broad Street, London, E. C., we receive a timely folding map of South Africa, mounted on cloth and sold for two and a half shillings. It is primarily a railway map, extending from Cape Agulhas to the southern extremity of Lake Tanganyika, embracing the whole of Lake Nyassa and its outlet the Shire, with the coast line from the mouth of Orange River to the Zambesi delta. A small map exhibits the whole of Africa and the Cape-to-Cairo route; the Natal railway system is shown on a larger scale, as are also Cape Town's suburban lines; and there are plans of eight seaports. For every line there is a table of stations, distances, and gradients.

—No one who followed the literary career of John Fiske will be surprised to see that his works fill twenty-four volumes in the edition which has just been issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. His subjects were not only numerous, but of the widest scope—history, science, religion and philosophy; and his love of writing was equal to the breadth of his information. Indeed, it may be surmised that twenty-four volumes fail to contain the full product of his maturity, though they doubtless contain his more permanent credentials to

fame. Reckoned by bulk alone, the historical works are equal to the miscellaneous writings combined, and this fact will account for an arrangement of contents whereby they occupy the first twelve volumes of the set. Regarding the miscellaneous writings, we shall at present say nothing, and we also feel that we need say little regarding the histories. Were we seeking an excuse to criticise Mr. Fiske as an historian, the occasion now offered would be most welcome, but since this is not the case, we shall be content to describe the edition before us in a brief bibliographical note. As every one knows, Mr. Fiske's series of books on American history begins with 'The Discovery of America' and closes with 'The Critical Period of American History.' At the time of the author's death in June, 1901, there was a conspicuous break in the sequence of volumes; but the lacuna has been partly filled by the posthumous publication of 'New France and New England.' Thus the set reviews the main aspects of American progress from the period of discovery to the date of Washington's first inauguration. Had Mr. Fiske lived a little longer, he certainly would not have issued 'New France and New England' in its present form; but on the whole its publication as part of a series cannot be condemned, though the unwary reader must be cautioned against judging the author by it alone.

—The mechanical features of this edition are good; paper and type deserving special praise. The photogravures are hardly of the first quality, but cannot be called inferior. If the tone is sometimes too dark, it must be remembered that the volumes are issued at a moderate cost. We should add that the maps and plans, of which there are many, offer slight ground for adverse remark. The portrait of Père Marquette, however, should not have been included without the warning which is conveyed by "reputed" or "alleged." Our own verdict against its authenticity has already been expressed in another connection. Comment upon a set of twelve volumes must take the form either of a short note or a long article. While we refrain of set purpose from embarking upon a criticism of Mr. Fiske's qualities as an historian, we must at least refer to one fact which is emphasized by the sight of his collected works. He was a popular writer, not merely because he possessed a clear and agreeable style, but because he had a faculty for selecting subjects of the broadest interest; and this faculty in its turn must be associated not with a clever eclecticism, but with an unusual strength of intellectual and social sympathies.

—'Germany's Claims upon German-Americans in Germany,' by Edward W. S. Tingle (Philadelphia: T. and J. W. Johnson & Co.), is the title of a valuable little handbook containing a discussion of "German military and other laws which may affect German-Americans temporarily in Germany, together with some comment upon existing treaties." Mr. Tingle was formerly United States Consul at Brunswick. It is stated in the introduction that the volume was offered by the author to the State Department for publication by it, for the use of the consular service, and was formally accepted by Secretary Sherman for that purpose. "Though in use in the Department in manuscript, its publication was delayed for various reasons, and the writer given the option of offering it to a publishing house." The text has been revised and brought up to date. The author's work has also, it seems, received the approval (the importance of which can hardly be overestimated) of Prof. von Bar, professor of international law at Göttingen, Herr Justizrath Ritter of the legal department of the German army, and Consul-General Mason at Berlin. Besides a discussion of the legal status of the German-American in Germany, the book contains many practical hints as to his behavior on his return to his native from his adopted country. Not only must he remember that, if he has run away to escape military service, he had better not return to Germany at all; but while in Germany he must suppress for the time the habits of free criticism of public officials so soon learned in this country, and remember that he is a German subject for the time being, though still an American citizen. For instance, he may subject himself to punishment for lese-majesty if he speaks disrespectfully of the Emperor, and for insult to the Government (*Beleidigung der Regierung*) if he is too free about the courts, the army, the navy, or any other department of the Government. Still further, if he is involved in a discussion with a railroad, a post-office, or a police official, he must be careful not to treat him contumeliously. Of course, most, if not all, of this applies not merely to German-Americans, but to all foreigners temporarily in Germany. They must be respectful to superiors. This is one of the most galling things in the world, but has to be borne in mind. There is on record the case of an American who, to his own utter amazement, got into serious trouble because a Prussian official resented being told that the traveller "would give him hell" if he did not look out.

—A 'Manual of French Law and Commercial Information,' by H. Cleveland Cox (New York: Brentano's), while, according to the preface, "principally for laymen," "may be of some interest and utility to the profession." It is a compendium of the "salient points" in the law of France, together with "special articles by experts." A number of forms are added, and the whole is alphabetically arranged—in other words, it is a handbook arranged in the form of a dictionary. A few of the catch-titles, taken at random, give an idea of the scope of this book. Under "Accaparement" we are referred to "Corners," and under the latter head we find some information about the legal penalties attached to the offence of buying up supplies of food, etc., with the object of fixing an artificial price. Under "Accidents to Workingmen" half a page is given to an account of the provisions for the indemnification of workmen by their employers under the law of 1898. Under "Address (change of)" some very practical advice is offered to travellers. Of "Aliéné" we are told that the word must not be confounded with "aliénation," as, in law, *aliéné* has only one signification, viz., lunatic, while the abstract term means primarily "transfer," "and in addition to that it means 'madness.'" Under "Animals (cruelty to)" some information is given as to the Loi Grammont. "Bankruptcy" is dealt with in nine pages, "Bicycles" in one, "Bills of Exchange" in nine, six pages are devoted to "Chamber of Commerce (American)" and "Chamber of Commerce (British)," but only twelve lines to "Charitable Bequests." Mr. Kasson's unratified Franco-American commercial treaty is printed in full (five pages). On the whole, while the book contains a good deal of useful and sometimes entertaining information, it is half manual and half hodge-podge.

—If a college series of Latin classics is to exist at all, it must, of course, have its Odes and Epodes of Horace, regardless of the number and excellence of editions already in the field. With Smith, Shorey, and Bennett to choose from, not to go further back, no teacher can feel at a loss for a workable class-room Horace; and yet the latest claimant, that of Prof. Clifford H. Moore, in the Morris and Morgan series (American Book Co.), is likely to meet with a very cordial reception. It has not the wealth of illustrative quotations from other poets that forms the chief distinction of Professor Shorey's edition, though the Greeks whom Horace followed, and the later Latin poets who learned, or tried to learn, from him are drawn upon not infrequently. The introduction and commentary show in general a fine appreciation of the poet and his work; but there is an occasional flaw, as when Horace is censured for lack of tact, in the fine ode to the ship which was to bear Virgil to Greece (i. 3), in reverting to "the old philosophical and theological notions of the sinfulness of human enterprise, without observing how out of place such ideas were here, when Virgil was just about to show such enterprise by undertaking this voyage." Professor Moore has done no brilliant experimenting with the text, nor marred his work by constant endeavor to set aside generally accepted interpretations. One notes an occasional oversight, as when a general assertion is made concerning a group of five examples (p. 30), to only two of which it will strictly apply. The introductions to the individual poems are especially full and helpful. Is it not about time that American editors of Greek and Latin texts should drop the stereotyped disclaimer of having consulted any American edition? If any of these editions are worth consulting, they should be consulted; if not, it is hardly necessary that the fact should be so frequently advertised in new members of the class. We have a good supply of school editions; when will some American scholar give us a Horace for the classically educated gentleman's drawing-room table, nicely illustrated, briefly annotated, fitly printed and bound, and with no trace either of the grind of the class-room or the pedantry of the philologist?

—Miss Agnes Grace Weld's 'Glimpses of Tennyson and of Some of his Relations and Friends' (Scribners) adds little to our previous knowledge of Tennyson, and confirms the impression that the margin of personal interest extending beyond that coextensive with the poet was extremely narrow: the poet was to a remarkable degree exhaustive of the man. The writer is a daughter of Anne Sellwood, the second of those Sellwood sisters two of whom married the brothers Alfred and Charles Turner Tennyson. Some

pride of relationship mingles with her reverence for the poet, and her book is motived as much by her desire to celebrate her nearness to Tennyson and his regard for her as by admiration of his genius and his qualities. Her manner of writing is effusive, and the excess of words tends to make the more valuable details seem even less significant than they actually are. Where a little light is expected on the difficulties attending Tennyson's courtship of Emily Sellwood, there is not a spark. There are pleasant glimpses of Charles Tennyson ("Charles Turner"), the pleasantest his objection to a curate's exorcism of flowers before using them for church decoration. The curate knew his 'Directorium Anglicanum,' but the rector insisted that if the flowers had spirits in them, they must be angels, and not devils. Miss Weld, herself, is wise in all things ecclesiastical, and would fain have us believe that Lord Tennyson was quite correct in his notions of Anglican belief and ritual, the "real presence" in the eucharist with the rest. At this point we get a different impression from that heretofore received, and are obliged to suspect the bias of Miss Weld's own devout Anglicanism. The "Talks with Tennyson" are singularly "barren of new pride." The account of his Isle of Wight friends is much better, especially the part relating to Mrs. Cameron, of amateur photographic fame. The trying of her skill seems to have worked Tennyson's patience hard, but the climax of his misery was when she brought a carriage-load of portraits for his autograph.

LANG'S HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

A History of Scotland from the Roman Occupation. By Andrew Lang. In three volumes. London: Blackwoods; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1902. Vol. II.

Mr. Andrew Lang has many qualifications for writing a great history of Scotland, and no European country more needs to have her history adequately written. He has a patriotic interest in the subject. He has a vast mass of miscellaneous knowledge, archæological and literary, bearing on the subject. He is a practised as well as a naturally acute critic. He is the master of a lively and vigorous style. And he has—no one who reads this volume can for a moment doubt it—the most conscientious and unwearied industry in examining both the original sources and the writings of his predecessors. Accordingly, we come with high expectations as well as with keen curiosity to this second volume of his history, covering a period for which the materials are far more abundant than they were for the days of the first four or five of the Stuart kings, and a period which presents problems of unsurpassed interest and difficulty.

In many respects these expectations are not disappointed. Mr. Lang investigates the problems with minute and scrupulous care. He scrutinizes all the data. He shows great ingenuity in constructing solutions. He gives us the impression of having exhausted all the available materials; and whether or not we agree with his conclusions, he inspires our confidence, for we feel that the materials have been honestly placed at our disposal. In discussing questions which have been for centuries the subject of heated controversy, he does his best to be impartial. As between the two chief contending parties, the Protestants and the Roman Catholics, the enemies and the supporters of Queen Mary, he succeeds pretty well, and succeeds by the natural course of condemning the violence and perfidy of both parties alike. But where he has to deal with individuals, he sometimes declines from the attitude of calm detachment which befits a writer reviewing these remote times. Towards John Knox in particular he shows a kind of spite rather below the dignity of history. Any one who treats of the Scottish Reformation is doubtless entitled to have a bad opinion of Knox, to expose his inconsistencies, or his suppressions, or his ferocities. There is in Knox's career something for his friends to regret, abundance for his enemies to descant upon. But it is scarcely worthy of Mr. Lang to keep up a running fire of sneers against Knox and others like him. It jars upon one's sense of literary taste to have this sort of thing repeated page after page and chapter after chapter. We do not need to be incessantly reminded that the Scottish Reformers, and indeed all the Reformers, refused to extend to others the toleration they claimed for themselves, and insisted in the same breath that it was a sin to resist the civil magistrate if he was a godly Presbyterian, and a duty to resist him if he was a Popish idolater, because in the one case he was following, in the other case transgressing, the law of God set forth in Scripture; and they were the judges of what Scripture meant. Nowadays every schoolboy, as Macaulay used to say, knows these things; and one may add every schoolboy knows that it was hardly possible that these things should be otherwise. Few indeed were the gentle or prescient souls who could rise to a point of view which our indifference, more perhaps than our charity, makes easy to people living in the twentieth century. Mr. Lang sometimes writes not like an historian addressing a vast body of readers prepared to listen with respect to him, but rather like a man who puts down for his own pleasure his own reflections, usually the expressions of his own disgust, as he follows the recorded deeds and words of the actors in the drama he is observing. He interjects his repartees, he tries to corner and make game of his antagonist, who is most often the triumphant Reformer, till we grow weary of the too obvious sarcasms upon "the godly." Too often the facts make sarcasm superfluous.

Admiring the versatile literary gifts which Mr. Lang has shown for many years past, we must also own to some little disappointment with the character of the narrative in this volume, considered as a piece of literature. He does not seem to make the most of the wealth and quality of the material which the career of Queen Mary sets before him. In that career, which has employed almost as many poets as controversialists, there are six specially dramatic incidents: the murder of David Riccio, the murder of Darnley, the surrender of Carberry Hill, the escape from Lochleven Castle, the battle of Langside, the death-scene in the hall of Fotheringay Castle. No one appreciates the scenic quality of these incidents more than Mr. Lang does; yet he has not used them, as he fairly might have done, to relieve the tedious and revolting tale of incessant intrigues, intricate negotiations, and miserable civil wars that scarce ever come to a pitched battle. So, too, he forgets, or declines to enliven his pages by, such minor bits of picturesqueness as the story of Bothwell's escape in the harbor of Lerwick from the pursuit of Kirkaldy of Grange. He seems to have become so much interested in the process of unravelling the frightful tangle of falsehoods and contradictions which the authorities present to us, as to have rather overlooked the need for making the narrative as interesting to his readers as it can be made, and for presenting not only the minor details, but the broader aspects of events.

As Mr. Lang writes quite as much for the expert student as for readers in general, he certainly deserves the amplest acknowledgment of what he has done for the expert. He has taken the utmost pains to get at the truth, gives us copious references, states his conclusions with conciseness and lucidity. Like every other competent and conscientious man who has worked over the same ground as Mr. J. A. Froude, he finds that writer hopelessly careless and inaccurate, and sometimes so inexcusably careless that one is tempted to apply a harsher name to his divergences from truth. He gives some striking instances of Froude's perversions of the very accounts cited. Unlike Froude, Mr. Lang is not able to find a single hero among the crowd of personages he has to deal with. Of Queen Mary he would like to say the best that could be said. But he feels, as all candid minds must feel, that the only possible best that can be said is not defence, but palliation. Everything was against the unhappy girl, and, with all her offences, she was true to her religion, she never lost either courage or a sense of her own dignity. Elizabeth, equally unscrupulous, excites a far stronger feeling of repulsion. False and shifty as Mary of Scotland was, she was not more shifty and false than most of those among whom her wretched lot was cast. for many of whom far less excuse could be given. Seldom in any country did any class show viler features than the Scottish nobility of Mary's day. Treachery, rapacity, cruelty, hypocrisy meet us at every turn; there is hardly one of the prominent figures, from the Regent Murray downwards, whose career can be contemplated without disgust. When one gets down to the smaller gentry, there is, if not more of the softer virtues, at any rate less perfidy and a far stronger patriotism. The preachers, the unfailing butt for Mr. Lang's ridicule, were, with all their intolerance and arrogance, at least honest and consistent; and in the absence of a regular political constitution or of other available modes for the expression of public opinion, it was not strange that they should endeavor to rouse and should claim to deliver the sentiment of the body of the people. There was, indeed, a Parliament and a sort of Constitution, but the principles of the national polity were far less definitely settled than was the case in England; and the Parliament was, even more frequently than in England, used as the tool of the faction dominant for the moment.

In two concluding chapters Mr. Lang gives a sketch of the state of the Highlands, where the Celtic clan system remained in full force, and of the social condition of the Lowlands. It is a somewhat meagre sketch, considering the width of the field to be surveyed; still, there are in

it several points of interest. Not only the Border, but many other parts of the country, were the scene of feuds and vendettas kept up from generation to generation. The people were extremely poor, and lived far more rudely than their contemporaries in England. Everything was backward, except education; for the number of persons who seem to have known Latin, and even some Greek, was large, considering the times, and Scottish scholars were already, like Scottish soldiers of fortune, wandering over Europe. There seem to have been few exports, except herring, at least if the laws which forbade corn and coal to be sent out of the country were really enforced. Nevertheless, and despite the incessant disorders and civil wars, the country throve and population increased. It had nearly a century of strife and suffering to undergo after James the Sixth succeeded to the throne of England before settled days arrived, and there were few signs whence any one could conjecture the prosperity which it was ultimately destined to attain. But its history had already taken that characteristic which made it unlike the history of England during the next two and a half centuries, viz., the predominance of ecclesiastical questions over purely political questions. The fierce struggles of the Reformation time turned the minds of the Lowland Scots into a theological channel, and it is only in our days that this propensity seems to have departed from the nation of John Knox and Andrew Melville.

LEE'S QUEEN VICTORIA.

Queen Victoria: A Biography. By Sidney Lee. The Macmillan Co.

There have been few more difficult tasks in biography than that which faced Mr. Sidney Lee when he undertook to prepare a memoir of Queen Victoria. In the first place, there was an immense mass of literary and journalistic material to be sifted. Then, it was necessary to preserve such a sense of proportion that the book would become neither a glorified Court Circular on the one hand nor a history of nineteenth-century British politics on the other. There was the further problem of dealing in a scientific spirit with the character of a personage whom her subjects had come not only to idealize, but almost to idolize.

In the present volume, which is an expansion of the notice appearing in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' Mr. Lee has escaped from these dangers with remarkable skill. He has collected his information with diligence and judgment from many quarters. The footnotes refer us to such unexpected authorities as Lockhart's 'Life of Scott' and Mrs. Gaskell's 'Life of Charlotte Brontë.' Something is even gained from Charles Sumner's impressions of the Queen's utterance at the opening of the Parliamentary session of 1839, and from the observations taken of her at Ascot, before her accession, by N. P. Willis, who regretted that it would be the fate of so "pretty and interesting" a girl to be sold in marriage for political purposes without regard to her own wishes. But the multiplicity of memoranda never obstructs the easy flow of the narrative. The chronicle of royal progresses, etc., is by no means as tiresome as it might have been, and the details of national politics are introduced only to such a degree as was necessary to make intelligible the Queen's relation to public questions. So brief, for instance, is the account of the genesis of the Crimean war that it has no mention of Stratford Canning. To use the author's own illustration, he has subordinated the scenery to the actor. But Mr. Lee has been most conspicuously successful in resisting the temptation to write as a courtier. He says truly of Gen. Grey and Sir Theodore Martin, the Prince Consort's biographers, that they write from the Queen's point of view, and occasionally ignore the evidence of writers with whom the Queen was out of sympathy. This charge can scarcely be brought against Mr. Lee. His book appears in a sense to be issued under royal sanction, for he expresses his debt to the King for the use of an autograph and various portraits, but he depicts Her Majesty as a human being with the weaknesses to which our nature is prone. His tone is not at all as critical as that of the anonymous author of the famous *Quarterly Review* article; his comments are, nevertheless, not lacking in frankness.

Mr. Lee makes it clear that Queen Victoria displayed no special ability outside political management. "She was not conspicuously endowed with artistic taste." "She was not a good judge of painting." "Her personal interest in literature was not strong, and it diminished in later years; but she respected its producers and their influence." The names of her favorite writers make a motley list—Tennyson, Dickens, Samuel Smiles, George Macdonald, Florence Montgomery, and Marion Crawford. On some social questions she was violently prejudiced. Mr. Lee tells us that she was thoroughly and almost blindly antipathetic to the movement for the greater emancipation of women, and adds that "she never realized that her own position gave the advocates of Women's Rights their greatest argument; and when that point of view was pressed on her attention in conversation, she treated it as an irrelevance." She was opposed to the marriage of widows. It is curious to learn that, in spite of her close friendship with Tait and Benson, she was not in personal sympathy with bishops as a class, and that the tone and manner of Episcopal sermons were rarely simple or homely enough to suit her. She was "irritated" by extreme Ritualism, and showed her Scotch Presbyterian chaplains a cordiality which was rare in her attitude towards English clergy.

The record here given of Queen Victoria's influence on contemporary politics proves that her participation in affairs of state was much greater than was commonly supposed. Though not an absolute sovereign, she was a hard-working one. Up to the last she required to have all important papers submitted to her; she signed hundreds of documents daily, and would never countenance the proposal that she should employ a stamp; she discussed the qualifications of all persons nominated for high office; and she read most of the speeches made by cabinet ministers in the country, sending them autograph notes of congratulation when they especially pleased her. Mr. Lee does not hesitate to admit the Queen's strong political partisanship, and her frequent attempts to make national affairs move in the direction of her personal preferences, though he recognizes also the good sense with which she submitted to public opinion when she found that she could not have her own way. The story of the Queen's career, especially in its earlier periods, emphasizes the danger to which a country may be exposed in its foreign relations owing to dynastic alliances and sympathies. Another cause of trouble was the constant intervention of the Prince Consort in matters with which he had no right to meddle. As against the mischief done by these attempts at asserting personal authority, must be set the fact that on some occasions the self-assertion of the Queen and her husband had valuable results. After the Indian Mutiny, her alteration of the draft proclamation was of the highest importance, and the Prince Consort's recasting of Palmerston's *Trent* dispatch averted the risk of war between England and America. Mr. Lee quotes here Walt Whitman's note expressing American gratitude for an act which prevented a war that would have been unquestionably followed by a recognition of the Southern Confederacy by all the leading European nations.

Mr. Lee speaks in guarded terms of the Queen's attitude toward British politics after the Prince Consort's death, but the very reserve of his language makes the implied indictment the more severe. At the outset of her career it was the Tories with whom she was at war; long before its close she became an industrious opponent of the party of reform. The biographer himself holds that "her activity was in the main advantageous," but the evidence he has collected goes a long way to prove that, both in the things she did and in those she left undone, her influence upon English life during the last generation was in many respects far from wholesome. She neglected those social duties which were most incumbent upon her, and went out of her way to increase the popularity of policies of aggression and dishonor. It is difficult to read with patience the story of her infatuation for Disraeli, who, as Mr. Lee recounts, won her favor largely by amusing and flattering her, and the dislike and ingratitude she showed to Gladstone, who, apart from his services to the country, had suffered more than any other man of his time through persistent devotion to the interests of the Crown. Those who remember the Bulgarian atrocities will need no help to a judgment of the character of Her Majesty's influence when they learn that Mr. Gladstone's protests against them "exasperated" her and tightened the bond between her and Lord Beaconsfield, and that his Midlothian campaign in particular was denounced by her in her private letters as shameless and disgraceful. Private letters, perhaps, do not matter much, but the Queen was guilty of nothing less than a reckless misuse of her high position when she publicly fomented the agitation for war with Russia in behalf of the patron and employer of the Bashi-Bazuks. Mr. Lee confirms the general belief that Beaconsfield artfully encouraged her imperialistic tendencies, and that especially she received "immense satisfaction" from his ingenious device of creating her "Empress of India"—a title which Parliament was assured would be employed only in India and concerning Indian affairs, but which she used in signing all documents, Eng-

lish as well as Indian, within three years. We are told, by the way, that the Queen at first objected very strongly to the use of the word "Commonwealth" for the new Australian federation, as she identified the word with Cromwell and his republican form of Government.

Without discussing the permanence of the British monarchy, Mr. Lee affords material for estimating the changes made during the last reign in the monarch's prerogative. The personal authority of the Crown over the army was almost entirely dissolved by the deliberate action of Parliament; the Home Secretary superseded the sovereign in granting pardon to convicted criminals; the Prime Minister acquired in great measure the right of bestowing titles and honors; the Queen's discontinuance of the ancient practice of opening Parliament, and her frequent sojourns abroad, weakened the theory of her importance in the Government; and her neglect of Ireland, "which must be assigned to her personal feeling and care for her personal comfort at the cost of the public advantage, almost sapped the influence which the Crown can legitimately exert on the maintenance of a healthy harmony among the component parts of the United Kingdom." On the other hand, Queen Victoria's personal influence was far greater at the end of her life than at her accession. This was largely due to the length of her reign, which "rendered in course of years her personal experience of government far wider and far closer than that of any of her Ministers."

Every student of the public life of Great Britain in the nineteenth century—and, indeed, every student of political institutions in general—will have reason to be thankful to Mr. Sidney Lee for a book which is likely to remain for a long time the standard authority on the subject of which it treats. Its practical value is much increased by an unusually complete index and table of contents.

ROMAN EXCAVATIONS AND COLLECTIONS.

Storia degli Scavi di Roma, e Notizie intorno le Collezioni Romane di Antichità, da Rodolfo Lanciani. Vol. I. (A. D. 1000-1530). Rome: E. Loescher & Co. 1902.

The story of the resurrection of ancient Rome from her ruins is no less fascinating and romantic than that of the centuries of her glory and her downfall. But the details of this later story have been accessible to the student of history and of art only in small bits, and these scattered through many volumes, while original documents and archives are to him hopelessly sealed treasure-houses. Commendatore Lanciani has long enjoyed the reputation of being the man best acquainted with the documentary history of the long series of excavations that have yielded (and often, alas! destroyed) the clew to what is left of the art and the buildings of ancient Rome. A full quarter of a century ago he began the search through the libraries and the archives of various countries for all material that could bear upon this subject. Along with his study of the literature has gone that of the extant remains. The resultant material has been employed by him from time to time in a series of books and articles, some in English, some in Italian, some popular in character, and some technical, but all alike, in whichever language, written in a bright and graceful style quite removed from the ponderosity affected by, or afflicting, the ordinary writer on archæological themes. Commendatore Lanciani has, indeed, a talent and a taste for "hitting it off" with deft phrases and dramatic touches that are traditionally French rather than Italian. They remind one of the genial narrative traits of those delightful men of the Midi—"une espèce de mirage," says the inimitable Daudet. Some particularly strenuous archæologists have even gone so far as to affirm that Commendatore Lanciani is like Tacitus in being a better rhetorician than historian. But in the present volume, at least, we have no appearance of French kickshaws, but solid meat—or perhaps one might better say bones, though they are by no means dry bones. For here is the first instalment of the skeleton of a charming body of history.

Lanciani's most imposing work thus far has been his fairly monumental archæological map of the city of Rome, in more than twoscore large sheets, happily completed a year or two ago. To critics who have questioned his arrangement and disposition now and then of certain structures, he has promised to make his reasons clear in the long-promised history of the excavations, and he expresses the hope that his work will also be of service in tracing the provenience of many works of ancient art that have long adorned the museums of Europe. The collected material for this work now fills ninety-five thick volumes of manuscript, of which the first half alone contain some eighty-five thousand copied extracts, notes, and plans. And the essence of this is to be included in five annual volumes of print—truly a prodigious task of arrangement and condensation. One is reminded of the characterization by Catullus of the work of Nepos—

> "ausus es unus Italorum
> omne ævum tribus explicare cartis,
> doctis—Iuppiter!—et laboriosis."

The author has good reason for remarking that although his material can by no means be regarded as complete, he must sometime cease to collect and begin to publish, or his labors will meet a fate like that of the volumes of Don Ferrante.

The topographical field of the history is not confined to Rome alone, but extends over a very considerable adjacent area, from Alsium to Antium, from Ostia to Tivoli and Palestrina, from Veii to Tusculum and Nemi. Its chronological limits are from the beginning of the eleventh century to the overthrow of the papal dominion in 1870, the initial volume carrying the account as far as the reign of Clement VII. (1530).

The earliest excavations appear to have been executed in the great Thermæ in the search for bath-tubs of porphyry, or other rich material, to serve as coffins for the bones of saints and martyrs now transferred from the extra-mural cemeteries to city churches. Nor did some of the Popes disdain such final resting-places for themselves. Indeed, the bath-tubs furnished the pattern for coffins of much later date. But when it was found that actual sarcophagi could be disinterred from ancient cemeteries, and their former occupants evicted in favor of good Christians, these sarcophagi came into fashion, and excavations were conducted to find them. Perhaps the change to this more seemly fashion of entombment was also helped by the failure of supply of bath-tubs.

The necessary rebuilding of churches after the destruction that accompanied the Norman occupation of the city directed attention to the immense amount of admirable building material that lay ready at hand in the ancient ruins. So in the eleventh century began the work of dreadful havoc that raged with truly barbaric madness for more than half a millennium among the monuments of Rome's greatness. It has also had periods of recrudescence at intervals within quite recent times, like those which mark the slowly diminishing throes of a dying volcano. Every student will remember the fallen column half sawn asunder that lies within the precincts of Hadrian's temple of Venus and Rome, and preserves the precious memory of that doughty champion of antiquity who, not so many decades ago, proved his archæologic doctrine orthodox by apostolic blows and knocks, scattering to flight with his own hands and feet the vandalic workmen, who, after all, were but carrying out the orders of their superiors. Indeed, it is less than half a decade since one could see—perhaps they are still visible—big blocks of marble in the Roman Forum with the painted numbers upon them that marked them for use in the revamping of the Church of Sta. Maria in Cosmedin.

The ravages of the Barberini Urban that provoked even Pasquin to his well-known protest, "quod non fecerunt barbari fecerunt Barberini," do not come within the range of Lanciani's first volume, but there were barbarian Popes before Urban. They were doubtless properly Catholic in doctrine, and some of them one must charitably believe endued with innocency of life in other respects, but the perusal of this detailed record of their pernicious activity in excavation would tend to make the reader believe that there was none that did good. Occasionally some pontiff, for a reason of his own, solemnly forbade the devastation of ancient ruins, as did Pius II. by his bull *Cum almam nostram urbem*, in 1462; but that might well have been only to give himself a better chance, for Pius pulled down the eastern colonnade of Octavia's portico for use in building the pulpit of the benediction in St. Peter's, and plundered for the same purpose the Colosseum, the Baths of Caracalla, the northern parts of the Forum, the remains of long-suffering Ostia, and various other regions both within and without the city. And yet Pius II. (Æneas Silvius Piccolomini) was a student of archæology, and a writer on archæological subjects! Even the keen and businesslike Raphael, to whose appointment in 1515 as commissary of antiquities in succession to Fra Giocondo we owe the initiation of a great scheme for the scientific investigation and publication of the remnants of antiquity then existing, was unable to stop the ravenous devastation. Pope, Senator, and builders combined to make a clean sweep. What could be used as building-stone was dug up and carried off. Pieces of marble or travertine too small for this, or not of convenient shape (at times even statuary), were broken up and burned into lime on the floor of the ancient structures they had once adorned.

Yet even these centuries of destruction

were not all of them without cheerful features. Scholars began to study and to write as early as the fifteenth century, and collections of antiquities could be formed at comparatively little expense and with marvellous rapidity in an age in which so many virgin excavations were constantly going on. It is, indeed, the story of the origin of these famous collections that will attract the attention of many readers who have no especial interest in the problems of Roman topography on which this volume throws so much light. Almost every page has an item of marked interest, and in more than one instance popular misconceptions of the later history of important sites can be corrected from these notes. The six indexes (of ancient topography, of mediæval and modern topography, of churches, of museums, galleries, and libraries, of incidental matters, and of names) are not sufficient in fulness for such an encyclopædic work. For example, it is only under *Via Appia* that one finds a reference to that most amazing story of the discovery of the marvellously beautiful and perfectly preserved body of "Tullia, Cicero's daughter," over which all Rome went mad; it is only under *Domus Titi Imperatoris* that reference is made to the finding of the Laocoön: and so with other single objects. It would also add greatly to the interest of the work if some of the early sketches, plans, and other drawings of the ruins could be reproduced in it.

We have called the book a skeleton rather than a body of history, for in large measure it is, and perhaps must be, in order to embody the immense mass of valuable material, an annalistic arrangement of notebook extracts, with more connected sketches introduced here and there. The resulting book owes its engrossing interest more to the subject-matter than to the form, which lacks integral coherence about as much as the dictionary does. It is also not free from some of Lanciani's genial tendency to facile guesses and inferences, and the accuracy of the numberless extracts must evidently be taken for the most part on trust. But the work is immensely interesting, and will doubtless, with its succeeding volumes, earn by good title a place among the most permanently valuable books on the subjects it covers.

Samuel Richardson. By Austin Dobson. (English Men of Letters.) The Macmillan Co.

It may be supposable without offence that there are intelligent people in the world possessing some literary curiosity, to whom Samuel Richardson is only a famous name of rather vague association with English fiction. Such persons, coming to Mr. Dobson's book for justification of the fame, may be seriously disappointed. They may even henceforth think of Richardson, not as a great though unfamiliar novelist, but as an eighteenth-century printer who wrote several thousand letters and three novels now devoid of interest except to students of literature; who was vain, jealous, servile, spiteful, and not entirely beyond suspicion of a scandalous hypocrisy; whose fame was made in the beginning by a lot of silly hysterical women, and continued into a tradition by some hardly less hysterical Frenchmen.

Mr. Dobson has not made these harsh statements plainly (for his book is one of evidence and argument rather than a narrative with comment), but the burden of his evidence and the gist of his arguments may easily lead the comparatively ignorant to such conclusions. Though his attitude towards his author is distinctly unsympathetic, his method is perhaps most responsible for an apparent disparagement, both of the man and of the writer. It is not a synthetic method. He has made no effort to construct a character, nor cared at all about the impression of the whole. His chief solicitude is to exhibit, not the large aspects of his subject, but an immense amount of minute detail, and he sometimes abandons himself to a sort of antiquarian rage for magnifying matters of no importance or interest except to persons whose tastes and curiosities are similar to his own. For biography and literary criticism this method is not the best, because the heart of the matter is sacrificed to the unessential, if not the immaterial. In this matter, the essence, of course, is Richardson's important place in the history of literature, the originality of his work, and the extraordinary depth and precision of his intuitions in many directions.

Mr. Dobson grants his right to historical precedence, and once comes out quite handsomely about his originality. Having mentioned several reasons for the instant success of 'Pamela,' he concludes:

"But more than these things—more, even than its unconventional freshness, its appearance in a dead season of letters, its appeal to a new audience, and its proclamation of a mission—was the indisputable fact that it was itself a new thing . . . It was, we repeat, a new thing—destined, as its author foresaw, to inaugurate a new species of writing—the novel of sentimental analysis."

The question of Richardson's debt for 'Pamela' to Marivaux's 'Vie de Marianne' is, we think, settled in the negative by Mr. Dobson's array of evidence. Another dispute connected with the first novel is still open, for Mr. Dobson does not deny Fielding's authorship of 'The Apology for the Life of Mrs. Shamela Andrews,' but only doubts it enough to rebuke a writer "who has recently prefaced a new edition of Richardson's works and refers to the 'Apology' as 'Fielding's famous parody of Pamela.'" This is not the only disputed point on which Mr. Dobson's mind is not made up. He is very uncertain as to whether Richardson was most an artist or a moralist. Having expressed the opinion that the sequel to 'Pamela,' prolonging narrative as it did without fresh complications, was a mistake, he goes on: "Richardson, moralist first and novelist afterwards, did not clearly perceive this"; but later, when considering 'Clarissa,' we hear "that Richardson showed himself more of an artist and realist than the moralist he professed to be."

The question of the sincerity of Richardson's profession that he wrote to advance the cause of religion and virtue, is exhaustively considered. Many citations show that some contemporaries had suspicions as dark as those of subsequent critics, and Mr. Dobson does not find Richardson's own defence very conclusive against the accusation of being so "abnormally interested in certain forms of wrongdoing that he exhibited a more prurient preoccupation with undesirable details than is generally exhibited by a moralist." Probably one could not be an effective moralist unless one were deeply interested in vice; and to have their sincerity questioned seems to be the price that determined moralists who are also determined novelists have to pay for their fame. As moralists, they may direct the creative impulse, but as artists they are controlled by it. So far as they can explain their motives they are probably sincere, and one must charitably strain such explanation to cover that part of their work which they do without knowing why or how.

The chapters given to Richardson's correspondence are very entertaining, and go to show the novelist's dependence on the opinions and suggestions of his friends, who, after the appearance of 'Pamela,' persistently instigated his further production of fiction. Mr. Dobson has dipped deep into the unpublished letters in South Kensington Museum and pulled out plums. The "corresponding people" are mostly women, some of them very lively. Mrs. Pilkington, having heard that 'Clarissa' is not to have a happy ending, and having communicated the sad news to Colley Cibber, who becomes violently inconsolable, writes to the author: "Spare her virgin purity, dear sir, spare it! Consider if this wounds both Mr. Cibber and me (who neither of us set up for immaculate chastity), what must it do with those who possess that inestimable treasure?" Mrs. Belfour (Lady Bradshaigh) writes less frankly, but with great excitement on the same subject. Lady Bradshaigh was among the silliest of women, and lived to the age of eighty. Miss Sarah Westcomb, a priggish young person, interrupts her edifying discourse to score the "beautiful Gunnings," and Mrs. Donellan has no scruples about ingratiating herself by barefaced abuse of Richardson's rival, Fielding. The most attractive of these worshippers is Mrs. Klopstock, the wife of the author of the 'Messiah.' Her letter describing her own falling-in-love and married life is exquisitely ingenuous and tender.

It is in the exhibition of Richardson's hatred of Fielding, dislike for Pope, and, indeed, for all reputable literary contemporaries, that Mr. Dobson's unsympathetic view shines out clearly. Doubtless Richardson had a contemptible fear that the prize of distinction won so late in life might be wrested from him, but he was old and nervous and thoroughly a person of the middle class, and, more than all, the novel was his discovery. Mr. Dobson makes little allowance for very natural failings, takes pains to point out his author's avidity for flattery of the grossest sort, and dwells upon his childish joy in the notice of persons of superior social position. He, indeed, devotes two or three pages to arguing that Richardson's great acquaintances were not nearly so great as he imagined. Mr. Dobson's literary criticism is of the accepted order, and, as in characterization, he lays more stress on obvious defects than on distinguished merits.

Letters from the East, 1837-1857. By H. J. Ross. London: Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902. Pp. xiv, 332.

From a son-in-law of Lady Duff Gordon it somehow seems only right to receive vivid and pointed letters, and in a man whom Sir Stratford Canning picked out as

having a future in Eastern politics, business ability and clear observation might safely be expected. So these letters, while without any literary pretensions, are singularly direct and picturesque, and the writer himself is an excellent example of the men whose practical genius built up English trade in the Levant, and whose Oriental sympathies and insight watched English interests there as consuls.

The book begins with a reminiscence of Disraeli at Malta in 1832, accompanied by N. P. Willis and "dressed in a silk dressing-gown with a guitar suspended by a broad riband round his neck," and ends with a picture of Mr. Ross in his old days in his Florentine villa, telling tales of the East and cultivating orchids. The pity is that the tale-telling did not reach more permanent form, and that all we now have of it is this tiny bundle of letters stretching loosely through a couple of decades. These record his wanderings, partly as merchant, partly as consular officer, through Asia Minor, down as far as Bagdad and Egypt and up to the Crimea. The time is that golden period for the fortune-maker immediately preceding and following the Crimean war. He was lucky, too, in place. He was at Mosul during Layard's first excavations; went through the Tiyary mountains after the Nestorian massacre, forgotten now, but full of trouble in its day; was thereafter in business at Samsoon under the stimulus of the Crimean war; later, had charge of the auctioning off of the baggage animals gathered for the English army, travelling for the purpose from Samsoon across the mountains into Syria.

In all the letters there is a singular richness of contemporary and permanent value; little of the commonplace; even less that time has disproved. Few letters could stand this test better. The war in the Crimea, with its criminal blundering and neglect, and, finally, the extraordinary arising to the crisis in the end, so characteristic of England; the paper character of the *Hatti Humayun*, and the change of the Turkish attitude with the withdrawal of the allied armies; the certain wealth of the country under any decent government, and the absolute necessity of consuls scattered through it if any reforms were to be carried out—all stand out clearly, especially the last. Mr. Ross magnifies the consular office and evidently with right. Some things here would almost seem to be written in the light of the Armenian disasters which followed Mr. Gladstone's cheese-paring withdrawal of the consuls placed there under the Treaty of Berlin. On only one point a difference must be marked. In the fifties, apparently, there was little if any of the pan-Islamic spirit which is now so growingly powerful. The Turks of Asia Minor would hardly now invite occupation of the country by England.

But there are lighter things. We have Paul Botta most libellously portrayed with opium and mad reports; the Rev. Percy Badger parading the streets of Mosul in many-colored raiment, and showing the natives how the English clergy dress; the last of the knights of Malta in a green coat and silk stockings; and Mrs. Digby, the divorced wife of Lord Ellenborough, living in mingled state at Damascus, and trying her last matrimonial experiment with an Arab Sheykh. From first to last, this is a brilliant and delightful book.

A History and Description of English Porcelain. By William Burton, F.C.S. Containing twenty-four plates in colors, together with eleven plates of marks printed in colors and gold, and numerous illustrations. London: Cassell & Co.; New York: A. Wessels Co. 1902.

It is very unusual to meet with an intelligent book on the ceramic art, or any special department of it. The great number of handbooks and descriptive treatises, lists of "marks and monograms," of treatises on the "arts of clay," and on the decorative treatment of clay vessels, is not yet sufficiently great to include more than two or three books written with abundant knowledge and still in a thorough and considerate fashion. Such a book we have now in Burton's account of English porcelain, and, in spite of the unattractive pictures, it is an important book to possess and a most instructive book to study. Even as to the pictures, made either by the three-color process, as yet only half-understood by most of those who utilize it, or by the half-tone process, not very perfectly managed, they are authentic. They show to the trained observer what the original pieces must be like. Through the feeble gradations of the black-and-white print, or the really disagreeable combinations of raw primitive colors in the chromatic print, there is to be seen, by those who have become at all familiar with such porcelain, much of the quality and character of the piece. We see where the lips of a statuette are painted too strong and pronounced a red, where the eye-brows are pencilled much too hard and sharp, where the ear-ring clings to the cheek and shows too plainly as a mere relief touched with gold. We see that the border of the Coalport plate is laid on in strong blue with medallions left in white, each of which is filled by a picture of one of the barbaric "jewels" of Russian orders of honor. We see, always with the help of the descriptive text, just what is the character of the Derby plate, painted by Askew, with a realistically treated group of children playing with lambs. All of that we see in the black-and-white prints; as for the colored plates, they tell their story with a visible verity as uncompromising as disagreeable. A richly colored piece of English porcelain is not often a dream of delight to one who has frequented the school of Oriental porcelain or of Levantine glazed pottery, or of eighteenth-century French faïence; the islander's work is apt to be hard and crude, and the respect shown this and that master of ceramic decoration in England no longer seems exaggerated when his achievements are compared with those of ordinary English makers.

Still dwelling on the illustrations and on the wares which they represent, there are one or two exceptional pieces, or varieties, which may be named. Thus, the last plate but one gives a group of ruby and *sang-de-bœuf* vases by Bernard Moore of Longton, a living artist, for a knowledge of whose name and productions we have to thank Mr. Burton. Plate XXIII. and figure 85 give specimens of that *pâte-sur-pâte* work of M. L. Solon, which that famous artist has executed for the Minton establishment during the last twenty years, and in this case at least the colored plate gives a good idea of the appearance and decorative character of the not common method of painting in slip, as well as the hard facts concerning the shape and general color-scheme of the piece. These are recent wares. The magnificent covered vase of Worcester porcelain which is here called a "tea-poy" (by which term the world of collectors denotes generally a little table), and which is shown in Plate XVI., is calculated to raise one's general ideas of the artistic value of English ceramics. Plate XIX. shows two admirable cups and saucers of fine old Bristol ware, collectors' treasures, if there ever were any; and a whole series of the uncolored figures presents perhaps a sufficient representative selection of the table ornaments, the little statuettes and groups with or without elaborate flower accompaniments, rocks and trees, and the like, which are seen here to have been quite characteristic of certain of the many English porcelain factories of old time.

This account of the illustrations may serve to set forth the contents of the work, which will be found upon examination to be very logically arranged. A quite complete system of cross-references, and these not to the text only but also to the illustrations even when they are directly opposite the description, increases the general appearance of careful preparation—a thing which is rare in books on decorative art of any sort. In the present work, however, this is only the completing of what is undertaken in a thorough way, and so conducted from the beginning to the end. The satisfactory assurances with which the undue claims of Lowestoft are brushed aside, the serious criticism given to the much over-praised decoration of the Worcester pieces of supposed Oriental design, and many such rewarding discoveries which await him who will read these pages carefully, are only to be surpassed by the account given in Chapters I., II., and III. of porcelain itself, its peculiarities of material and manufacture, its attempted production in continental Europe and in England, and its many modifications in later times. Read those chapter and follow them up by Chapter XV., in which are described the "Glassy Porcelains of the Nineteenth Century," and you will know more about the chief of all ceramic wares than was known before the appearance of this book to any except some life-long student, such as Mr. Burton himself.

A very brief glossary completes the treatise, because, though there are too few titles given, yet they are greatly needed—their explanation being hardly discoverable in the dictionaries, general or special; and because both terms and definitions are so evidently the work of one who knows the subject practically. There are references from the glossary to the body of the work, and all that could be wished for it is greater completeness on the same lines.

The Diamond Mines of South Africa: Some Account of their Rise and Development. By Gardner F. Williams, M.A., General Manager of De Beers Consolidated Mines, Limited. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

In nineteen chapters, Mr. Williams tells the story of diamonds, diamond seeking, cutting, and polishing, from legendary times down through historical periods, ending with the method of operating the consolidated mines of South Africa of to-day. The first chapter, "The Ancient Adamas," gives

an illustrated description of some of the famous gems for which wars have been waged and dynasties overturned; and the adventures through which these historical diamonds have passed, their travels, loss, and recovery, seem, in the telling, like extracts from the Arabian Nights. The illustrations of the gems in this chapter give a good idea of their shape and actual size, but the facets are not well shown, being quite indistinct.

In chapter ii., "Traditional Ophir Land," Mr. Williams collects and discusses a large body of legend, tradition, and history in attempting to locate King Solomon's mines, the home of Queen of Sheba and the legendary land of Ophir, and his conclusion is probably correct, that the gold poured so lavishly into the coffers of the King of Israel came from southeastern Africa, north of the Limpopo River in modern Rhodesia; Ophir being merely the port on the southern coast of Arabia through which the gold brought by sea to that point was distributed.

"The Pioneer Advance," chapter iii., is a picturesque account of the state of South Africa, the rigidly unchanging character of the sparse Dutch population, set amid Guinea slaves and barbarous native tribes, their deep resentment at British control, their exodus through an unknown wilderness into a country populous with savages ready and strong to resist intrusion. Chapter iv. relates the story of a discovery, apparently unimportant, but with consequences completely altering the destiny of South Africa. In 1867 a diamond was picked up on the bank of the Orange River, weighing twenty-one and a half carats, bought afterwards by the Governor of Cape Colony, Sir Philip Wodehouse, for five hundred pounds sterling; and the finding of this stone was the actual beginning of conditions leading to the final clash between the English and Dutch in Africa, the destruction of two republics, and the addition of their territory to the British empire. By the rush which quickly ensued to the Orange and Vaal Rivers, the slow-moving Dutch farmer, with ideas belonging rather to the fifteenth than to the twentieth century, whose dream of prosperity was completely realized in the possession of troops of children, numerous slaves, and flocks and herds covering every kopje and valley of the desolate veld he claimed as his farmstead, was brought into direct contact with an eager, striving, bustling people, knowing little of and caring less for the deliberate, plodding, Dutch way of attaining Dutch success. It was inevitable that a conflict should come; it was equally inevitable that the fifteenth century should give way to the tumultuous onset of the twentieth. Mr. Williams exhibits the continual difficulties besetting the miners while they clung to the old fashion of open mining—the falling in of the walls (or "reef") surrounding the mines, to be removed at an expense of millions from the diamond-bearing ground by British indomitableness. Especially interesting is his estimate (p. 274) of the character of the two men, Cecil John Rhodes and Barnett Barnato, who were the principal movers in the exceedingly difficult and delicate task of gaining control of the innumerable small claims in the mines, in order to consolidate the whole under one company and head, so that work could be carried on at much less expense and far greater profit. In a few masterly touches both of these strong and in a sense "necessary" men are set before the reader, and their similar and unlike traits of character brought out clearly and simply.

Chapter xix., "An Uplifting Power," shows what an irresistible impulse the finding of diamonds gave to every industry in South Africa. The inflocking of multitudes of gem-seekers necessitated the carrying of supplies of all kinds in ever increasing quantities; from this necessity came railways and better common roads, and by means of these civilization spread from Cape Colony a long way toward central Africa and the equator. A graphic description of the siege of Kimberley will be found in the appendix. It reads like a chaptre from Motley's 'Rise of the Dutch Republic.' The same invincible courage, a like inability to imagine defeat or surrender in spite of apparently inadequate means of defence, animated the defenders of Kimberley as they did the garrisons of Alkmaar and Leyden. The miners were drilled into soldiers, and the mechanics became skilled makers of ordnance. The mounds of tailings from the washing mills were occupied by redoubts, and dynamite mines were planted at their bases. The bombardment began on November 6, 1899, and continued for one hundred and twenty-four days.

Mr. Williams's book contains a mass of authoritative information, historical and technical, arranged in a form very convenient for reference.

Mediæval Stories. By Prof. H. Schück. Translated from the Swedish by W. F. Harvey. Illustrated by W. Heath Robinson. London: Sands & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. i.-xviii., 1-321.

Mediæval stories are now apparently more popular among us than they have been for centuries. One collection follows another rapidly in varying style; yet nobody shows any disposition to cry enough. And naturally so, for an alluring glamour has ever surrounded ancient fable, and the tales of the Middle Ages reveal to us the charm of the poetic life that men then lived. Properly considered, they are valuable, not merely as a wholesome stimulus to the imaginations of the young (for whose reading they are nowadays chiefly prepared), but also as records worthy of serious consideration by learned men. It is in ignorance or unwisdom that students of literature and history have often treated them with disregard; for they reflect now, as formerly they helped to establish, romantic ideals of conduct which continuously and long affected national tendency, and not infrequently determined political issues.

In preparing the collection before us, Professor Schück, an eminent Swedish critic, was actuated by a desire to restore to the youth of his land some of the famous tales once widely current there, though not of Swedish origin, and chose for his purpose the following, which he freely recast: "Flores and Blancheflor," "Duke Frederick," "Karl and Alegast," "The Journey to Constantinople," "Roland," "The Seven Wise Masters" (a collection in itself of fifteen stories, not all primitive), and "Amicus and Amelius." No reason is manifest, except the translator's convenience, for perpetuating this particular book in English. The stories are excellent; they should be familiar to English readers; they are pleasantly told by Professor Schück, and, on the whole, well translated; but it were preferable for us to have them either in their best available forms or in native English redactions. As it is, the roundabout process of their production has led to an unfortunate situation, which should have been avoided. Names of well-known heroes confront us disagreeably in Swedish disguise. It is a pity for children to become acquainted with the Knight of the Lion by the corrupted name of John instead of Ywain (Owen), or to learn to call Amicus and Amelius the sworn brothers whom we are familiar with as Amis and Amiloun (Amiles); and it is quite indefensible to tell them stories of Karl the Great instead of Charlemagne. Had a volume of the same tales (interesting all of them, and some nowhere else easily accessible in popular form) been collected from purer versions, we should have welcomed it more cordially; still, the book as we have it will do good service, and may be commended to our readers.

Round the Horn before the Mast. By Basil Lubbock. E. P. Dutton & Co.

The success of Mr. W. Clark Russell's marine stories has inspired much writing among the many equipped with a practical or theoretical knowledge of sea life. In most cases the imagination is largely drawn upon to eke out an impoverished store of facts. There are two exceptions to this assertion: the one, Captain Slocum's 'Around the World in a Yawl,' and the other Mr. Lubbock's 'Round the Horn before the Mast.' Each of these offers indisputable evidence of being a truthful recital of personal experiences; condensed from carefully kept records rather than enlarged from slender resources and with painful effort in order to satisfy commercial exigencies.

Mr. Lubbock's book is the work of an Englishman of roving impulse and an adventurous past. After exploring the Klondike, apparently without profit, he comes to San Francisco, where he is filled with a desire to ship before the mast and witness sea life in all its dangers and hardships. To this end he signs on board the four-masted steel barque *Royalshire*, bound from San Francisco for Liverpool. Mr. Lubbock had had no previous experience of sea life beyond that gained on sailing-yachts in smooth waters; consequently he shipped as a green hand or landsman, and with full knowledge of the perils which awaited him in that capacity on a deep-water square-rigger. Among his other accomplishments he appears to include photography, if we may judge from the character of the illustrations which accompany the letterpress. Among these are two or three pictures of ships at sea under full sail, coming bow on. One, which will prove of particular interest to the deep-water sailorman, is a view taken from the after or poop deck representing shifting-sail in preparation for hard weather in rounding Cape Horn.

The narrative of life before the mast on the long voyage from San Francisco to Liverpool leaves nothing unrecorded. For details and incidents we must refer our

readers to the book. There is mentioned, casually, one happening—condensed in a brief paragraph—which would almost furnish a plot for the imaginative sea story as it comes to us in these days. This was a sailor's loss of a full set of false teeth, rolled out of his mouth while aloft on the main upper topsail yard. Some old down-east skippers were so provided, but never before have we heard of a man before the mast venturing aloft with such a necessary and useful personal possession in his mouth. While Mr. Lubbock's book will interest adults, it will prove irresistibly attractive and instructive to youths who have romantic notions in regard to the free and joyous life of him who follows the sea.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Boult, Ella N. The Romance of Cinderella. R. H. Russell.
Carlyle, Thomas. The French Revolution. Edited by C. R. L. Fletcher. 3 vols. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Dalliba, Gerda. Fate and I, and Other Poems. The Grafton Press.
Fraps, G. S. Principles of Dyeing. Macmillan. $1.60.
Glauser, Charles. French Commercial Correspondence. Edited by W. M. Poole. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Guttmacher, Adolf. Optimism and Pessimism in the Old and New Testaments. Baltimore: The Friedenwald Company.
Hand in Hand. London: Elkin Mathews; New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Hope, Linton. Small Yacht Construction and Rigging. Forest and Stream Pub. Co. $3.
Hunt, Gaillard. The Life of James Madison. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.50.
King, Basil. In the Garden of Charity. Harpers. $1.50.
Letters and Literary Remains of Edward FitzGerald, Vol. III. Edited by W. A. Wright. Macmillan. $3.
Lilienthal, Hermann. Some Actors in Our Lord's Passion. Thomas Whittaker. 80 cents.
Manley, Frederick, and Hallmann, W. N. The English Language. Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co. 75 cents.
Marillier, H. C. University Magazines and their Makers. H. W. Bell.
Martialis Epigrammata. Edited by W. M. Lindsay. (Oxford Texts.) Henry Frowde.
Myers, A. C. Sally Wister's Journal. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach. $2.
Paget, Stephen. Experiments on Animals. New ed. London: John Murray; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Peake, E. E. The Pride of Tellfair. Harpers.
Shakspere, William. A Midsummer Night's Dream. (Riverside Literature Series.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Shute, H. A. The Real Diary of a Real Boy. Boston: The Everett Press.
Talbot, Grace. Much-Married Saints and Some Sinners. The Grafton Press.
Wheeler, Candace. Principles of Home Decoration. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.80.
Worsfold, W. B. The Principles of Criticism. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.12.
Zola, Emile. Truth. Translated by E. A. Vizetelly. John Lane.

MESSRS. HENRY HOLT & CO. will issue early in March a notable play by MARGARET L. WOODS, author of *A Village Tragedy*, and entitled **The Princess of Hanover.** Mr. Hardy has called this play "the book I have read with most interest and pleasure in the year," and the *London Times* says "It reminds us at every turn of some of the best Elizabethan dramatists."

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 5, 1903.

The Week.

On Monday night Congress was in a mood akin to that of Donnybrook Fair, "Wherever you see a head, hit it." The Aldrich bill was the first to receive the compliments of the season, nearly all the Democrats joining in the testimonial. Senator Morgan came out strong as a cunctator, putting in a two hours' speech where it could serve no other purpose than to prevent a vote. Some slight attempts were made to cast blame on Senator Quay and the Statehood bill which have used up so much of the time of the session; but the pen of history, if it concerns itself at all with Mr. Aldrich's bill, will place the responsibility at his own door. He has been a member of the Senate for twenty-one years. He has been Chairman of the Finance Committee a large part of that time. Nothing has prevented him from bringing forward a measure of this kind. If it were a desirable measure, he could have introduced it in his younger days and prepared the way for its passage. But, supposing that Mr. Aldrich received his first enlightenment from the Chamber of Commerce resolution of last December, asking for a measure of this kind, why did he waste his opportunities through the whole month of January? There was plenty of time to have passed this measure if he had begun early, and before the usual ice-gorge of the closing session formed. If the bill is lost he may thank himself for the result.

President Roosevelt's latest letter in explanation of his policy of negro appointments shows that he is determined to hold the impregnable position he has taken. Color shall be no bar to office. Neither shall it be a claim to office. Fitness, as demonstrated by intelligence, character, and capacity, with no exclusion on account of creed or color—what other standard is defensible in a democracy? Mr. Roosevelt is not moved by the clamor which his course in this particular has aroused. He has taken his stand, and, as it is upon a vital principle, he will not retreat. His firmness and courage are admirable, yet we must think him a little innocent for wondering why his effort to be just to an inferior race has excited such an outcry. What has changed, he asks by implication, since the Republican party and the country were committed to the doctrine which he now lays down? The South gives him his answer. It tells him that our treatment of an inferior race across the sea has encouraged certain men to believe that an inferior race may be oppressed in our own land. They would commend to the lips of the negro the chalice which Mr. Roosevelt has helped press to the lips of the Filipino. What the astonished President sees is only our injustice abroad returning to plague us at home.

Secretary Root has made short work of the Isle of Pines filibusters. To the Senate resolution asking about the status of that bit of Cuban territory, and of the American citizens resident therein, the Secretary replies that the island is under the government of the republic of Cuba, and that the Americans living on it are in the same position as other foreigners. The Isle of Pines was turned over to President Palma by Gen. Wood, and under Cuban jurisdiction it remains, with all its inhabitants—Platt amendments and Congressional resolutions to the contrary notwithstanding. That is the law of the matter, as laid down by Mr. Root, and the morals of the business are like unto it. We have no occasion, under any specious plea, of yielding to any artificial movement got up among Americans on the Isle of Pines, and meddling with that bit of property any more than with any other thing that is our neighbor's. To claim it would be a fraud, and to take it nothing but robbery. It is refreshing to have the War Department maintain the only correct position in this affair. That monograph on the Isle of Pines which was prepared under the direction of the Secretary of War, and which set forth the resources of the island so temptingly, led some to fear that the Administration was preparing a Naboth's vineyard to seize. That unpleasant apprehension has now been dispelled by Mr. Root's clear-cut disavowal of any shadow of right in the premises, or of any lurking covetous intent.

What the Cuban Treasury has done to improve its situation since May 1, 1902, may be shown in a brief statement. Gen. Brooke, at the end of his term as Military Governor, turned over to the island's funds nearly $2,000,000. During the two years of Gen. Wood's administration, this surplus was cut down to about $540,000—in other words, his two years showed a deficit of some $1,400,000. Yet in the first eight months after President Palma took office, and that under most trying circumstances, the deficit was turned into a surplus of $1,500,000, so that the available cash on hand is again in the neighborhood of $2,000,000. If such a result, attained on the basis of practically the same revenue and without curtailing the public service, had been achieved by an Anglo-Saxon President, we should have thought it looked very like a genius for finance. The Havana correspondent of the London *Times* has been pointing out these and the other proofs of fitness of the Cubans to govern themselves, despite the widespread impression in Europe and the United States that they were not fit. He dwells on their patience in adversity, their remarkable recuperative power, and the extraordinary way in which they have brought their chief industries through the ravages of war and the following severe depression. The plain truth is that Cuba to-day, with the higher price now ruling for sugar, is less in need of reciprocity with us than we are with her. We take 84 per cent. of her exports, tariff or no tariff, but sell her only about 30 per cent. of her imports, despite our enormous advantage of location. The reduced rates held out to our merchants in the pending treaty are, therefore, a plain offer of a greatly enlarged trade. Is a sullen and entrenched protectionism in Congress to prove again too powerful for the advocates of an enlightened and profitable policy of cultivating foreign trade?

On the ninth of February Senator Rawlins offered a resolution in the Senate calling on the War Department for the records of certain courts-martial in the Philippines where American soldiers had been placed on trial for barbarous practices. The resolution was, on motion of Mr. Lodge, referred to the Committee on the Philippines, of which he is chairman. It was reported back on the 21st with an amendment calling for nothing but a bare summary of the courts-martial. In this form every convenience will be offered for the suppression of disagreeable facts. The course of the Department touching this particular branch of its business has been marked by concealment and duplicity. There is not a more shameful page in our history. Nothing so much needs turning inside out as the court-martial records, unless it be an exposure of the cases of barbarity that never were tried. Of the latter, nothing will be known positively until the last trump sounds. Of the former we shall know only so much as Mr. Lodge and Mr. Root and President Roosevelt think will not hurt the party. There is no other reason for withholding these records. It would be interesting to learn, for instance, what reason, if any, existed for commuting the sentence of Lieut. Preston Brown, who was duly convicted by his brother officers of killing "an unarmed, unresisting Filipino, name unknown, a prisoner of war in his charge," and sentenced to be dismissed from the service of the United States and confined at hard labor for five years. This man's sentence was

commuted by the President to a loss of thirty points in his line of promotion, and he was restored to the service without other punishment. When this travesty of justice was announced it was said that there were "mitigating circumstances." If there were any such, they would undoubtedly be found in the records of the court-martial. If there were none, that defect would be made manifest. The Preston Brown case is only one of a large number of sealed books which ought to be opened.

From all that we can learn, it is clear that Gen. Grosvenor's book venture seriously disabled him as a subsidy-promoter. His own associates were naturally shy of tying their fortunes to a man whose check from J. P. Morgan, in facsimile, was already in great demand in Democratic districts. As one Washington correspondent put it, in spite of all Grosvenor's angry and virtuous denials he "was caught with the goods on," and the fac-simile of his own letter and of his checks "squelched him and silenced his batteries." Certainly, they have been extraordinarily silent ever since the *Evening Post* was able to confute him out of his own mouth. It was obvious, in the result, that in trying to serve himself too carefully, he made it impossible to serve the Shipping Trust. Republican managers shrank back in dismay at the thought of a subsidy engineered by Grosvenor, with his facsimiles certain to flood the country. In this connection, none but the hypercritical will see anything significant in the news from Iowa that Speaker Henderson, whose conversion to the subsidy plan has been made public, is, on retirement, to become "chief counsel for a steamship company." That would be a mere undesigned coincidence.

Party spirit may perhaps condone the action of the Regular Republicans in Delaware in choosing an Addicks man for Senator in order to beat Addicks himself, and to secure both the seats for men who wear their own party label. But decent people who have watched the fight from a distance will condemn such a compromise in the severest terms. To take a tool of Addicks instead of Addicks himself does not make for righteousness. On the contrary, it enables Addicks to claim that his doings have been endorsed by the Republican party. Dispatches from Dover say that he is intensely disappointed at the result, but we do not see why he should be. He had no standing before among the decent people of the State. Now he is recognized in the person of his man Allee, who gets the long term, as the real leader of the party. His views—that is, his dollars—will now receive consideration in many places where they have hitherto been spurned, and there is too much reason to apprehend that he will come back stronger than he is to-day. If Addicks is to be beaten in the next fight he must be beaten by Democrats, not by weak-kneed Republicans.

Union lawlessness did its perfect work in West Virginia on February 25. Armed strikers defied the Federal authorities. "To hell with the Government," they shouted, when told that it was a writ of a United States Court which the Federal officers wanted to serve upon them. Your injunctions do not go here, they maintained, in imitation of John Y. McKane. Under such circumstances there was nothing to do but to enforce the law at all hazards. Parleying with a mob is always dangerous, but parleying with defiant strikers who resist the peaceful operation of the law, with rifles in their hands, would be madness in such a state of frenzied opinion as the United Mine Workers have encouraged in West Virginia. The blood of the slain miners is upon the heads of their reckless leaders —and also upon their weak apologists. Yet even their counsel, Mr. Darrow, would shrink, we dare say, from pointing to the unhappy "environment" of these rioters as their sufficient excuse. The affair became really a battle between an oligarchy setting itself up as superior to the laws of the nation, and the resolute officers of the court. The latter conquered, though at fearful cost. But the lesson they taught is worth any price. Violence by strikers must be put down with a hard hand. It is the prime duty to society.

If the labor union leaders at Schenectady think that, by securing a special dispensation permitting the reinstatement of Potter, they can quiet the storm of protest aroused by his expulsion because of membership in the National Guard, they are likely to find themselves greatly mistaken. The dispatches say that the Vice-President of the International Painters' Union is convinced that the Potter case has "injured the organization more than anything else that could happen to it." Doubtless this is true. His remedy apparently is to settle this particular case. But he ought to see that Potter's reinstatement will be nothing if the spirit which prompted his expulsion is still to prevail. The constitution of the International Painters' Union prohibits its members from belonging to the State militia. While this provision remains and is upheld by the leaders, the reinstatement of a hundred expelled militiamen whose cases become objects of public attention will do no good. It will be too plain that what the labor men seek is not to deal fairly with the State, as patriotic citizens, but merely to avoid punishment, and, perhaps, hostile legislation resulting from their disloyalty. The Painters' Union, like others of its kind, has taken a position which is untenable, as well as wicked. It cannot avoid further attack by a partial retreat.

If John Mitchell is to go the way of all previous labor leaders, and break his neck by running against the stone wall of public opinion, he could not hit upon a surer road to ruin than his reported plan of a universal boycott of non-union goods. His idea is to get up a gigantic combination among trades unions, each of which shall refuse, not only to buy, but to work with, or to allow public authorities to contract for, non-union products. On Thursday there was seen in Chicago the beginning of the execution of this scheme. A delegation of labor leaders, headed by Samuel Gompers, went to the Mayor to protest against the city's using coal mined by non-union labor. This is one wing of the battle which the Mine Workers' Union is waging in order to unionize the mines in West Virginia. The other wing is on the spot, and carries rifles and shoots Federal marshals. What does it matter that Chicago buys its coal by public contract? We have got far beyond the notion that a municipal contract may be awarded to the man who, at the lowest price, will furnish the article desired. Has it the union label? If not, the city authorities are "enemies of labor," and are to be threatened with electoral punishment. And a club is also to be held over the heads of private employers. Their clerks, their artisans, will drop work and leave them in the lurch if one shred or stick of accursed non-union material is put into their hands. The whole world must be pasted over, "Union-made." This will be done, however, only when men have learned to hate liberty and to love tyranny.

A considerable part of the muddle in the New York Legislature over the tax measures is doubtless due to a confusion of terms. Gov. Odell considers any tax, not a direct levy on the property valuation of the counties, an indirect tax. But this is so only in the most technical sense. Originally, the scheme to abolish the direct State tax was announced as a plan to relieve real estate of all but its local burdens. This has been the effect of indirect taxation for the support of government in other States. But a glance at the tax measures now proposed by the Governor will show how far he has wandered from this idea. The proposed mortgage tax, as we have shown, is essentially a burden upon real estate; the bill to place a stamp tax on real property conveyance is, of course, of the same quality; and the amendment of the inheritance tax which has passed the Senate and was the least opposed of the various revenue measures, proposes to compel real property transferred by

inheritance to a lineal descendant to pay its percentage to the State. Such transfers are exempt under the present inheritance-tax law. In other words, the only revenue bills now proposed, for the purpose of carrying out the Governor's determination permanently to abolish direct taxation, are measures putting additional burdens upon real property.

Those members who profess to favor a waterway between Lake Erie or Lake Ontario and the Hudson, but who assert that it ought to be a ship canal, and that the United States Government ought to construct it, will do well to give some attention to the views of Mr. Gustav H. Schwab, expressed in a letter to the *Tribune* of Monday. The argument in favor of the ship canal is that, by means of it, grain could be transported from the Western lake ports without the expense of breaking bulk at Buffalo. The answer of Mr. Schwab, who is an expert in such matters, is that nothing would be gained by this, on account of the conditions which obtain at this port. At present, grain is taken from lake steamers at Buffalo by elevators, and from these loaded upon canalboats by mechanical means. The canalboat, on reaching this port, goes alongside the ocean steamer and transfers its grain by means of a floating elevator. If a twenty-one-foot ship canal permitted the lake steamer to come through to New York, the breaking of bulk which now takes place at Buffalo would be necessary here. The lake steamers, according to Mr. Schwab, could not transfer directly to the ocean carrier, but would have to unload to lighters, and they would then perform the same service as the canalboat. The difference would be that, all charges here being higher than at Buffalo, the latter method would be the more expensive of the two. This practical objection supplements in an important manner the well-known argument, apparently ignored by the ship-canal advocates, that to send lake steamers through a long waterway much more satisfactorily traversed by canalboats would be a flagrant example of economic waste.

The United States Supreme Court made a decision last week which appears greatly to extend the power of the States to protect either natural or urban sites of exceptional beauty. The case before the Court was that of the Westminster Chambers on Copley Square, Boston. When this building was in process of construction, a bill was passed by the Legislature limiting the height of buildings on the square to ninety feet. The owners of the building fought the bill in the courts on the ground, first, that its application to the Westminster Chambers was retroactive; and, second, that it violated the general city ordinance which allows building to a height twice and a half the breadth of the street. The owners were required by legal process to take down the portion of the building which exceeded ninety feet, and this decision of the Supreme Court makes an end of the various stays which have delayed the execution of that order. In deference to the law and in respect to the beauty of Copley Square, the intruding giant must now abate many feet of his inordinate stature. The important feature of the decision is that it recognizes distinctly the right to pass special building laws for a part of a city. The ostensible reason for the law limiting the height of buildings on Copley Square was to prevent the light from being cut off from the Boston Museum of Fine Arts; but there would be no difficulty in establishing reasons as good whenever a city desired to regulate building on parks and public squares. It may still be true that every land owner may excavate on his own plot until he reaches the centre of the earth, but it is certain that he may build toward the heavens only so far as the general convenience allows. Earlier decisions in the matter of bill-posting and building laws have tended to limit such legislation by the ordinary police power.

It is a mere coincidence, but a happy one, that Mr. Charles F. McKim, the distinguished architect, has received the gold medal of the Royal Institute of British Architects, at the very time when ignorant and unfriendly criticism of his White House improvements was still prevalent at Washington. Those who know the range of Mr. McKim's monumental designs, exemplified by buildings as different as the libraries of Boston and of Columbia University, will feel that the distinction was as justly bestowed as the abuse was indiscriminatingly heaped upon him by wiseacres of the House and Senate. His critics, indeed, have apparently come to a better sense of things in refusing to authorize Representative Cannon's extension to the Capitol, which was to have been executed by the amateur architect now superintendent of that building. That action leads us to hope that the time will soon come when American architecture need not look abroad for the recognition that it should have at home. Washington itself, if the rule of hands off be strictly applied to the various officials who have come into the responsibilities of an architect without the requisite training, will become a means of education to our rulers, and the third American recipient of the Royal Institute's medal (Mr. McKim is the second) may be fortunate enough to please both his notable colleagues of the foreign academies, and at home his more difficult Congressional clients.

There is merit in the proposal advanced by Judge Perry of Connecticut for reciprocity between the States in the levying of inheritance taxes. Laws imposing such taxes are everywhere multiplying, and, as they apply generally to non-resident as well as resident estates, a frequent result is the imposition of a tax by two or more States upon the same property. While it may be true that much of the property thus doubly burdened is paying a belated tribute to an authority whose agents were dodged by the owner during his life, that is no justification for double taxation. To remedy that injustice, Judge Perry would copy the methods of Federal tariff makers. He suggests for Connecticut an inheritance tax for non-resident estates, with a provision for remitting such taxes to States that agree to return the courtesy. It is a novel idea and might apply between Connecticut and Rhode Island, and perhaps Massachusetts. It would be difficult, however, to establish such reciprocity with New York. Because of the gravitation of wealth to this city, the State would lose more than it would gain by such an arrangement. Regardless of the justice of the proposal, it would undoubtedly be loath to surrender any of its highly prized indirect revenue.

Whether Hammurabi was or was not "the friend of Abraham" is a question less important to the world at large than to the Kaiser, who asserted the friendship as a fact, and to Professor Oppert, who speaks for the French discoverers of Hammurabi.Professor Oppert's genial criticism of Imperial chronology is expressed in a tone of learned raillery which will be much more effective than abuse. And, in fact, the various incursions of the Emperor into the arts and 'ologies is a spectacle to encourage the Democritean mood. Perhaps the only serious consideration suggested by the Hammurabi incident is that one may hardly be learned and a king. It is one of the gravest disadvantages of that high office that he who is born to the purple can only with the greatest difficulty see the world in its true colors, while from the first the sources of first-hand information are closed to him. Various mediæval writers have set down an ideal "Discipline for a Prince," but it is probable that few princes were ever so brought up by book. Obviously, no heir to a throne has time for such laborious studies as go to the making of a specialist, and what little learning is open to him is conveyed in diluted forms—*in usum Delphini*. No wonder the Emperor slips when he ventures into the maze of Babylonian history. The error was a venial one, for the point was not the friendship of Hammurabi and Abraham, but the apostolic succession of the Kaiser from both. This must be a matter rather of opinion than of demonstration.

PEOPLE AND REPRESENTATIVES.

Congress is, as we write, drawing to its close in something more than the usual muddle. Party passion, feigned or real, cross-purposes between the two houses, arrogant assertion of power by individual Senators, taking advantage of the way in which the rules of the Senate handcuff it—all combined are threatening the failure of most important legislation. And it is legislation, too, for which there is every evidence of a wide and genuine popular demand. If there is anything that has the people's mandate behind it, it is the interoceanic canal. Yet that project is deliberately strangled. In behalf of the Cuban Treaty, there is not, perhaps, the enthusiasm which existed a year ago—with our customary fickleness, we have got "tired" of that subject; yet we do not doubt that, if put to popular vote, a generous measure of reciprocity with Cuba would carry everything before it.

The clearest case of all is the Philippine Tariff bill. If a plébiscite could be had on the proposal to treat the Filipinos decently—and that is all that is involved in buying their products untaxed—the voices in favor would come up like the sound of many waters. This country is not so mean and starveling as might appear from the action of its representatives in Congress. We do not want to split half-pence with a people in distress. All this pitiful talk about a few thousand tons of Philippine sugar injuring any substantial interest in this, the greatest sugar-consuming nation on earth, would be hooted out of a political campaign if it were ever ventured on the open stump. We are not really built so small as to haggle over fair treatment of a feeble folk who have to look to us alone for aid, after having had the ravages of pestilence and famine added to the desolations of war. If the people could get at the small-minded pettifoggers who are obstructing Philippine tariff relief at Washington, they would brush them aside as impatiently as they would a physician stipulating for his fee before saving a child bleeding to death.

Such being the state of the case, why does Congress sullenly refuse to act? Why does Senator Foraker plead in vain for dealing with the Filipinos as we have done with the Porto Ricans? Why is Senator Lodge compelled to admit that it would be "impossible" to pass a bill giving to the Philippines even so incomplete a remission of tariff duties as the House proposed? Why, finally, are we brought to the shame, as a nation, of seeing the President transmit an urgent message to Congress, containing the explicit and alarming statement of facts by Gov. Taft, only to have the Senate resist the humane appeal and the summons to duty? It certainly seems as if the machinery of government had somehow gone wrong. Every representative in either house of Congress professes to be eager to consult the popular will, yet here is a manifest desire of the whole people which their agents at Washington refuse to execute.

It is obvious that the President's message was really directed more to public opinion than to the Senate, where it was nominally sent. Senators were not ignorant of the emergency. No doubt the President had labored with dozens of them in private on this very subject. The facts were all accessible. The crying need of immediate action was known. Yet the Senate fell back with its helpless *non possumus*, and, as a last resort, the President of the whole people spoke up in their name. The response has been all that could have been expected in the time and under the circumstances. From the press a general protest has gone up. The Senate has been urged to act, and not further disgrace the American name by the display of a paltry spirit towards our own needy wards. Expressions from the pulpit have not been wanting; and everywhere in private one hears only words of disgust and indignation that Congress should so misrepresent the people in this matter of national concern.

Why does it? That question strikes near the heart of many of our political troubles. We say comfortably that the people are represented at Washington; but just how strictly true is that? A critical deadlock like the present shows us, what we often fail to see, that many special interests are well represented at Washington, but that the nation as a whole is but poorly represented. Beet sugar has its Senators, tobacco has its representatives; Standard Oil knows its own at the Capitol; steel manufacturers have their spokesmen there, and so have the makers of gloves and pinchbeck jewelry, as well as the Gloucester herring smugglers—but who is the unfettered Senator that stands, not simply for his own State, or some selfish interest in it, but for the good of the nation at large? What Congressman feels that he is under the eye, not of his own district, or of the men in it who have sent him to Washington for their own ends, but of the American people, and that to them he is answerable?

These questions, with their implied answers, let us far into the secret of the obstinate attitude of Congress when the nation appeals to it. The separate interests which are really represented are all the while alert and active; the people who are ostensibly represented are inattentive and indifferent, for the most part, and have to get very angry and clamorous indeed to be heard at all. This is the essence of the situation in which the President finds himself caught. He has the people behind him; but Congress is controlled by private interests. He marks out a policy of national importance, but finds his measures done to death by the representatives of the parish and the pocketbook.

THE ALDRICH BILL.

The debate on the Aldrich bill for placing the Treasury surplus in the national bank depositories has taken so wide a range and has led to the proposal of so many changes, that a review of the whole subject may be useful to those who have not followed it closely.

The system of keeping the money of the Government in its own vaults dates from the year 1840. Prior to that time the public funds had been deposited in banks and drawn out by checks like that of private individuals and corporations. From 1791 to 1811, and from 1816 to 1833, the deposits had been placed in two banks chartered by Congress; during the alternate periods they had been kept in State banks designated by the Secretary of the Treasury. The abandonment of the deposit system was due to the bank war in President Jackson's Administration. The Jackson party had overthrown the Bank of the United States, and, as the Government had no vaults of its own, it was compelled to use those of the State banks. When the panic of 1837 ensued and these banks suspended, it became necessary either to charter a new Bank of the United States or to provide independent facilities for receiving, storing, and paying out the Government's money. This was the burning question of Van Buren's Administration. The Democratic politicians could not charter a new Bank of the United States without admitting that they had blundered in destroying the old one. So they established the independent Treasury, which, with some slight modifications, has lasted to the present day. Daniel Webster was one of the opponents of that measure. His speech on the Sub-Treasury bill is still read as a rhetorical masterpiece, in which a dry and forbidding question in public finance has been invested with the charms of his oratory:

> "Money," he said, "is designed to circulate, not to be hoarded. All that Government should have to do with it is to receive it to-day, that it may pay it away to-morrow. It should not receive it before it needs it; and it should part with it as soon as it owes it. To keep it—that is, to detain it, to hold it back from general use, to hoard it—is a conception belonging to barbarous times and barbarous governments."

These words are as true now as when they were spoken, and are even better appreciated now than then. They contain the whole philosophy of the Aldrich bill, which seeks to accomplish the main part of what Webster contended for. The only differences are due to changes of time and circumstances. Nobody now proposes a new Bank of the United States, but nearly everybody agrees that it is absurd, harmful, and even dangerous to treat the Government's collec-

tions of revenue as a miser's hoard, depleting the money market and depriving the community of some part of its means of transacting business. Upon this subject there is no difference of opinion except as to matters of detail.

The rigid provisions of the Sub-Treasury law were relaxed in 1864 so that the Treasury might deposit that part of its surplus funds which was derived from internal revenue (not customs duties) in national banks upon receiving from such banks United States bonds as collateral security. The reason for making a distinction between internal and customs revenue was that the latter was payable in gold and the former in currency. Although this distinction ceased to have any significance when specie payments were resumed in 1879, it has remained on the statute-book. The Aldrich bill rightly proposes to abolish it. It proposes also to modify the clause requiring from the banks United States bonds as security for such deposits, by accepting other collaterals, such as the bonds of States, cities, and corporations of a specified grade, and requiring interest for the deposits at not less than 1½ per cent. per annum. The question whether collaterals might not be dispensed with altogether and a higher rate of interest obtained, has not been considered in the Senate, but has been brought up by the Banking Committee of the House, which favors the latter plan. This would save time, labor, and the cost of transportation of the securities, besides bringing a larger return to the Treasury. As the Government has a prior lien on all the assets of national banks for dues to itself, it would be impossible for a loss to occur if the Secretary of the Treasury were a man of even moderate business sagacity.

At this juncture the bankers of Chicago have sent to Washington a protest against the exaction of any interest on Government deposits. They say that if the Aldrich bill passes in its present shape, the result will be the immediate surrender by the banks of the deposits they now hold, and a consequent contraction of bank notes. The reason why this result would follow, they say, is that the banks cannot afford to carry as investments either Government bonds or the other bonds that the Aldrich bill provides for. They add that if they were required to put up Government bonds as security and pay 1½ per cent. interest for the deposits, they would lose money. This may be true, but it does not follow that there would be a loss on the other bonds named in the bill. If money is not worth 1½ per cent. in the West, under the terms of the Aldrich bill as a whole, the stringency cannot be great. It would be just as well to let the deposits flow back to the Treasury. We venture to predict that New York will take all that Chicago surrenders on those terms.

It is, nevertheless, true that the bill would lead to the selling of Government bonds and the buying of the other kinds to a pretty large amount. The price of the former would be depressed, and that of the latter augmented, but the demand for Governments is so steady and the supply so limited that this effect would be slight and only temporary. The amount of Treasury deposits in the banks now is $130,000,000 but no such amount of Government bonds could be thrown on the market by the shifting process, since every bank must hold a fixed amount of bonds under its charter requirements. The shifting process would be slow in any event.

Mr. Fowler has presented a statement to the House showing that the money in the Treasury, over and above the customary working balance of $50,000,000 and the amount already deposited in the banks, is less than $22,000,000. As we are facing a probable payment of $50,000,000 on account of the Panama Canal, there is not much danger of a contraction of the money supply, even if the bill does not pass now. What may happen during the next nine months cannot be foreseen. People have their eyes on the demand for the next crop-moving season rather than upon any present exigency. Of course, there ought not to be any Treasury surplus to dispose of; of course, the taxes ought to be cut down to the measure of the necessary expenditures. But tax reduction requires time, even when Congress is ready to take it up for practical legislation. Such is not the case now, and meanwhile the surplus may accumulate to an aggravating extent.

THE OBVERSE OF PROSPERITY.

Universal prosperity is, in some respects, like universal protection. If all are efficiently protected, nobody is protected. No one industry, that is to say, then has a tariff aid which gives it a competitive advantage. And if everybody's wages, salary, rents, freights, prices, go up equally, and their necessary expenses in the same proportion, no one is, relatively and in so far, better off than when all were equal lower down on the scale. There are, of course, other considerations, such as steadiness as well as remunerativeness of employment, which enter into the question; but in so far as prosperity consists merely in advancing income all around, with outgo increased in like proportion, the more widely and even-handedly its blessings are diffused, the more dubious do those blessings appear to be. Is it not the fact to-day that, with all classes benefiting and, as far as they are able to, benefiting equally by the continued good times, the times themselves begin to look less good? With every form of labor and manufacture and enterprise at the top notch, men look ruefully at each other, wondering who is going to fall first, and how far.

This is one form of the prevailing suspicion that prosperity is not all that it is cracked up to be. We handle more money, but we have no more to the good. Enlarged outlay eats up increased earnings. Corporations feel this as well as the individual; and we know of large building concerns, and even railway companies, whose presidents say that they hope prices and wages will break soon. One reason they do is because they perceive the risk of capitalizing their present undertakings at so high a level as the present. Building in this city, for example, costs to-day, we think it safe to say, considering the rise in wages and the higher price of materials, 20 per cent. more than in 1895. But that means that when we return to something like the conditions of eight years ago—as we shall do unless history is going to cease to copy fair its past—real-estate owners will have to take 20 per cent. less rent than they obtain to-day. If they do not, new buildings with cheaper capital and labor and materials will drive them out of the market. It is a clear view of this possibility which makes far-sighted and clear-headed men a little nervous to-day about investing more money at so high a level of capitalization that future sacrifices are certain to be necessary. They would prefer a gradual sinking to a further mounting only to fall the harder. "Well, the break can't come too soon to suit me," is the sentiment one hears expressed in a surprising number of unexpected quarters.

This thing has wider bearings. It touches the entire industrial situation of the United States. President James J. Hill shrewdly stated an apparent paradox, the other day, when he said that our very prosperity was our present chief peril, from the point of view of international trade. The foreign markets which we conquered in the desperation of our recent adversity, we are letting slip from our fingers in the complacency of our existing prosperity. The point is driven home by the Chief of the Bureau of Foreign Commerce, in his recent annual review. High prices and profits at home have made our great manufacturers neglect the foreign trade, comparatively. Domestic demand has been so enormous that everything else has been forgotten. Such vast sums as Jones & Laughlin at Pittsburgh, for example, are spending on their steel plant, are intended primarily to catch up with the home trade. Similar outlay and improvements and extensions elsewhere are certain to result in an immensely expanded production in the near future, which will not only overtake, but outstrip, the needs of the home market. It is that impending glut, along with the choked outlet abroad, in connection with which President Hill expresses a prescient fear.

Ah, but when the domestic glut comes,

we shall cheerfully resume our invasion of foreign markets. We shall again "dump" our surplus goods upon the doomed Europeans. But the process may not be so easy the second time. This is the truth which Chief Emory enforces. Europe has not been asleep, meanwhile. She does not intend to fall helpless before the "American peril" the next time. While we have been revelling in our wonderful home market, European manfacturers have been fortifying themselves against our next attack. They are bringing their plants up to date. They have taken of the best of our labor-saving and electrical machinery, and are now preparing to beat us with our own weapons. Not even our boasted tariff weapons are they neglecting to furbish up for their own use, as any one will be convinced who looks carefully at the recent tariff legislation of Germany and Austria and Russia. Those countries are confident that they will be in an impregnable position when our next frontal attack is made. In time of depression they feared us; but now that we have waxed fat on prosperity, they snap their fingers at us. These are some of the considerations which cause President Hill to dread lest a glut at home, falling in with a congested outlet abroad, may shake our industrial prosperity to its base.

To these aspects of the seamy side of prosperity, the moralist, as distinguished from the financier and the politician, could certainly add many more. The lavish habit of flush times; the lax standards for which wealth is made the sufficient apology; the premium put upon the gambling spirit; the substitution of debonair recklessness for prudence; the strengthened tendency to lean upon the Government and to curse every Administration as imbecile which does not guarantee a chicken in the pot—all these and the other moral obverses of prosperity might well be commended to the thoughtful. We may yet come, with Calhoun, to thank God for hard times as the necessary corrector of evil customs and the salutary nurse of the more rugged civic virtues.

THE NEGRO AND THE TRADE UNIONS.

The seventh number of the Atlanta University publications has just been issued under the title of 'The Negro Artisan,' edited by W. E. B. Du Bois. Of its 192 pages, 23 relate to the trade unions and negro labor. That this was a coming question, and one not easy of solution, was perceived long ago; but it was generally supposed that the economic importance and growing competition of the negro in handicrafts would open for him the door to the unions, and that the color line would gradually disappear. It is, therefore, a surprise to learn from Mr. Du Bois's investigations that the record of the American Federation of Labor toward black mechanics has been one of retrogression, and that the color line has been deepening there in recent years despite the efforts of its President, Samuel Gompers.

At the close of the civil war a wave of sympathy for the freedmen swept over the North. It affected the wage earners equally with other classes of society. In 1866 the National Labor Union officially called upon all workers "of whatever nationality, creed, or color, skilled or unskilled, . . . to join hands to the end that poverty and all its attendant evils shall be abolished." This declaration was followed by a similar one from the National Labor Congress of the following year. The next deliverance on this subject came from the Knights of Labor at their national convention in 1876, whose creed recognized no distinction of "race, creed, or color." Notwithstanding this liberal and rotund sentiment, very few Northern negroes gained admittance to trade unions, since the proceedings of the Knights were secret, and three blackballs sufficed to exclude from membership in any local Assembly. In the South, where negro artisans were more numerous, they were able to organize unions of their own, but at the annual convention held at Richmond in 1886 District Assembly 49, from New York, brought a negro delegate who proved to be the innocent source of so much trouble in hotels and theatres and on the floor of the convention that the Grand Master Workman, Mr. Powderly, had to call upon the chief of police for protection. He also made a very stirring appeal in the columns of the Richmond *Dispatch* for the rights of the black man, but the only practical response that he received was a letter from a Richmond lady offering him (Powderly) the position of coachman in place of a black one who had left her, "because," she said, "you are so much in sympathy with the negro."

The decline of interest in the negro as a trade unionist dates from this year, 1886. The Knights of Labor also began to "decline and fall off," the same year, and the American Federation of Labor began to supplant them as a national organization. President Gompers early took the position that no union affiliated with the Federation had a right to debar negroes from membership. He was not able, however, to secure obedience to this rule. It was found to be necessary in the South to have unions for whites and blacks separate from each other in most cases. Then a difficulty arose in the central bodies chartered by the Federation, which refused to receive delegates from local unions of negroes. The National Federation was unable to insist that they be received, because such insistence would have caused disruption of the central bodies. All that President Gompers could accomplish was to secure charters for central labor unions and Federal labor unions composed wholly of colored men. This was accomplished at the convention at New Orleans last November. Two additional rules of a retrograde nature are mentioned by Mr. Du Bois, but they appear to have come in force by tacit agreement, rather than by open vote. One is that a union which expressly excludes negroes by Constitutional provision may affiliate with the American Federation of Labor. The railway trackmen, telegraphers, and others are cited as being in this category. The other is that a union already affiliated with the Federation may amend its laws so as to exclude negroes. This was done by the stationary engineers at their Boston convention in 1902. As the Federation took no action in these cases, its assent is presumed.

Nevertheless, there are some unions of a national or international character which have a considerable negro membership. The largest of these is the United Mine Workers, with a black membership of 20,000 in a total of 224,000; the tobacco workers, black 1,500; the barbers, black 800; the carpenters, black 1,000. Of course, there are many more blacks in the trades named who are non-unionists, or are not affiliated with unions recognized as regular by the Federation of Labor. The Journeymen Barbers' International Union has a difficulty in Little Rock, Ark. There is a white union and a colored one there. The white union will not meet the colored one, but insists that the latter shall obey the rules established by the former. The colored union declares that it was first in the field and refuses to be "bossed." The trouble is still unsettled, and it is not the only one of its kind, nor is it confined to the South. A similar case is reported in Pennsylvania, where a local white secretary says: "We have to recognize them to hold our prices and short hours, but we find it very hard to get along with them."

It is a noticeable fact that the line of greater or less exclusion of negroes runs parallel with the greater or less degree of skill required in the respective trades. Thus, there are very few negroes found among the carpenters and joiners. In the South they have separate unions. In the great cities of the North, it is almost impossible for a negro to be admitted to the local unions, and there is no appeal from their decision. Among the teamsters, however, there are many negroes, and there is no difficulty in gaining admission, while the Hod Carriers' Union has a majority of negro members; and, as we have seen, the negro membership among the United Mine Workers and the Journeymen Barbers is large. The Longshoremen have no objection to negro members. The masons and bricklayers also have a large

colored membership in the South, and often in mixed unions. In the North, however, where there are very few colored men qualified, it is very difficult for them to gain admission. In Washington city they are not admitted at all.

If any generalization is to be drawn from the facts collected by Mr. Du Bois, it is that the trade unions will in the long run be governed by their pecuniary interests. At the outset they share the feeling of race prejudice which so largely prevails, both North and South, but they will not allow this feeling to shipwreck the greater aims of unionism. An official of the Broommakers' Union writes:

> "I am informed that some organizations refuse membership to the negro. I consider it a serious mistake, as white labor cannot expect the negro to refrain from taking better places unless we will assist him in bettering his condition."

In this sentence, probably, we find the reason why the unskilled or half-skilled trades are more open to "negro equality" than any other. The less skill required, the greater the number of possible competitors, and the greater the inducement to take the negro into partnership as a worker. When the colored men come in single files they are excluded, but when they come in battalions they are admitted to the unions. And so it must be, unless the race question is to end in bloodshed among the wage-workers themselves. The negro is making progress as an artisan. The employers have no objection to him as a worker, but rather welcome him. Therefore, his competition will be a progressive factor in the industrial world, and the question is, whether his competition shall be controlled as far as possible under union rules, or whether it shall come in conflict with unionism and take sides with the employer. When this issue becomes a serious one, it is hardly doubtful that race prejudice will yield to pecuniary interest.

A YEAR OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

To thoughtful Americans the most interesting of recent publications will be neither the latest story of marital infelicities nor the newest historical novel, but the first "Year-Book" of the Carnegie Institution of Washington. Mr. Carnegie's trustees make so complete a report that it is possible to study the actual condition and the prospects of this unique organization for research. Conservative management is plainly in evidence. The recommendations for appropriations from the annual income of $500,000 are made by eighteen small advisory committees composed of distinguished exponents of the various sciences. These committees all seem impressed with the inadvisability of duplicating the work of existing institutions, or of allowing the Carnegie fund to become an alms for causes which are able to provide for themselves. This refreshing sanity of view appears in the first declaration of the committee on geology, which is of the opinion "that research in geology is fairly well provided for by existing agencies."

Perhaps the most striking advantages of this method of coöperative investigation are illustrated in the plan of the Committee of Proposed Explorations and Investigations, for "a Biological Survey of that portion of the Old World lying north of the tropics, and technically known as the Palæarctic region." This investigation is to coördinate the mass of observations in natural history since Aristotle, treat the vexed question of the relationship between life of Northern America and Northern Europe and Asia; solve the large problem of former glacial deposits and their influence on the present distribution of life; and consider the whole matter of the historic expansion of fauna, besides many topics of more limited interest. All this is work with which no other institution is fully fitted to cope; and in a day when science tends to lose itself in mere heaping up of minute inquiries, such a plan for generalization is peculiarly inspiring.

The most ambitious programme is that of physics for a fully manned laboratory at Washington, an annual grant of $150,000 to spend at that centre, and of $100,000 to distribute to institutions and investigators throughout the country. Only an expert can judge of the propriety of such aspirations. To a layman the request for the permanent appropriation of one-half the entire income to a single science, even though it be the broadest of all, seems of a boreal coolness. With a modesty dictated by the historic view, the palæontologists seek only a journal and a few fellowships; but those who deal chiefly with fossils necessarily lack something of modern financial initiative. Similarly, the geologists ask for fellowships, and emphasize the coöperative nature of the institution by offering to lend instruments to properly accredited exploring parties. These gentlemen also exemplify a shrewdness usually denied to specialists in refusing to set subjects for research, preferring that candidates for fellowships should show their worthiness by themselves suggesting promising lines of investigation. The botanists, even if they get their "desert botanical laboratory," will hardly succeed in making the desert blossom like the rose, but they will throw new light on a kind of plant life now insufficiently understood. To complete this hurried survey, the Committee on Anthropology points out the researches into the language, religions, and customs of certain Indian tribes which must be promptly made, if at all. The phonograph—for songs and ritual—plays an interesting part in the recommendations. Those who have taken their idea of Indian religion from 'Hiawatha' will be shocked to learn that "all the [Indian] rituals are regarded as personal property, and may not be transferred except on payment of goods or money." Clearly, Mr. Carnegie's trustees must not shrink from subornation of piety.

Within the fields represented by the eighteen committees, this year-book presented by President Gilman and his associates gives abundant evidence of original and discriminating activity. But to many the largeness and evident promise of the Carnegie Institution will not disguise a certain one-sidedness. Among eighteen advisory committees, chiefly drawn from professors of the technical sciences, the single representative of the historical or humane studies is the Committee on History, unless, indeed, anthropology and psychology be included among the humanities. In the past year $185,000 was appropriated to various branches of research; of this, history got $5,000. There is an obvious disproportion here. The Carnegie Institution cannot afford to assume that the study of man's achievements in art, literature, and statecraft should occupy a position wholly subordinate to the investigation of the physical phenomena of the world. May it not be that such an institution as the American School at Athens, which, in its recent excavations of the Argive Heræum, has given us a glimpse of an artistic period hitherto unknown, and has rescued noble marbles for the pleasure of the world—may not such an institution be as worthy of assistance as a laboratory which studies the microscopic forms in sea water?

The chemists of the Institute have recommended that investigators in their subject be supplied with assistants. Would not a similar principle suggest that the numerous museums of America, which have valuable collections but funds quite insufficient to supply skilled curators, should be given the very little money that would make their resources available? Here is a field ready for the Carnegie Institution, and a field in which a very little money would produce very fruitful results. There are not a few museums where one or two supplementary salaries of $1,000 or $1,500 would double the efficiency of the staff. It may be that literary, philological, and artistic investigation is already "fairly provided for by existing agencies," but the representatives of these subjects should at least have an opportunity to join in this self-denying ordinance of the geologists. Until representatives of the humane arts and sciences have a hearing in the Carnegie Institution, its organization must be regarded as incomplete.

THE SACREDNESS OF THE TREE.

Tree-planting associations and Arbor Days are good things. It is well that

the brutally commercial spirit which considers a tree as merely so much lumber should be checked, and that the love for trees as things of beauty should be cultivated. But there are always two possible extremes between which lies the truth, and now and then one sees signs of a sentimental and almost superstitious reverence for the tree, as such, which is even absurd. It may not be an especially fine tree; it may obviously be in the wrong place; it may have grown of itself or it may have been unintelligently planted; but, once in existence, it is to be religiously respected, and to cut it down or even to move it becomes a kind of crime. It may so shade a house as to render it unhealthy for the indwellers, it may mask a beautiful prospect or disorganize a landscape composition; but it is vandalism to touch it. Let a man so much as propose to lop away the lower branches of a pine-grove, thereby opening up a noble view of mountain between the pillared trunks, and making of the needle-strewn floor a perfect playground, and he is met by the shocked protests of the very neighbors who will, a little later, learn to appreciate the far higher beauty which he has created out of mere natural wildness. Cannot we learn that the axe, too, is a good tool in the hands of an artist, and that even a beautiful tree may be, as *dirt* has been defined, "matter in the wrong place," and to be got rid of?

We have lately had a striking instance of the possible inconvenience of this survival of primitive tree-worship in the discussion of a site for Saint-Gaudens's wonderful equestrian group of Gen. Sherman. Three sites were proposed for it. In the order of preference of the artist and his architect these are: first, on Riverside Drive, before Grant's Tomb; second, the round-point at the southern end of the Mall in Central Park; third, the site, finally selected, in the Plaza at Fifth Avenue and Fifty-ninth Street. The selection of the first of these sites seems to have been prevented by jealousies with which we have, at present, no concern; but the Park Commissioners refused the second, for reasons which it may be worth while to discuss.

It might be argued, with some plausibility, that the Sherman group is not of the kind of sculpture best suited for the ornamentation of a public park, that park sculpture should be rather decorative than monumental, and that, above all, it should not be military. This, however, is a counsel of perfection. Sculpture of the purely ideal and decorative kind we do not possess, and, at present, do not seem likely to possess, and we must make the best use possible, for decorative purposes, of such memorial sculpture as people are willing to pay for. The Sherman group is superbly decorative, apart from its subject, and would richly ornament any place in which it might be put, while it would be seen to the best advantage in such a site as that proposed.

At the round-point there are four well-grown and handsome elms which it might be necessary to remove to make room for the statue and its pedestal, and this sacrifice the Commissioners were unwilling to make. They seem, also, to have thought that the statue would interfere with the effect of the Mall as a piece of landscape architecture by closing the southern end of the vista. Now there is much good designing in Central Park, but the approach to the Mall is not an example of it. The splendid double avenue which terminates magnificently, at its northern end, in the Terrace, is suddenly narrowed at the south by these four trees, and seems to leak away into the general surroundings and lead to nothing. What is distinctly wanted is just what the Sherman group would have supplied—an object of importance from and to which the vista should lead, yet an object relatively small enough not to obstruct the view. Even were no such work of art available to mark the axis of the walk, it would still be an improvement to do away with the four trees; but they are there, and the sacredness of the tree forbids that the mistake of their planting should ever be corrected.

Whatever may be the fitness or unfitness of an equestrian monument for the ornamentation of a park, no one can deny that such a monument is an appropriate ornament for an open space in a city such as is the Plaza, and to the Plaza the Sherman is to go. It is an honorable site—though the great height of the buildings which partially surround it is somewhat of a drawback; a site which might satisfy any artist were it properly prepared for the statue. Ah, but there are the trees! There are trees in the Plaza, and they must not be sacrificed. It is true that the statue will never be properly seen—but what of that? It is true that the man who should propose to plant trees in rows either side the Colleoni at Venice would be thought a lunatic—but the trees are here, and the statue shall be set between them because it is inconceivable that they should be disturbed. It is true that these are not particularly fine trees, and that far finer ones could be grown in fifty years. It is true that the Sherman group is not merely a work of art, but such a splendid and consummate work of art as has not, perhaps, been produced in four hundred years. What then? The Tree is sacred and must not be touched. The statue may suffer—the whole effect of the square may suffer—but the tree, like the American flag, must never come down.

Not that it would be necessary to use the axe. To move trees of almost any size, and to replant them safely, is, today, as has often been proved, a mere matter of expense. Money will do it, and when the city is offered a monument to one of the greatest of soldiers, which is also the masterpiece of a great sculptor, it might surely spend the money necessary to clear for it a proper site so that it may be seen and appreciated. The Plaza is not a breathing-space in a congested district where a bit of green to rest the eyes may, conceivably, be more important than any statue. It is at the very entrance of the Park, to which it would make the better contrast and preparation if it were itself bare of trees. The statue which is to be erected is so important that all else in the square will properly be its setting, and the setting ought to be appropriate to the jewel and to show it off to the best advantage. The sculptor and his architect, Mr. McKim, are both members of the commission which has been preparing plans for the beautification of Washington, and no better men could be chosen if such a commission were to be appointed for New York. Common sense would seem to point out that they, with, perhaps, one other eminent artist—architect or landscape gardener—should be invited to draw plans for such alterations in the planting and arrangement of the Plaza as would make it a fitting frame for the noble work of art which it is to contain. Alas! we seldom do the sensible thing, and it is to be feared that tree-worship will be allowed to prevent our taking advantage of a golden opportunity.

MIDWINTER LOAFING IN JAMAICA.—I.

MANDEVILLE, January 31, 1903.

It was no longer ago than Wednesday of last week that I was making my way from Cambridge to Long Wharf in Boston, over streets and walks covered with glare ice on which a heavy rain was pouring; and yet I have already been almost a week in the tropics. It is my happy lot to live among people who may fairly be called strenuous; and, whether it be that strenuousness is contagious, or temperamental, or that low temperatures and high-strung nerves go together, certain it is that high temperatures relax nerve-tension and are a better antidote for brain-fag than the venders of "Moxie" might like to have us believe. A friend whose good judgment I trust, suggested a brief trip to Jamaica; and, feeling the need of a break more than I like to admit, I followed his suggestion without ado. Kingston, although little over five degrees west of Boston, is almost twenty-five degrees south—that is, not very far from a third of the distance from pole to equator; and the voyage, accordingly, takes you through a considerable part of the gamut of ordinary climatic changes, and necessitates a corresponding variety of clothing, perhaps an ulster or a wind-proof Swedish leather jacket for the first day or two, and the lightest Bombay coat for the last days and for use on the island itself.

The voyage out, on the steamer *Admiral Farragut* of the United Fruit Company, was so strictly according to schedule as to be quite devoid of noteworthy incident,

First you have the more or less boisterous North Atlantic, and deserted dining-tables; then, at 35 degrees North, or thereabouts, smoother seas and milder breezes bring out the convalescents to their steamer-chairs; and anon glum silence gives place to song, as does the blackness of the northern water to the true sapphire blue of the tropics. At the same time, it may be noted, fasting gives place to excessive and extremely unintelligent eating. Compared to the tracks of the Liverpool liners, this is a lonely part of the ocean. We saw few ships; but passed, within easy hailing distance, the *Dewey*, which alternates with her sister ship the *Farragut* in the weekly sailings from Boston to Jamaica. By day there was little to see over the rail save the flying fish and the frequent patches of Sargasso weed. The color of the seaweed is a rich yellowish brown, and is very beautiful on the blue, though whether by reason of contrast or of harmony I cannot say. But at night, of course, there was the change in the face of the heavens that could not fail to interest star-gazers; and it may be well, in passing, to remind the traveller that nearly all of the celestial sphere may here be seen within twelve hours by observing the aspect presented just after the very brief evening twilight, and again that presented just before dawn. Most generally striking is doubtless the nearness of the North Star to the horizon. To my mind, Orion rather loses than gains in impressiveness by its greater altitude when crossing the meridian; while, on the other hand, the Scorpion, always tantalizingly low for Bostonians, can here be seen complete, even to the extremity of the magnificent "tail," and thus gains so much as to outrival in splendor the (to us) unfamiliar but much-vaunted Southern Cross.

On Sunday morning the Bahamas were in sight, and in the late afternoon we passed the eastern end of Cuba, Cape Maysi, so close as to distinguish the palms, and with daylight enough to see the verdure-clad mountains, rising from our point of view somewhat in the manner of terraces, each more distant ridge higher and higher, the often sharply serrated outlines of the loftiest being picturesquely thrown upon the background of the evening sky.

One night more of the unremitting twin-screws, and we sight the lighthouse of Port Antonio, which is our outward journey's end. Port Antonio is the principal port of the island after that of the capital, Kingston, and is some six or eight miles west of what we may call the northeast corner of the island, and lies at the head of a broad bay divided into two harbors by a lofty peninsula, and sheltered from the north by a smaller island. The west harbor is the one commonly used, and was entered by us, with the slowness of extreme caution, through a narrow channel between the small island and the peninsula. We were made fast at a little before seven on Monday morning, and the captain took out his watch and remarked facetiously that we were three minutes ahead of time. The run was about sixteen hundred miles, and was made in a few hours less than five days—quite fast enough for those who left home expressly to "go slow."

The Hotel Titchfield, conducted by the United Fruit Company, is situated on the summit of the peninsula just mentioned, and so gets the full benefit of every breeze that blows. And that is saying much; for, although we are a little nearer the equator than is Bombay, the climates of the two places are as different as two varieties of tropical climate well can be. By day there is the sea breeze (they call it "the Doctor"), and by night there is the breeze from the mountains; and between them one need not suffer from the heat. We Hyperboreans must, of course, avoid overexertion in the sun—say, between half-past ten and half-past three; but the danger of sunstroke, which is so considerable in India, seems to be nothing here.

The temperature at the coast is wonderfully equable, the largest monthly range at Kingston between June, 1880, and May, 1890, having been from 86.4° F. to 66.8°, or less than 20 degrees, and the mean range being only 17.1. On the other hand, great diversity of climatic conditions may be had by seeking the various altitudes of this extremely mountainous island. Its area is some forty-two hundred square miles, of which more than one-eighth lies at an elevation of over two thousand feet, and about a third at a level of between one and two thousand. Here at Mandeville the altitude is twenty-one hundred or more, and the place is much frequented as a sanatorium. One of my table companions is a Bostonian who, only a few minutes before the *Farragut's* sailing time, was taken to the steamer from his bed, where he had been suffering from the graver sequels of pneumonia; and in his case the mildness and dryness of the air have approved their salubrity to a striking degree. Further attractions of Jamaica for the afflicted in body are the mineral springs; these abound, but the two most noted are the Bath of St. Thomas-the-Apostle (hot sulphur springs, with a temperature of about 126° F.) and the Milk River Bath. Ample details about these and other matters that concern the island as a health resort are given in a recently published volume entitled, 'Jamaica, the New Riviera,' by James Johnston, M.D. The work is fully and well illustrated, and is serviceable as a general compend for visitors, and may be had by sending a postal order for three shillings to the author, whose address is Brown's Town, Jamaica.

For pleasurers the chief resources are walking, riding, driving, cycling, fishing, and swimming. I lost no chance for the unwonted experience of a dip in the sea in January; the bathing in ocean water at a temperature of 70° or more and the early morning walks appealing strongly to my taste. The macadam roads, barring the steepness of the hills in the mountainous districts, are exceptionally good, and fit for the bicycle, and, of course, also for recreation in the carriage (for which the usual word is "buggy") or in the saddle. There are good golf links here and at Kingston, and tennis clubs everywhere; and the Jamaican waters ought to be uncommonly attractive to yachtsmen. For cruises hereabouts, Kingston, with its excellent harbor, convenient supplies, and hospitable Royal Yacht Club, is a good starting point.

The journey hither by rail from Port Antonio takes us first westward along the coast, then southward across the mountains to Spanish Town, and finally westward and northwestward for about half the length of the main line that runs from Kingston in the southeast to Montego Bay in the northwest. At first we have many charming glimpses of the ocean; and one may see occasional "Tam O'Shanters," rocks rising for some feet above the level of the water, which has eroded the subjacent limestone in such wise as to leave a curious turban-shaped mass resting upon a slender neck-like support. The result is decidedly picturesque. Tons of once good but unmarketed cocoanuts lie rotting in great heaps, and a planter who travels with us charges the railways with unfair discrimination. For a large part of the line across the mountains, the gradients are as steep as 1 in 30, and the prospects from the heights are wide and fair.

Most of us tourists are in compartments of the third class; and there one may learn how to eat an orange without any other implement than a sharp jack-knife, and yet with entire gustatory satisfaction and neatness withal. A charming young woman once told me that the only way to eat an orange was to lock yourself in your room and eat it; and who might dare to guess how many myriads of oranges have been most unwillingly and yet resolutely declined at the tables of generous entertainers, by guests whose only reason for refusal was sheer dread of the possible embarrassments incident to their deglutition? But, with the confidence born of use, the Jamaican goes boldly to work. He pares the orange as you would an apple, in spiral zones, taking care to cut off all of the colored surface of the peel which contains the disagreeably pungent oil, and leaving everywhere enough of the white and tasteless inner portion of the peel to cover the pulp completely. This white peel serves as a kind of edible napkin, and, after you have sliced off a small segment of the sphere near and around the pole, it serves also as a juice-proof cup. Holding it right side up, you may bite into the cup without awkwardness, and enjoy its luscious contents without loss. If we could only have the fruit, as I did, half-a-dozen for a "quattie" (three cents), all tied by their stems into a bunch, and garnished with a dainty sprig of orange leaves, this knowledge might really be worth the knowing. C. R. LANMAN.

THE CHOISEULS.

PARIS, February 11, 1903.

The second volume published by M. Gaston Maugras on the Duke and Duchess de Choiseul is much superior in interest to the first, as it deals with phases of their life of a more private character, and contains more inedited documents. After having been for many years the real master of the destinies of France, Choiseul fell from power, purely in consequence of his proud attitude towards Madame du Barry, the mistress of Louis XV., who succeeded Madame de Pompadour. Choiseul had always found an ally in Madame de Pompadour, who was a very intelligent person, but he could not be reconciled to Madame du Barry, whose origin was of the lowest, and whom he considered a real adventuress. On the 24th of December, 1770, Choiseul received by the hands of M. de la Vrillière the following letter:

"I order my cousin, the Duke de Choiseul,

to place the resignation of his charge of Secretary of State and of Superintendent of the Post-office in the hands of the Duke de la Vrillière, and to retire to Chanteloup till further orders on my part.—LOUIS."

The Duke was taking his after-dinner nap when this letter reached him. He read it, went to sleep again, and, as soon as he woke, ordered his carriage to be in readiness for Chanteloup, his country-house. He had served the King for twelve years; he was never to see him again, and did not ask for a parting interview. He contented himself with writing to Louis XV. a dignified and proud account of his long administration.

The public understood at once that Choiseul had been sacrificed to the new favorite, and the emotion in Paris was intense. Choiseul's hôtel was literally besieged by the numerous friends who rushed to bid adieu to the great Minister. His departure took the proportions of a triumph; the streets were lined with people, and when the Duke and Duchess left for the Barrière d'Enfer, alone in their coach, with only Gatti, their doctor, they were accompanied all through Paris by popular acclamations. Madame de Gramont, the sister of Choiseul, was the first to rejoin him, with Lauzun, his nephew. Soon after, the exiles were joined by their intimate friend the Abbé Barthélemy and by some of their relations.

The Duchess of Choiseul left in Paris her intimate friend Madame du Deffand, her letters to whom record all the details of the life led by the exiles at Chanteloup:

"I am happy," wrote Madame de Choiseul, "and what more can I say? . . . We have very tranquil nights, and we spend all the morning in adorning ourselves with pearls and diamonds, like princesses in a novel. I have never been so well *coiffée* and so occupied with my dress as here. . . . I want to become young again, and, if possible, pretty. I will try at least to persuade Grandpapa [the name familiarly given to the Duke de Choiseul by Madame du Deffand, who called the Duchess herself ironically Grandmamma] that I am both; and as he has few objects of comparison, he will be easily taken in."

Life was very full at Chanteloup with writing, reading, amusements, and occupations of all sorts. Numerous visitors came in turn, and it soon became the fashion to make a visit to Chanteloup. The King's permission had to be asked, but after some time it could be obtained more easily than at first. Madame de Choiseul was very anxious to have a visit from Madame du Deffand, but could not induce her to leave Paris. "I must represent to you, dear Grandmamma," wrote Madame du Deffand, "that I am seventy-four years old, that I have to be escorted. You know all that, it is true; but what you do not know, perhaps, is that my head gets weaker. No memory, no possibility of any application, no understanding, no gaiety, no imagination. . . . Such is the state of your grandchild." Madame de Choiseul replies to her old friend:

"You always tell me the same thing, my dear grandchild, so I will always answer the same thing. You think that I love you out of complaisance, and that I wish to see you because I am polite. No, no! I love you because I love you. . . . I wish to see you because, rightly or wrongly, I love you. . . . If your head gets weaker, it will be more like mine, for I never had any. . . . If you are seventy-four years old, it is just the reason why you should live in a château, where you will find, as it suits you, either company or solitude."

I cite only a few lines of this charming letter from a most charming and excellent person; and truly it is but a sample of all her letters. The new volume of M. Maugras may be said to be a triumph for the memory of this admirable person, a model of all the virtues in the lightest society and the most frivolous time.

The château of Chanteloup deserves a description. It is situated in a beautiful country, overlooking the valley of the Loire. It was originally composed of a great central house with two pavilions at the extremities, from which ran two fine galleries with arcades ending also in pavilions. Choiseul, during his long exile, added two aisles, and thus formed a large court of honor. M. Maugras gives the most minute details regarding the inner apartments and their furniture, which was composed exclusively of those charming specimens of the art of the 18th century which are now bought at extravagant prices by collectors. There were some remarkable pictures on the walls, by Bassano, Canaletto, Boucher, etc. One of Boucher's pictures, "Apollo Pursuing a Shepherdess," was painted in 1730 at the time of Choiseul's marriage. The Duke was represented as Apollo, the Duchess as the shepherdess. There were several views of Rome, painted when the Duke was Ambassador in the Holy City.

Chanteloup, I repeat, became a sort of Mecca. "It was," says Horace Walpole, "a new spectacle for France to see a fallen minister remain an object of veneration and of love; it was a new thing also to see the King becoming unpopular, or, what is synonymous in this country, out of fashion. Louis XV. was becoming almost isolated at Versailles; there was always a crowd at Villers-Cotterets, the country house of the Duke d'Orléans, at Chantilly, the country-place of the Condés, and at Chanteloup. Chancellor Maupeou, who had dissolved the Parlement of Paris and made, by a sort of *coup d'état*, a new Parlement (which the people called the Parlement Maupeou), was dissatisfied with the leniency of Louis XV. in allowing everybody to pay a visit to Chanteloup. "At my age," said Louis XV. to the Duke d'Aiguillon, "people only want rest."

Maupeon advised Madame du Barry to buy the magnificent portrait of Charles I., by Van Dyck. She sold it afterwards to the King, and had it placed in the gallery through which Louis XV. went every morning to mass, so that he should meditate on the results of weakness. When Choiseul had to leave the Cabinet, he retained his office, which was very important in a pecuniary point of view, of Colonel-Général des Suisses (it stood him in 100,000 livres a year). After some time he was notified that this office had been taken away from him. The King's orders were transmitted to him one evening, when he was sitting quietly in the salon of Chanteloup, with the usual company. By way of compensation the King gave the Duke 110,000 francs in pensions. The post of Colonel-Général was given to the Count d'Artois. The Duke had to make great economies in his domestic arrangements. He sold his gallery of pictures. He had left his ministry two millions in debt (he had never touched for his own use the large sum which was dedicated to the secret service, as many of his predecessors had done); he had spent a great part of his wife's fortune. The sale of the pictures produced 443,000 livres only. "If," wrote Grimm, "they had belonged to an obscure man, they would not have fetched more than 25,000 livres." If they were sold at the present time, it is difficult to say how much they would fetch, but the sum would certainly be vastly superior to that obtained in 1772. The Duchess sold her diamonds, and, in order to protect the remainder of her personal fortune, she had to procure a sentence, at the request of her husband, of "séparation de biens," pronounced by the Châtelet of Paris on the 21st of May, 1772.

Madame du Deffand at last consented, after many tergiversations, to go to Chanteloup. She writes from there:

"The life led here suits me perfectly; one has the greatest liberty, it is the tone of the house. No compliments, no getting up for anybody; one stays in his own room or goes to the salon. You talk to whomever you like, you breakfast at all hours. At five or six o'clock, shooting or walking; supper at eight o'clock—excellent food, eighteen or twenty people at table. The first-comers seat themselves as they like; one arrives when one likes; there is no waiting for anybody. On leaving the table the mail is distributed; each one reads his own in private. News is exchanged. Cards begin; one plays, or not. . . . The conversation is very animated and agreeable, as there are many witty and companionable people."

Mme. du Deffand was afraid of being scolded by Walpole for undertaking the journey to Chanteloup; he wrote to her a severe letter, and she almost excused herself to him. She left Chanteloup after a stay of five weeks, and travelled back to Paris by very short stages. She had, she said, the malady of old age, which drives people back to their own domicile. "It is this dreadful malady which tore me away from Chanteloup. . . . I never loved Grandmamma so much, I never was so happy. . . . I have exchanged the golden age for the iron age."

The Baron von Gleichen was an old friend of the Choiseuls and made them a visit. M. Maugras enters into infinite details on all these visits, on the little incidents of the life of the exiles, on their theatrical representations, on the relations of Madame de Choiseul with her sister-in-law, Madame de Gramont. Notwithstanding all the visits they received and their numerous correspondents, life was beginning to become rather tedious to the exiles. Curiously enough, Madame du Deffand had suddenly a sort of divination: she predicted to her grandmamma that she should soon see her again, but not at Chanteloup—in Paris, in the Hôtel de Choiseul, rue de Richelieu; and so she adds: "Keep this letter, in order that it may remind you of my prediction." The Duchess answers her: "This is too strong; it savors of inspiration. What! I shall see you this very winter, and we are already in the middle of March? If you have told the truth, I shall be afraid of you. I shall believe that you are intimately in league with either God or the Devil." A month after, the prediction became a reality. Louis XV. fell ill of smallpox, and died on the 10th of May, 1774. This date marked the end of the exile of the Choiseuls.

Correspondence.

WE ARE THE SAINTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your remarks upon the comment of the Paris *Temps* regarding the "general moral slump" in the treatment of the inferior races, you interpret the same as "a necessary reflex of the wave of Imperialism and conquest which has swept over the whole world within the last decade." That there is some close connection between the two phenomena seems, indeed, very probable. But, as myself anti-Imperialist, may I be allowed to suggest that the deeper question yet remains, Whence the wave of Imperialism? Shall we explain the slump by the wave, or the wave by the slump, or both by some *tertium quid?*

To me the cause seems to lie far down in a general frame of the post-Darwinian, more especially post-Weismannian, mind. It belongs to the *Zeitgeist* and the scientific spirit; it follows from the perception, whether real or imagined, of the lordship of heredity in history and in life. Time was when the doctrine that God had made of one blood all the nations was taken seriously, when the backward races were looked upon as younger brothers of the family. Only give them opportunity—freedom, education, true religion—and they would speedily approve themselves coheirs and coequals. But all this has passed away. Rightly or wrongly, modern science proclaims, *Blood will tell.* Though the children of men be as the sands of the seashore, it is only the remnant shall be saved. Only the elect belong to history; all the rest are rejected as dross from its fierce-heated furnace. All the *extra-organic* agencies of civilization, though by no means valueless, though they may and should secure the best possible result from given material, from certain definite potentialities, are yet powerless against the prepotence of the germ-plasma. They are hemmed within the narrow circle of the present generation; they may induce, but not ingrain, qualities or make them transmissible.

It seems impossible that the widespread acceptance of such dogmas should not harden the fibres of the general mind. The savant regards the plight of the organically inferior races as practically hopeless. Easier to loose the bands of Orion than the fetters which inheritance has forged for the racial soul. The hope of the future lies in perfecting the Strong, not in strengthening the Weak. The Nature-process may seem harsh and cruel and unholy, but it scorns our petty categories; it is beyond good and evil; it is beyond right and wrong. When such ideas, consciously or unconsciously, begin to rule in the head, it is well to be on guard against a stern and haughty and unsympathetic heart; Imperialism and Nietzsche are not far away. But pity supreme will yet assert itself, and in some way effect a reconciliation of science and humanity.

William Benjamin Smith.

Tulane University, New Orleans,
February 23, 1903.

[It may be instructive to recall the attitude of the apostle of heredity and natural selection towards the backward races. In chapter ii. of Mr. Darwin's 'Journal of a Voyage' (the scene is Brazil), one reads:

"As it was growing dark we passed under one of the massive, bare and steep hills of granite which are so common in this country. This spot is notorious from having been, for a long time, the residence of some runaway slaves, who, by cultivating a little ground near the top, contrived to eke out a subsistence. At length they were discovered, and, a party of soldiers being sent, the whole were seized with the exception of one old woman, who, sooner than again be led into slavery, dashed herself to pieces from the summit of the mountain. In a Roman matron this would have been called the noble love of freedom; in a poor negress it is mere brutal obstinacy."

"While staying at this estate, I was very nearly being an eye-witness to one of those atrocious acts which can only take place in a slave country. Owing to a quarrel and a lawsuit, the owner was on the point of taking all the women and children from the male slaves, and selling them separately at the public auction at Rio. . . . I may mention one very trifling anecdote, which at the time struck me more forcibly than any story of cruelty. I was crossing a ferry with a negro who was uncommonly stupid. In endeavoring to make him understand, I talked loud and made signs, in doing which I passed my hand near his face. He, I suppose, thought I was in a passion and was going to strike him; for instantly, with a frightened look and half-shut eyes, he dropped his hands. I shall never forget my feelings of surprise, disgust, and shame at seeing a great powerful man afraid even to ward off a blow directed, as he thought, at his face. This man had been trained to a degradation lower than the slavery of the most helpless animal."

In chapter xxi.:

"On the 19th of August we finally left the shores of Brazil. I thank God I shall never again visit a slave country. . . . Near Rio de Janeiro I lived opposite to an old lady who kept screws to crush the fingers of her female slaves. I have stayed in a house where a young household mulatto, daily and hourly, was reviled, beaten, and persecuted enough to break the spirit of the lowest animal. I have seen a little boy, six or seven years old, struck thrice with a horse-whip (before I could interfere) on his naked head, for having handed me a glass of water not quite clean. I saw his father tremble at a mere glance from his master's eye."

In chapter ix.:

"This posta was commanded by a negro lieutenant, born in Africa; to his credit be it said, there was not a ranche between the Colorado and Buenos Ayres in nearly such neat order as his. . . . A short time before, a body of Indians had travelled past in the night; if they had been aware of the posta, our black friend and his four soldiers would assuredly have been slaughtered. I did not anywhere meet a more civil and obliging man than this negro; it was therefore the more painful to see that he would not sit down and eat with us."

We have no fear that our last extract will appear an anti-climax south of Mason and Dixon's Line, where to be shocked at cruelty is both more intelligible and more pardonable than to be pained by caste distinctions at table, even when voluntarily observed in deference by "inferiors."—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Darwin ('Origin,' pt. 2, chap. 21) says:

"But since he [man] attained to the rank of manhood, he has diverged into distinct races. . . . Some of them—for instance, the negro and the European—are so distinct that, if specimens had been brought to a naturalist without any further information, they would undoubtedly have been considered by him as good and true species."

The importance of the subject (since no one may to-day doubt that racial lowering is the unpardonable sin against Nature, and consequently that such measures as have any tendency thereto are, however lofty their motives, in the gravest catalogue of political error) will, I trust, warrant my asking what weight and bearing you attach to an unchallenged statement, of the nature of this of Mr. Darwin, in the question of negro officeholding, etc., etc., so warmly advocated in your last issue.

Yours respectfully, B. S.

Philadelphia, February 26, 1903.

[Mr. Darwin is arguing from the confessed brotherhood of man against the doctrine of fixed species, and raises no question of superior or inferior in the "distinction." The "weight and bearing" of his "unchallenged statement" on his own behavior towards races distinct from the European is shown in the extracts given above. That "racial lowering" which has produced our parti-colored Southern population went on in a state of slavery, was never deemed reprehensible by those responsible for it, and was a sin not against Nature, but against human nature, being effected through lust and force. Nature knows no forward or backward races, fauna or flora.—Ed. Nation.]

THE BETTER THOUGHT OF THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In view of the prominence which the *Nation* has given recently to the discussion of the "race problem" in the South, will you kindly publish this paragraph from the letter of February 24 of the Charlotte (N.C.) *Observer's* Raleigh correspondent?

"An unfavorable report was made in the [North Carolina] Legislature to-day on a bill providing that each race can be separately taxed to increase its school facilities, and allowing the taxation of each race separately for its schools."

This is probably the end of the agitation of this measure, which was begun in the State several years ago, but which has been opposed vigorously and consistently by the Governor of the State, the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the leading educators and public men of the State.

G. S. W.

Westminster, Md., February 24, 1903.

ONE FRIENDLY WORD FOR THE FILIPINOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With reference to the letter entitled "One Complexion for All Rebels," in your issue of January 22, I should like to be allowed to say that at least one American officer at the seat of the war wrote letters which gave a very different account of the Filipinos from that which Lord Percy gave of the fighters for American independence. I may say that my corre-

spondent is one of the most distinguished officers in the United States Army, and that, after winning new distinction in the struggle with the Filipinos, he was entrusted with an important civil post. This is what he said:

"Future history, posterity, will never justify or condone our course over here unless we make it patent to the world, and to the natives themselves, that our coming has been a blessing to them; and I am not sanguine as to this. The great moral peril, in my opinion, of the republic is the temptation to exploit for our own benefit the inferior races. I hope, however, or try to hope, that our policy may be shaped by the best Americans instead of by the composite American; that the stream may rise, or seem to rise, a little higher than its source. The natives here are a kindly race, with the impulses, good as well as bad, common to our human brotherhood and sisterhood. Their position is a very pathetic one. Remembering your generous sympathy for the struggles and perplexities of the Italians, I am tempted to write at length about the Filipinos; but it would require a pamphlet instead of a letter, and I forbear. It is a hopeful sign that the United States has made a vigorous beginning in the establishment of schools, and that the natives seem anxious to learn."

I may add that the English officers who have returned from South Africa all speak with friendliness and even with enthusiasm of the Boers.—Yours respectfully,

EVELYN MARTINENGO CESARESCO.

SALÒ, LAGO DI GARDA, February 17, 1903.

THE SUPREMACY OF THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My friend Mr. Albert Dicey, in his work on Constitutional Law, the sixth edition of which I have been reading, treats the power of the British Parliament as perfectly sovereign and unlimited. So do other writers on the subject. But is this absolutely correct? At the head of the statute-book stands the Great Charter, which, though Parliament repeatedly confirmed it, is not an Act of Parliament, but a fundamental covenant between the Crown and nation. "The Great Charter," says Stubbs, "is the act of the united nation, the Church, the Barons, and the Commons for the first time thoroughly at one." Is not, then, the authority on which the Charter rests one external and superior to Parliament? Is not the Charter still binding? Much of it, of course, is obsolete. Not so the famous article forbidding the infliction of any penalty on a layman without the judgment of his peers, which is plainly disregarded when the Crown is allowed, in exercise of an assumed prerogative of proclaiming martial law, to inflict upon freemen the punishment of death or other penalties by military tribunals. The question is at least curious.

GOLDWIN SMITH.

FITZGERALD AS A PROPHET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of February 19, 1903, you printed a note from Mr. Alfred L. Ripley, who quoted this remark made by Edward FitzGerald in 1840, on Carlyle's 'French Revolution': "I don't know a book more certain to evaporate away from posterity than that, except it be supported by his other works." Mr. Ripley says amen to this in these words: "Few literary prophecies can show more complete justification than this, sixty odd years after utterance."

One would like to ask what Mr. Ripley considers a test of evaporation? During the past six or seven years I have seen seven new issues of Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' some of them printed in popular form and having a large circulation. There have doubtless been editions which I have not seen. An examination of publishers' sales throughout the English-speaking world since 1895 would probably show that the 'French Revolution' has outsold during this period any other historical work, old or new, printed in English. For any work to show such vitality sixty-five years after its first appearance, can hardly be taken as a sign that it has "evaporated." Most authors would be content if they could be assured of such "evaporation."

Mr. Ripley may like to know, further, that recently 'Sartor Resartus' has been reprinted in popular editions, selling at a few pence a copy, and has been sold by the hundred thousand in Great Britain.

Let us get all the delight we ought from quaint FitzGerald, but don't let us make a prophet of him, or somebody will be reminding Mr. Ripley that FitzGerald found 'Pendennis' stupid, and the songs in "The Princess" poor, and "In Memoriam" far below the volumes of 1842, and that he regarded Crabbe as a great poet and had an unusual admiration for Barton. FitzGerald's forte as a critic was genuineness, not infallibility. His likes and dislikes were a part of himself; they were not regulated by rules laid down in literary histories.

But perhaps Mr. Ripley attaches an esoteric meaning to "evaporation" which does not appear from his letter.

WILLIAM ROSCOE THAYER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 23, 1903.

Notes.

In preparation at the Clarendon Press, Oxford, are 'Oxford Art Collections,' being reproductions of drawings by the old masters preserved in the collections of the University and of Christ Church, with introductions and annotations by Sidney Colvin; 'The Letters of Horace Walpole,' edited by Mrs. Paget Toynbee, in sixteen volumes, with numerous portraits; 'Elizabethan Critical Essays (1570-1603),' edited in two volumes by G. Gregory Smith; 'The Mediæval Stage,' by E. K. Chambers, also in two volumes; 'The Early History of Baptism,' by Clement F. Rogers; 'Sources of Roman History,' by A. H. J. Greenidge and A. M. Clay; 'French Versification,' by L. K. Kastner; 'Napoleonic Statesmanship: Germany,' by H. A. L. Fisher; and the third series of Dr. Moore's 'Studies in Dante.'

Forthcoming from D. Appleton & Co. are 'The History of Puerto Rico,' by R. A. Van Middledyk, with an introduction by Prof. M. G. Brumbaugh; Lavignac's 'Musical Edution,' translated by Esther Singleton; and 'The Autobiography of Joseph Le Conte.'

Henry Holt & Co.'s spring announcements embrace a translation of Auguste Fournier's 'Napoleon I.,' under the editorship of Prof. E. G. Bourne of Yale, and equipped with a critical bibliography of Napoleonic literature; 'An Atlas of European History,' by Prof. Earle W. Dow of the University of Michigan; 'Variations in Animals and Plants,' by Dr. H. M. Vernon of Oxford; Tarde's 'Law of Imitation,' translated by Elsie Clews Parsons, Ph.D.; and an Italian grammar by Prof. Mary V. Young.

The rather remarkable announcement comes from Copenhagen that two editions of the writings of the Icelandic poet and novelist Gestur Pálsson are to appear shortly—one, containing only the poetical works, in Reykjavik; the other, including, in addition to the complete original works in poetry and prose, a number of translations from different languages, in Winnipeg. This fuller edition will be in four volumes, of about 250 pages each, and it will be published by a number of Icelanders in Winnipeg, the possible profits to be used to erect a suitable monument over the author's grave. Pálsson was in some respects perhaps the most original of the recent Icelandic writers. He excelled in the short story, the form by which he is best known to foreign readers, his vein being as a rule satirical. He was born on the west coast of Iceland in 1852, his father being a poor peasant. From 1875 to 1882 he studied at the University of Copenhagen, and on his return home he became editor of a weekly newspaper published at the capital. In 1890 he went to Winnipeg as editor of an Icelandic paper published there, and died the following summer. The attention of all interested in modern Icelandic literature is directed to the unselfish effort of these Winnipeg Icelanders to honor the memory of their brilliant countryman.

Consolidation is announced of the firms of E. & J. B. Young & Co. and Thomas Nelson & Sons, under the corporate name of Thomas Nelson & Sons.

The sixth volume of Hearne's 'Remarks and Collections' (Oxford Historical Society) contains, in addition to the usual antiquarian lore, a number of particulars of interest to those who are concerned about the history of Maryland. It appears that Hearne made the acquaintance at Oxford of Benedict Leonard Calvert, younger brother of the fifth Lord Baltimore (and later Governor of Maryland), then a student at Christ Church. Finding him a young gentleman of estimable character, scholarly attainments, and a very creditable respect for antiquities, Hearne conceived a strong regard for him, and obtained from him many particulars about the Calvert family, some of which seem to have escaped the notice of biographers. In particular, he copies out a pedigree of the family, drawn up for him by young Calvert, by which we can correct some errors that have crept into the books, and (in one case at least) found admission even into the 'Dictionary of National Biography' and the 'New International Encyclopædia.'

'The Boy's Iliad,' by Walter C. Perry (Macmillan), is a well-told story in simple, flowing language, which retains the Homeric ring and flavor. A novel and commendable feature is that the strictly Homeric tale is rounded out by a narrative of the incidents which precede and follow the story of the Iliad, such as the education of Achilles, the episode of Penthesilea, and

the ruse of the wooden horse. The illustrations are attractive, and there is a good index which mingles instruction with pleasure by careful marking of quantities. The book will appeal to boys and girls under twelve, and possibly somewhat older; and they will easily penetrate the disguise under which Aias and Aineias and Aiakides present themselves.

Part VIII. of Prof. R. F. Harper's 'Assyrian and Babylonian Letters' appears as one of "The Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago." The first part appeared in 1892. His intention, as announced, is to publish the cuneiform texts of all the letters contained in the Kouyunjik collections of the British Museum, which have been catalogued by Bezold, in perhaps sixteen small volumes, and to follow this by a similar publication of translations and notes, with a glossary, occupying as many volumes more. It is a monumental work, but, unlike monumental works of the olden time, it appears in small and handy volumes (octavos, 6x9) of about 150 pages each. Each page contains the text of one letter, with the name of the scribe as a page heading. There are very elaborate and modern indices, four in all, and double-page headings for the volume and for the series. The letters are arranged according to the names of the scribes by whom they were written. This volume brings us down to letter 876. The series, which represents much hard, dry, mechanical labor in copying the most difficult description of manuscripts, is a welcome addition to the material available to the Assyriologist for linguistic study, and the promised volumes of translations should make it valuable for politico-social and historical investigators.

The list of books written by Japanese in European languages is already a respectable one, and two recently issued from the press of Z. P. Maruya & Co. in Tokio are worthy of notice. The interesting work of Mr. I. Hitomi, entitled 'Le Japon: Essai sur les Mœurs et les Institutions,' has reached its second edition. Its 200 pages contain choice and condensed information concerning the political history, religion, fine arts, literature, music, and manners of the author's countrymen. He has a scholar's knowledge of the traditions and the mediæval and modern story of Japan, besides being fairly well acquainted with European literature and with the ideas of Occidentals, but he lacks or declines to use criticism of authority. Hence his credulity as to the origins of the Japanese and of ancient history in the archipelago is almost childish. In an appendix are some useful tables and figures. Mr. Kuré, the compiler of a useful little book (pp. 78), entitled 'History and Theory of Statistics,' says in his introduction: "I have chosen English, as it is the most popular and important foreign language in our country." Making use of the best British and German authorities, he discusses the history of the science, or perhaps we should say the method, of statistics, its contents and procedure, points out the snares and dangers of unscientific handling of figures and reports, and thus furnishes for his countrymen a useful handbook which will aid them in a line of intellectual industry increasingly in favor in Japan.

A compact duodecimo of 300 pages bears the title 'Handbuch der Bibliographie' (Vienna: Hartleben; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The author, Friedrich Johann Kleemeier, has aimed at a brief introduction to the practical knowledge of books and to cataloguing. He surveys in sixty pages the origin and spread of the art of printing; next takes up the book in the elements of its manufacture, gives a section to collating and another to incunabula; passes to illustrations; and yields nearly half his space to the forming of collections, arrangement, cataloguing, repairs, etc. A convenient appendix is a Latin-German index of early city imprints, from Aarhusium (Aarhuus) to Zwolla (Zwolle), and there is another of abbreviations pertaining to books. The "Literatur" or bibliography proper fills fifty pages, and is no slight recommendation of this business-like manual.

Descendants of Stephen Hopkins of the *Mayflower* will be interested in Mr. George Ernest Bowman's unbiassed discussion of the identity of the daughter Damaris in the January numbers of the *Mayflower Descendant* (Boston). Mr. Bowman plausibly argues that the Damaris brought over died early, and was succeeded by a namesake born on this side of the water.

Those who are curious to judge for themselves the new reputed portrait of Dante, by Orcagna, in the Cappella degli Strozzi, in Santa Maria Novella, Rome, will find a good copy of it in the Roman weekly "review of reviews," *Minerva* (issue of February 8). The profile is to right, and the head above the lower part of the forehead is concealed by a hat.

The work of the U. S. Hydrographic Office is described in the *National Geographic Magazine* for February by its chief, Commander Southerland. A brief sketch of the history and organization is followed by an account of the surveys by the navy, the tangible results of which are 1,250 charts available for permanent issue. By this means not only have our maritime interests been benefited, but the efficiency of the navy has been increased by educating the officers' powers of observation and familiarizing them with coast work. During the last fiscal year 24 naval vessels have been engaged in practical surveying operations in many parts of the world. At three of the branch stations night lectures on navigation are given to shipmasters, and notices affecting navigation are issued at the rate of about fifty a week. The Pilot Chart of the North Atlantic Ocean for February, 1903, accompanies the article. Mr. W. E. Curtis gives a sketchy and not entirely accurate account of Bosnia, Bulgaria, and Servia, the impressions of a recent visit to those countries. His references to Russia's part in the recent history of these Balkan states seem out of place in a scientific magazine whose editor and nine of his associates are United States officials. There is a reassuring statement from the Weather Bureau in regard to the rapid decline of the water level of Great Salt Lake during the past few years which has caused much apprehension to the people of northern Utah. It is due wholly to the failure of precipitation during a dry cycle of sixteen years which may terminate next year, and not to the artificial irrigation of 609 square miles.

The *Geographical Journal* for February begins with an account of explorations in Western China, by Capt. Ryder, to find the best route for a projected railway between Burmah and the province of Yunnan. This region, though rich in mineral wealth of every kind, and possessing land capable of bearing two crops annually, has not recovered from the devastation caused by the Mohammedan rebellion thirty years ago. Everywhere are to be seen "half-deserted towns and ruined villages." There was little opposition on the part of the Chinese to the survey, but Capt. Ryder received this significant warning from a coolie: " 'Sir, take my advice; get out of China as quick as you can. This year will be a bad year for foreigners in China.' This was in January: the troubles in North China [1,500 miles distant] commenced in May." Carl Lumholtz gives a too brief summary of his five years' researches in northwestern Mexico, mainly under the auspices of the American Museum of Natural History of New York. But we shall have occasion shortly to speak of his published work on this subject. Among the book reviews is a most appreciative notice of Dr. Furness's 'Home Life of the Borneo Head-Hunters,' by Dr. A. C. Haddon, head of the Cambridge Anthropological expedition to Borneo, who says that "to one who has travelled over the same ground, it recalls many similar experiences, and deserves unqualified praise for accuracy alike of fact and impression."

In the *Annales de Géographie* for January is a summary of the recent investigations of plankton, those animal or vegetable organisms which live on the surface of salt or fresh water, or at a depth more or less great, but without touching the bottom. They are economically valuable in that "their abundance is one of the factors determining the productive power of the ocean for all species, and particularly those which are edible." In an illustrated description of a section of the valley of the lower Amazon it is said that the rubber industry is driving out agriculture, and "giving to an absolutely new region the aspect of an old country falling into decay. . . . The cultivation, formerly so prosperous, of rice, indigo, coffee, cotton, is almost abandoned," and the pure food products, grain, manioc, farina, are so neglected that "the people are now liable, a thing incredible, to be visited by veritable famines, as was the case in 1901." Other articles are upon the new English and German pilot charts, in which high praise is extended to the rich and varied work of our Hydrographic Office, on the trans-Mantchurian railway, and the oscillations of the west coast of Brittany. There is also a colored map in three sheets showing the new boundary between Chile and Argentina.

Mr. Robert T. Swan's fifteenth report on the custody and condition of the Public Records of Massachusetts has the same title as its predecessors to widespread attention. It is particularly valuable for its summary of the statutes defining the reciprocal duties of the Commission and the custodians of records (even when these are church records, in the contingency of a dissolution). In a body of fresh information we are told that the town of Medford has an index of its records from the year 1673, and a card index of "the record of every birth, intention of marriage, and death," with a reference to "every baptism and marriage on the records of the First Parish, beginning in 1712," to gravestone inscriptions in old cemeteries, and to family Bibles and genealogies. Since the establishment of the

Commission, no town has lost all its records, and but two volumes for which there are no substitutes have been destroyed by fire. The "State Standard Ink" formula has been adopted by the United States Treasury Department, and the authorized type-writer ribbons have withstood a very severe test of exposure to sunlight.

Dr. Livingstone is accused by Kruger in his Memoirs of having aided the Kaffirs in their struggles with the Boers by having in his house "a complete workshop for the repairs of firearms and a multitude of war materials, which Livingstone kept stored up for Secheli's use." The falsity of this charge is convincingly proved by the Rev. J. S. Moffat, brother-in-law of the great missionary, and for many years a South African official, in an interesting letter to the London *Times* full of personal reminiscences. Referring to the Sand River convention of 1852, forbidding the supply of arms or ammunition to the natives, which Kruger says Livingstone violated, Moffat asserts: "To my certain knowledge, the Boers have done a very large share in arming the natives themselves." It surely ill becomes Mr. Kruger "to try to asperse the memory of a man whose one object in life was to do his duty to the sorrowful and oppressed races of the dark continent."

The death of the chief Ultramontane *politicus*, Dr. H. J. A. M. Schaepman of Holland, at Rome, January 21, removes from the Lower House of the States-General the most conspicuous member of the Catholic wing of the anti-revolutionary (fusion) party, which won a victory at the polls in the summer of 1901, overthrowing the old Liberal party and installing Dr. Abraham Kuyper, an ultra-Calvinist, as Dutch Premier. Apart from Dr. Schaepman's acknowledged political ability, both as orator, campaign manager, and organizer of forces in the House, he enjoyed a unique reputation in the Dutch-speaking world for his exquisite prose style, his poems, and his numerous literary productions, which were remarkable alike for their clearness, strength, and finish. Born in 1844, he received his doctorate at Rome in 1869, and entered the Catholic Seminary at Rysenburg as professor in 1869, and the House of Representatives in 1880. The later years of his life, as professor in the seminary at Rysenburg and as editor of *Our Watchman* and *Het Centrum* (The Centre), were marked by intense activity. He was one of the prominent figures during the coronation festivities of 1898, having already been admitted into and decorated with the insignia of most of the Dutch royal orders. One volume of his poems is in the fourth edition. Since 1901, he had been house-prelate and prothonotary in the papal household. The Dutch-Americans as well as the Netherlands bemoan the fact that, his writings being in Dutch, his literary light is hidden under a bushel.

—The appeal of the March *Century* is primarily to the man of affairs. Ray Stannard Baker opens the number with the first paper of a series on "The Great Northwest," following the same general lines as his series of last year on the Southwest. Ernest Blumenschein replaces Maxfield Parrish as the illustrator. Jacob A. Riis writes of the "Gateway of Nations" (Ellis Island), while Gustave Michaud and Prof. Franklin H. Giddings discuss the question "What Shall We Be?" in view of the various elements constantly pouring through this gateway. The English language and the traditions of the English law, we are told, will remain. The thought and the social life of the people must be largely influenced by the admixture. But the outlook is hopeful. "The proportions will be such as to make a people strong and plastic—with possibilities of action and expression, of grasp upon the garnered experience of the race, and of daring outreach into the things that as yet have never been, such as no people has yet shown." Will Payne writes of the Chicago Board of Trade, describing the exciting operations of the grain market, and arguing strongly for the general advantage to be gained from the speculative dealing in grain, which makes of wheat "a liquid asset everywhere in the United States." For this reason, and this alone, we are told, the grain grower can borrow on his wheat from 75 to 85 per cent. of its current price, while on the land upon which it was grown he cannot obtain more than 50 or 60 per cent. The "so-called" Tobacco Trust is described by George Buchanan Fife, and Herman Justi makes a plea for the organization (as distinguished from consolidation) of capital as the best means of dealing fairly and successfully with organized labor.

—Henry Augustus Rowland being a name upon which attention will inevitably be arrested in any extensive future history of the development of human knowledge, the future reader of that history may ask, "How came such a tree to grow to such proportions in such a soil?" Well, it happened that the duty of tending that tree fell upon a university president of such singular discernment as not to take fright at meeting with a real live man, a man obtrusively and naïvely real and personal; and so the tree was supplied with the desirable fertilizer, and quite indispensable vacancy, without which its growth might have been vigorous, but never could have attained to largeness and symmetry. Had Rowland been a growth of French soil, the publication of his complete works would have been undertaken by the Government, and would have been executed in such style as seemed worthy of a nation in the van of civilization. Let us hope that some complete publication may somehow be made yet. Meantime we receive from the Johns Hopkins University a cheapish reprint ('The Physical Papers of Henry Augustus Rowland') of his experimental works, some of them too much abridged to answer all the purposes of the critical student. The volume contains, besides, some public addresses and other writings which we are thankful to find thus made available. Those works by which Rowland most stirred physical thought, and upon which his place among those American physicists who, since Rumford, have influenced fundamental conceptions (if any other such there be), must mostly depend, are omitted. It is said, in excuse for this strange method, that Rowland himself did not desire the republication of those papers. We are not told why; but Rowland certainly did not depart from the usual type of genius in that his judgment was less sure than that of ordinary men. Those who knew him would not be surprised to hear that he had passed through a phase in which, like Pascal, he thought mathematics an idle amusement. But this should not have influenced the editors.

—'Tolstoy as Man and Artist,' by Dmitri Merejkowski (G. P. Putnam's Sons), embraces also an essay on Dostoyevski. The book is critical as well as biographical, and, if it were more readable, would attract a great deal of notice, for, to mention only one point, the picture drawn of Tolstoy is quite different from that which the ordinary reader of 'War and Peace' and 'The Kingdom of God is within You' have formed. We will not go so far as to say that Merejkowski seeks to represent Tolstoy as a humbug, but there are many pages in his book which will be painful to those to whom Tolstoy is seer and prophet, *e. g.*, when he is referred to as "lying on his back and wailing in the high grass, as you and I and all the rest of us." We are very much disinclined to be drawn into any "appreciation" of Merejkowski, for we are not at all sure as to what the intention of his volume is. It is obscure, involved, contradictory, and exaggerated, and at the same time argumentative, if not contentious—a bad assemblage of qualities for critical writing. Dostoyevski is contrasted with Tolstoy as "the artist most contrary" to the latter "in the literature of all ages and natures." This is a specimen of our author's exaggeration. Certainly the two writers do not belong to the same school, but, as this critic very well knows, they are akin; in the next line he declares they are "not alien." On the whole, the volume is disappointing. It arouses expectations, but does not satisfy them.

—The last Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains the second report of the excavation of Gezer. Mr. Macalister has uncovered an ancient megalithic temple consisting "of a row of seven monoliths, with an eighth standing apart, and flanked by stumps of two others"; the first megalithic monument ever unearthed. The large stones in this monument vary in height from seven to almost eleven feet. The holy stone *par excellence* is not one of these giants, but a stone about the height of a man, five feet five, the upper end somewhat pointed and rubbed smooth by the kissing, anointing, or other handling of the worshippers. The form of this stone and that of some of the larger stones which support and, as it were, honor it, indicates the ideas of nature worship connected with this temple, and the abundant votive objects found in and about these stones make clear the character of that worship. Mr. Macalister also found in connection with this temple what seemed to be evidences of child sacrifice. He traces the history of this temple, if such a primitive, uncovered place of worship may be called a temple, from a prehistoric period, 2000 B. C., or earlier, on to about 600 B. C. From present evidence it seems to have been a sanctuary of the early Semitic inhabitants, worship at which continued after the Hebrew conquest, although the size of the temple diminished—an evidence of diminished importance. After the captivity, the site lost its sanctity—evidence again of the thoroughgoing monotheism of the post-exilic period. Among the other interesting discoveries reported are the remains of a primitive population, troglodytic at the outset, which, from skull measurements and other indications, would seem not to have been Semitic. To them is to be ascribed the commencement of those remarkable caves, at some places of

almost incredible number and extent, which are so striking a feature in this part of Palestine. A characteristic point of difference between these earliest known inhabitants and their Semitic successors is that the former burned their dead, whereas the latter practised burial from the outset. This accords, also, with the latest results obtained in Babylonian excavations. It is worth noting that these earlier inhabitants used exclusively stone for weapons and utensils. Copper seems to have come in with the Semites. Iron appears at the time of the great upheaval which brought in the Israelites, and threw on the shores of Palestine the Philistines and other invaders from the north and west, 1400-1000 B. C. Mr. Macalister's excavations give us the most extended record yet obtained from any Palestinian site, beginning probably about 3000 B. C. and continuing to about the beginning of the Christian era.

—What are called the oldest documents in Indo-European have lately been deciphered and published by Dr. J. A. Knudtzon, with explanatory notes by Bugge and Torp. The pamphlet, entitled 'Die Zwei Arzawa-Briefe,' is likely to provoke considerable discussion, nor are all its results certain; but it seems to have established one most important historical fact, equally interesting to scholars in the Babylonian and in the Indo-European field. Though too technical to be described in detail, the chief points in this remarkable find are as follows: Among the clay tablets of el-Amarna in Egypt are two which, with the exception of some passages, contain linguistic elements not of Babylonian-Assyrian character, but apparently of Indo-European origin. The tablets, one at least, seem to have been sent to "Arzawa," a country corresponding to Eastern Cilicia or Southern Cappadocia (in Knudtzon's opinion), and ruled over by a King Tarhundaraba (*cf.* Tarquin, etc.). The interpretation of the letters is possible only on the assumption of the Indo-European character of the language, which seems to be related to Lycian, Armenian, and even Hittite, the group that Bugge now calls "Anatolian." Among many exegetical ventures of more dubious nature, this Arzawa tongue is fairly well established as Indo-European in having the verbal form *esto* (Latin *esto); n* as sign of the first person preterite (Greek *ν*); the accusative in *m* and the genitive in *s* (Greek and Latin); the imperative in *k* (Lithuanian); the superlative in *ma (human,* Latin *summum);* and the personal pronouns, *mi, min, ti, tin,* respectively genitive and accusative of the first and second persons, besides *mu* (Greek μοι) and *imi* (Greek ἐμέ). In its genesis this newly discovered Arzawa language offers a pretty parallel to Albanian; for its vocabulary has been changed, but on the new foreign words are still fitted the old inherited endings. The discovery, finally, suggests a deal more than it explains in respect of the earliest relations between the Indo-Europeans in "Anatolia" and their Semitic conquerors, and will probably revive interest in the Hittites and "Anatolians" themselves, while putting into new form the more concrete question as to the prehistoric relations of the Cretans and Greeks with their Eastern neighbors.

—Based upon the *Normaletat* of Prussia of 1892, a revised decree governing the salaries of the teachers in the secondary schools of that kingdom has just been published by the Government. According to this schedule, the salary of the Rector of a full nine-years institution in all the grades, Gymnasium, Realgymnasium, and Oberrealschule, in Berlin, ranges from 6,000 to 7,200 marks; in cities of the first class, in those of more than 50 000 non-military inhabitants, their salaries are 5,100 to 7,200; in all other places, 4,800 to 6,900. The head teachers in the next lower grades of secondary schools, *i. e.*, Progymnasium, Realprogymnasium, and Realschule, in Berlin and cities of the first class, receive from 4,800 to 6,300 marks. The salaries of the permanently appointed teachers below the rank of rector range from 2,700 to 5,100 marks. In addition, after a certain number of years of service, the teachers are credited with a pension claim of from 300 to 900 marks annually. Assistant teachers are paid from 1,-800 to 2,400 marks. Increase of salaries is based on years of service alone. In Berlin, in the regular nine-years institutions, the increase is 400 marks every third year for the rectors, and 300 in the case of the other schools until the maximum salary is reached, and for other teachers the increase is in similar proportion. In addition, these instructors have other claims, such as free tuition for their sons, and in many cases free rent or its equivalent The salaries of university men are only slightly in advance of those given to teachers in the secondary schools. The Prussian Government has just decided to add eighteen men to its university teaching corps next semester. In Koenigsberg, a new full professorship in the philosophical faculty will be worth 6,160 marks, an assistant professorship in theology in Berlin 4,150; two assistant medical chairs will bring their incumbents the same sum; a full professor in the philosophical faculty gets 9,300, while the new assistant professor of Chinese gets only 4,150, but the new full professor in the practical Oriental Seminary receives 8,100 marks. In Halle a new full theological professor gets 4,260, but in the philosophical faculty 6,660. In Goettingen a new philosophical chair brings it incumbent 6,540, but the associate in Egyptology receives only 3,290. The highest salary for the new men is a Catholic theological professorship in Bonn with an income of 10,-260 marks. Of course, these professors receive in addition their lecture fees.

ROGERS'S HISTORY OF AGRICULTURE.

A History of Agriculture and Prices in England, from the year after the Oxford Parliament (1259) to the commencement of the Continental War (1793). Compiled entirely from original and contemporaneous records. By James E. Thorold Rogers. Edited with sundry additions by one of his sons. Vol. VII., 1703-1793. Parts I., II. Pp. xv., xv, 962. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1902.

Economic literature presents no example of a work so long in the making as this 'History of Agriculture and Prices in England.' Projected in 1860, the first two volumes appeared six years later, the third and fourth in 1882, the fifth and sixth in 1887, the seventh in two parts, posthumously, in 1902. Covering a span of forty-two years, the work has thus "worn out one life and has claimed several years of another." As compared with this, the 'Wealth of Nations' took but twelve years to write, although, as Mr. Rae tells us, it was probably in contemplation for twelve years before that. Eden completed his 'State of the Poor' in the thirty-second year of his age; Madox wrote his monumental work before he was forty-five; Macpherson's 'Annals' took at most fifteen years of activity. An interval of less than a score of years separated the publication of the first from the appearance of the sixth volume of Tooke and Newmarch's 'History of Prices.'

The circumstances under which the 'History' was planned are described by Professor Rogers in the preface to the second volume. At the meeting of the International Statistical Congress in 1860, attention was called to the importance of researches into ancient values and the determination of past relations between the prices of labor and food. Being obliged to spend the following long vacation in Oxford, Professor Rogers searched in the Bodleian, and found "a little evidence for the fourteenth century, and much for the sixteenth." In the hope of obtaining further information as to the change of values in the sixteenth century—to which he proposed to confine his researches—he obtained permission to examine the account books and muniment rooms of the older colleges. Here he found, in his own phrase, "a vast store of the most valuable documents," and at once carried the range of his inquiry back to the much earlier period from which the 'History' starts. It was thus chance, as Professor Ashley has said, and not any theory as to the proper method of economic inquiry, which first turned Mr. Rogers's attention in this direction. Nothing could be more explicit than his own statement: "I have thus become an antiquary by accident."

Not only did the impulse of the historian, rather than of the political economist, bring Professor Rogers to the field of his investigation, but it was distinctly as an historian that his work was originally conducted and the early results were presented. He himself described his subject as a "branch of history," revealing "the bygone life of the English people," and, perhaps, aiding "in constructing a philosophy of history by giving depth and solidity to the political events which have been narrated by our annalists." The introductory chapter of the first volume declared: "It is my purpose, in the work before me, to attempt a history of agriculture in England, and to supply a record of prices, especially of corn and labor, from the time at which the earliest consecutive annals begin, down to the close of the eighteenth century." But, however removed from original purpose may have been the intention of using with any directness the results of the projected historical investigation as the data for economic generalizations, it was not long before such a disposition manifested itself. In 1866, at the conclusion of six years' laborious research, the array of facts recorded in the first two volumes had become not only "illustration" to the "maxims of political economy," and "the bases for economical inductions," but even more than this:

"Some of the problems of political economy, therefore, I venture on stating, can

be discerned and determined with greater ease from the facts which I am able to bring before my readers, fragmentary as they sometimes are, than they could be out of the wider information of our own time. Thus, for instance, the laws which govern prices will, I think, be seen more clearly in these mediæval records than they could be in a modern Price Current."

Thenceforth, to the end of his days, Professor Rogers asserted with increasing vehemence his peculiar fitness, by virtue of equipment and method, for the interpretation of economic phenomena. More and more his services as an historian, even as a social or economic historian, were eclipsed, in his own judgment, by his preëminent capacity for the formulation of economic uniformities. He was accustomed to describe the "haughty loftiness" with which many economists discussed economic questions as "very irritating." But surely no other modern political economist, unless perhaps the late Henry Dunning Macleod, entertained a higher opinion of his own contributions to the science, actual and potential, or expressed lower estimates of the endeavors of those who were toiling by different methods in the same fields. In 1888, two years before his death, he wrote:

"It must, I think, be admitted that political economy is in a bad way: its authority is repudiated, its conclusions are assailed, its arguments are compared to the dissertations held in Milton's Limbo, its practical suggestions are conceived to be not much better than those of the philosophers in Laputa. . . . Now all this is very sad. The books which seemed to be wise are often compared to those curious volumes of which the converts at Ephesus made a holocaust. And the criticism is just."

And yet, estimated alone by positive contribution to the body of economic theory, the service of Professor Rogers would be neither great nor enduring. He wrote enveloped in majestic nimbus, ignorant of much and neglectful of more that constitutes the history of economic thought. His arguments were often epithets, and his objects of attack not infrequently figures of straw. Thus, in 1888, the wage-fund theory was held up as a newly discovered phantasm and logomachy—in the United States still worse; in utter neglect of the refutation of Longe, the indictments of Thornton and Cliffe-Leslie, the ponderous recantation of Mill, and the definitive assault of Walker.

A more important service of Professor Rogers to economic science was in aiding and strengthening the reaction in economic methodology from the *à priori* absolutism of the classical economists to the historical-comparative spirit of the modern day. His fairest and most intelligent critic, Professor Ashley, has told how his name was a tower of strength to those rebellious economists in England who, during the decade 1870-1880, began to criticise accepted doctrines, and how they sheltered themselves behind his reputation for heterodoxy and learning, without very carefully examining wherein Mr. Rogers really was heterodox. It is perhaps not too much to say that Thorold Rogers occupied, although far less consciously, the same relation to the economic reaction in England that Wilhelm Roscher did to the related movement in Germany and to its powerful reflection in the United States.

But it is, after all, upon his work as an historian and as an economic interpreter of history that the lasting fame of Thorold Rogers will rest. Many years will pass before his authority on mediæval prices will cease to be the highest. And even thereafter, when successful criticism of specific, sometimes cherished, conclusions shall have broadened into a more vital assault upon plan and method, only the captious and unsympathetic student will fail to accord full meed of praise to the devoted scholarship and unremitting enthusiasm of this sturdy pioneer.

It is in a spirit something akin to this that the two volumes before us will be judged. Filial piety has endeavored to accomplish that which only antiquarian zeal could hope to attain. We are told that, during the last three years of his life, Professor Rogers was busily engaged in collecting material for the concluding part of his book. But the end came before the prices had been collected for single articles for every year in the period marked out, and many subjects were inadequately represented. More unfortunate still, among the papers that were left, no clue was found to the existence of any other figures or to the source from which the historian had proposed to draw further information. Of the two courses available in preparing the manuscript for publication, namely, to print the tabulations precisely as they stood, or to supplement them as far as possible by further research, the latter course was taken by Mr. Arthur G. L. Rogers, a son of the lamented historian, who was chosen by the delegates of the Clarendon Press to complete the work.

Mr. Rogers has attempted to continue, in something of the same spirit that inspired his father's researches, the history of prices for the 90 years from 1703 to 1793. Unhappily, for this later period the sources of information upon which the earlier volumes were based—namely, the domestic accounts of the older Oxford colleges—are no longer available. Accordingly, the editor has had recourse to various other sources, the most important being the domestic accounts of the Cholmeley family at Brandsby Hall in Yorkshire. Here have been found, in addition to many other documents of great interest, "an almost complete collection of receipted bills from about the year 1740, when the real founder of the family, Francis Cholmeley, began to build the manor house and started an enterprising career of agricultural improvements." The family appear to have led the quiet regular life of English country gentlefolk of the eighteenth century, engaging in public affairs to a limited extent, but in the main living, marrying, and dying in normal, uneventful succession. The financial records of this little domestic economy, the range of which is from the purchase of nutmegs to "allopeen for lining skirts," may perhaps be regarded as detail typical of the time and place from which gleaned. Yet a cautious student will be very slow in encouraging any generalization as to social or economic conditions in the eighteenth century upon the microscopic minutiæ here revealed. Illustration rather than induction is the service which limited data of this kind can render, either to the historian or to the economist.

The prices contained in the second part of the volume are of a more miscellaneous character, and have been derived from various sources. A series of notes from the Cholmeley and Howard papers, various tables of gifts, incomes and estimates from the records of All Souls' and from the newspapers in the Burney Collection, a curious account, found in an old pocket-book at Brandsby Hall, of the investments and losses of an unfortunate speculator in the "bubbles" of the early eighteenth century, lists of prices from Mortimer, Lawrence, and Arthur Young, take up a hundred pages, leaving some two hundred more to minute quotations of the prices of stock of the South Sea Company, the Bank of England, the East India Company, and the Consolidated Three Per Cents. There is no reason to believe that the excerpts and the tabulations have been made with other than care and fidelity; but surely not even the most enthusiastic believer in the value of price tabulations will assert that the same ends which warranted Professor Rogers in collecting and printing voluminous details from fifteenth and sixteenth-century rent-rolls have justified his son in reproducing from eighteenth-century newspapers the almost daily quotations of historic corporate securities and public funds.

The most serious deficiency in the volumes before us is the complete absence of anything like the commentary that interpreted, even if it did not lighten, the details of the earlier volumes. Here we may well understand that the heart of the editor failed him. But, in undertaking to complete rather than to publish the fragments left by his father, this full responsibility of an author-editor may reasonably be said to have been assumed, and the deficiency cannot but fail to detract from what at best must have been an arduous and thankless service.

NAPLES IN 1799.

Naples in 1799: An Account of the Revolution of 1799 and of the Rise and Fall of the Parthenopean Republic. By Constance H. D. Giglioli (*née* Stocker). London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

If Lord Nelson had not been by what seems a mere accident tragically involved in the affairs of Naples in 1798-9, it is doubtful whether the English-speaking world would have known much about them. After annihilating the French fleet in the battle of the Nile, on August 1, 1798, he sailed westward and put into Naples at the end of September for a short rest. Unfortunately, there he met Lady Hamilton, with whom he became infatuated. She, the tool of the Neapolitan Queen, Maria Carolina, made Nelson her own tool. He dallied at Naples until December, when he took the fugitive royal family on his flagship to Palermo, and there he lingered, bound by a guilty amour, till the following June. Then he went back to Naples, and, in behalf of the royal coward, who stayed behind at Palermo, he devoted his energies to persecuting and hanging the patriots who had capitulated only through treachery, which he approved, if indeed he did not originate it. Had Nelson in September, 1798, stayed at Malta or Syracuse, as he might well have done, and so escaped the baleful seduction of Lady Hamilton, Eng-

land would have been saved one of the most shameful blots in her history.

The outlines of these events have been commonly known for a century, and partisans have written bitterly on one side or the other. It speaks well for human nature that so many persons who accepted Nelson as a hero—and of course as a winner of naval battles he was a hero—refused to believe that he could be entangled in so base an enterprise. They condoned his profligacy, but the thought that an English admiral could for a year make himself the agent of the most despicable lot of cowards that even the Bourbons have mustered, that he gladly executed their wishes and went beyond them, that he was not only merciless but inhuman, and gloried in it—these were things which, for the honor of human nature, everybody would like to have disproved. But that cannot be.

Capt. Mahan, Nelson's most recent biographer, relying with unwarranted confidence on Commander Miles, R. N., who wrote in 1843, implies that the charges of treachery and of cruelty were unfounded. What are the facts as to the treachery? In June, 1799, Cardinal Ruffo, who by express command of the King had gathered a nondescript army to win back the mainland, and had made his way from Calabria to the walls of Naples, offered the revolutionary garrisons in the city fair terms if they would surrender. They accepted. But at the very moment when the capitulation was about to be carried out, Nelson sailed into the harbor, and refused, in the King's name, to sanction any offer of amnesty to the patriots. Ruffo protested that the terms were already agreed to, and could not honorably be broken. The patriots, believing that they were acting according to the agreement with Ruffo, evacuated Castles Nuovo and dell' Uovo. Many of them embarked on transports which, they supposed, were to take them to exile in France; others returned to their homes. This was on June 27. "Very early in the morning of the 28th the transports were brought under the guns of the castles [now occupied by the English] and of the English ships, and made fast." Their cheated passengers, instead of sailing off to France, were kept prisoners on board, until, singly or in batches, they could be tried and rowed ashore to be executed. All through the summer, this butcher's work, which Nelson superintended, went on. To say that there does not exist in his handwriting the order to deceive the garrisons of the castles into surrendering, is futile; the guilt falls morally on him, as he was the commander-in-chief, and, far from repudiating the treachery, he at once turned it to the profit of the despicable Ferdinand. When a man of honor discovers that in his name one of his subordinates has committed the basest act possible in war, he annuls it, cost what it may. But Nelson was in no sense a man of honor. In this affair, to quote a recent Italian historian, "Nelson acted like a pirate, the Queen like a tiger, the King like a clown."

Next, as to the cruelty. It was by Nelson's order that Prince Caracciolo was brought on board the flagship; Nelson himself appointed the court-martial, putting at its head a man who notoriously hated the prisoner; and when the court declared post-haste that Caracciolo was guilty, Nelson ordered that he be hanged at the yard-arm of the *Minerva*. Caracciolo did not stoop to ask mercy, but he did ask to be shot, as became a soldier and a brave man. Nelson not only refused this, but further ordered that Caracciolo's body, after dangling from the yard-arm till dark, should be cut down so as to drop into the sea, without Christian burial. What this meant to a Catholic need not be rehearsed here; but we may remark that the spirit of cruelty which impelled the English admiral to treat even the corpse of a brave victim with indignity abhorrent to civilized men, was akin to the cruelty of savages who mutilate or eat the bodies of their enemies.

These facts in regard to Caracciolo are indisputable; Nelson himself never denied them; and neither Commander Miles, R. N., nor Capt. Mahan, U. S. N., can so varnish them as to hide their hideousness. Southey, who certainly did not underestimate Nelson, forestalled the verdict of posterity when he said, concerning the treachery: "To palliate it would be in vain; to justify it would be wicked; there is no alternative, for one who will not make himself a participator in guilt, but to record the disgraceful story with sorrow and with shame." And of Nelson's brutality towards Prince Caracciolo, Southey adds that it "stained ineffaceably his public character."

We deal with this topic first, because it naturally claims the first attention of English readers; but the peculiar merit of Countess Giglioli's book is due to the fact that she tells the whole story of the Parthenopean Republic, and makes intelligible, certainly for the first time in English, the aims of the various parties, the kaleidoscopic changes of purpose, and the characters and deeds of the chief actors. As a study in revolutions, that at Naples in 1798-9 deserves to be better known, for it illustrates better than any other how a people utterly sunk in corruption, with only a few inexperienced enthusiasts and neither arms nor money, must behave when it unexpectedly has liberty thrust upon it. Countess Giglioli gives life-like portraits of Ferdinand, of Maria Carolina, of Acton, their vile minister, of the Hamiltons, and of Ruffo. She introduces us to the patriots, who have hitherto been rather shadowy persons—to Pignatelli, Baffi, Cirillo, Mario Pagano, Mauri, Caracciolo, Eleonora Pimentel and many others, who, whatever their shortcomings in statesmanship, were truly patriotic. The mere fact that out of such a society so many high-minded persons could spring, and that, when put to the supreme test of cruelty and death, they did not flinch, should silence pessimists who preach that any community is too far gone in rottenness ever to become regenerate.

Countess Giglioli describes the awful conditions of poverty which prevailed throughout the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies in the last quarter of the eighteenth century, when the lower classes were crushed by the feudal system beyond the worst that Arthur Young records in France. The Neapolitan Crown had begun to curtail feudalism and to restrain the power of the great nobles when the French Revolution broke out. Thenceforth the royal policy resisted every reform, for in any change it dreaded a repetition of the destruction of monarchy which had come so swiftly in France. The Queen, Maria Carolina, was sister of Marie Antoinette, and she, with Acton, practically governed Naples, their sole aim being to prevent the overthrow of the throne. Naples remained neutral down to 1798, and was nominally still a neutral when Nelson came with his fleet to refit. Only in the autumn of that year did Ferdinand declare war against France, and march to Rome to drive out the French. That campaign, a rare specimen of Bourbon braggadocio, resulted in the invasion of Naples by the French, and the flight of the royal family to Palermo.

Their flight left the city and the mainland in a state of anarchy. The great multitude of *lazzaroni*—idlers, criminals, beggars, ruffians—who were the special pets of the King and Queen, proceeded to loot and slay. The minority of reformers, who for ten years past had been hoping for a constitutional government, saw that they must choose between annihilation by the mob and a French occupation. They decided to admit the French, and for a few weeks order was restored. But, late in the winter, the French were recalled; the Parthenopean republic, without real strength, slowly collapsed, so that by the middle of June it realized that it could not save the capital from Cardinal Ruffo, Ferdinand's lieutenant, who had marched up from the south with an army of brigands. But the garrisons could have done much damage, both to Ruffo and the English ships in the harbor, if they had not been tricked into accepting the treacherous terms of capitulation.

The rest of the story is taken up with horrors. The incredible atrocities practised on thousands of prisoners, the inhumanity of the executions, the systematic robbery which had the royal sanction, the habitual perfidy, have certainly never been surpassed, and, happily, seldom equalled, in lands inhabited by white men. And all the time the coward monarchs cringed beyond danger at Palermo, sending daily their stereotyped message, "Kill! Kill!" while their minions at Naples carried on the frightful work, secure enough so long as the British men-of-war lay at the Molo to protect them. Well does Countess Giglioli say: "In that blind and stupid ferocity which he exalted into a sense of duty, Nelson helped the Bourbons to their eternal shame, and struck a mortal blow to the dynasty of which he had chosen to be a paladin."

Countess Giglioli, who is an Englishwoman, has done her work well. Although she modestly disclaims originality, she is original in putting into this clear, attractive, and convincing form a memorable but tangled story. She has exhausted all the printed sources, and has had access to many that have never been printed. She has listened to Helfert, the Austrian apologist of Maria Carolina, and to J. C. Jeaffreson, who made a business of whitewashing the disreputable. She writes spiritedly, and, considering the horrors which make up most of her volume, she writes with remarkable restraint. She has told to English readers the tragic fate of many brave but obscure victims of that Reign of Terror; and she has shown the logical sequence of events. Her book is finely illustrated with some forty views and portraits, many of the latter being now printed for the first time.

The Reign of Queen Anne. By Justin McCarthy. 2 vols. Harper & Brothers. New York. 1902.

Mr. McCarthy's style and method of historical composition have already been illustrated by so many well-known works that we shall attempt neither to describe nor criticise them here. It will be enough to state that in sketching the reign of Queen Anne he follows much the same treatment which he observed in sketching the reign of Queen Victoria. The subject, with its due admixture of politics and literature, is congenial to him. Despite certain political proclivities, he writes with candor and breadth of mind. Though diffuse, he is not too diffuse for the taste and comprehension of a general audience. He is never bitter and never dull.

The Queen herself we may at once dismiss, for Mr. McCarthy, like other historians, seems to have found her character quite colorless. When we have said that she possessed the domestic virtues and felt the need of relying on a confidant in times of political crisis, little remains. She gave her name to an era, and at least she was not vicious, but we must excuse her biographers from attempting to supply a subtle analysis of personal traits. We sympathize with her because she was a mother who witnessed an almost unexampled mortality among her children. After this tribute to maternal grief, we may well leave the palace and fix our attention on the reign.

Mr. McCarthy is not inclined to minimize the importance of his subject. "The reign of Queen Anne," he says, "stands out a distinct epoch in the history of the world. It takes rank with the age of Pericles in Greece, with the Augustan era in Rome, with the Elizabethan era in England." Fifty years ago this view was common, but since then it has been less frequently advanced. We are interested to see it reappearing in the pages of Mr. McCarthy. His high opinion of the period, or of its importance, is traceable, we imagine, to the parliamentary instincts which he shares with other old members of the House of Commons. The strife of political parties prior to the Revolution of 1688 was still accompanied by extreme bitterness. The rancors begotten of civil war were not forgotten, and a religious antagonism which often bore fruit in persecution had not yet disappeared. With the reign of William and Mary, English public life enters upon a milder period, and when we reach the reign of Anne the leading political parties have tacitly agreed to play the game of politics according to more enlightened rules. The new régime is unmarked by organic changes of form, but the spirit of Parliamentary debate is altered, and the House of Commons attains an eminence which it has never before reached save in days of revolution.

Mr. McCarthy has heard many a midnight speech beneath the roof of St. Stephen's, and he looks back to the dawn of the eighteenth century for the rise of those modern conditions of debate and influence with which as a politician he is deeply familiar. Hence arises, we may conjecture, his chief interest in this period. "The reign of Anne," he urges, "saw for the first time the recognition of the principle that the sovereign could no longer act without regard for the authority of the representative chamber. The mere fact that such an authority was thus established and recognized, gave to the House of Commons new motives for existence. Parliamentary debate became with Queen Anne's reign one of the great moving forces in the system of constitutional government."

Whether from this fondness for the parliamentary motive or from a wish to accentuate the more picturesque aspects of the time, Mr. McCarthy hardly does justice by the supreme triumph which was won in Anne's name. We refer to the union with Scotland. He refers to it, indeed, "as one of the greatest and most successful events which mark with honor the momentous history of that reign," but such a qualified statement as this amounts to damning with faint praise. While his narrative of circumstances may be termed sufficiently full, his appreciation of results cannot be called adequate.

Among the politicians and generals, Bolingbroke and Marlborough furnish Mr. McCarthy with his most engaging material. The latter he considers to have been badly used by the Government, the faults of his own character notwithstanding. So far as we can see, he would urge on behalf of Marlborough the considerations which might be brought forward on behalf of Bacon and Mirabeau. Bacon took bribes, but delivered judgment with complete impartiality. Mirabeau accepted a pension from Louis XVI., but followed a political course that was dictated by conviction. In defence of Marlborough Mr. McCarthy urges an extenuating circumstance when he recalls how fluid and uncertain were the political principles of that time, and how even the Queen herself was compelled to support systems and opinions for which she had no sympathy. On the main issue of patriotism and perfidy, Mr. McCarthy acquits Marlborough in triumph, and taxes his country with ingratitude. "There is no reason to doubt that while he was engaged in the work for which his genius so splendidly qualified him, he had in his mind and at his heart, above all other objects, the success of the state and of the cause which he represented on the field of battle." With such a verdict as this the great Churchill may be said to get off rather lightly.

Like so many moderns, Mr. McCarthy has yielded to the allurements and cleverness of Bolingbroke. Here we cannot follow him, at least when he gets beyond the pale of a purely intellectual admiration. The idea, for example, that Bolingbroke, with all his ambition and scheming, "was not a man to cherish deep dislikes," is at variance with our whole conception of his career. Stranger still, it seems to us, is the following sentence: "Charles James Fox once said of himself that he could never be much of a hater; and in the better part of Bolingbroke's character, as well as in his parliamentary gifts, there was much which seems to have a certain kinship with the nature and the genius of Fox." Unfortunately "the better part" is less conspicuous with Bolingbroke than with Fox.

The chapters on Swift, Addison, and Pope are all agreeably written, and none of them fails in cordiality of appreciation. Swift has for Mr. McCarthy the special interest which is likely to be awakened in a modern breast by "the prince of journalists." "Swift," he says, "might fairly be called the creator of the modern leading article." Pope's poetry is likened to the Thames rather than to the Rhine, the Mississippi, or the headlong rivers of Italy. "It was like the Thames as it flowed past Pope's home, beautiful, tranquil, musical, not driven by tempest, not calling up images of passion and destruction, but holding always the love of those who from the first are able to appreciate its charm." As for the quarrel between Pope and Addison, Mr. McCarthy agrees that Pope was in the wrong, but cannot bring himself to regret that the "Epistle to Arbuthnot" was written. "Probably English literature hardly contains any rhymed passage of the same length from which so many quotations are so often made."

Mr. McCarthy lays no claim to historical erudition. We look to him more for graphic passages and for judgments on literary or political character. These verdicts, his wide knowledge of men and books, combined with good sense and an unfailing urbanity of temper, enables him to deliver with very considerable force.

The True History of the American Revolution. By Sydney George Fisher. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1902. Pp. 437.

Without wishing that history should cease to be true, one may be excused for hoping that the "true" history may speedily run its course. Mr. Fisher calls his book the "true" history of the Revolution because it presents the Revolution in what seems to him to be the true light, while previous historians have consciously "decided" to present the Revolution in what they very well knew to be a false light. "The historians" have falsified the history of the Revolution in five respects: (1) They have treated the desire for independence "as a sudden thought, and not a long growth and development"; (2) they have assumed that "every detail of the conduct of the British Government was absurdly stupid, even from its own point of view"; (3) they have considered that the Loyalists were "few in numbers and their arguments not worth considering"; (4) they have thought it necessary to refrain from describing "in their full meaning and force the irregular conduct in the colonies which led England to try and remodel them as soon as the fear of the French in Canada was removed"; (5) more especially, they have thought it "will be better" to suppress the evidence with reference to the motives of Gen. Howe in his conduct of the war. The conduct of Howe, indeed, is the principal point which Mr. Fisher emphasizes. Howe was a Whig, and used his "olive-branch" instructions to crush the Tories in England by aiding the Whigs in America; but "the historians" have suppressed the evidence on this point. It is to change all this that we have the "true history." As might be supposed, proportion and emphasis have been subordinated to the necessity of correcting these conscious suppressions and these mistaken notions. Of the 428 pages of text, 247 are required to bring the story down to Bunker Hill; 121 pages are given to Howe's conduct of the war; 60 more are sufficient for the period from Saratoga to Yorktown.

So far as serious students of history are concerned, Mr. Fisher is demolishing a man

of straw. One gets the impression that he has read nothing that has been published within the last two decades, which have witnessed the appearance of special works on piracy and illegal trade, on the military operations of the war, on the relation of England to the colonies, on the attempt of England to "remodel the colonies" (which, by the way, dates from the seventeenth century rather than from 1763), and on the Loyalists, much fuller and more satisfactory than Mr. Fisher's treatment of these or similar subjects. Doubtless there is no satisfactory single work on the Revolution as a whole, but the work of Fiske, or Trevelyan, or Lecky does not at all answer Mr. Fisher's description of that of "the historians," while, taken together, they furnish a much "truer" account than his own. Twenty years ago, Mr. Fisher's book would have been serviceable as a disturber of prejudices; to-day it can profit only to the general reader who has been reared mainly on a diet of Barnes and Bancroft.

Assuming, however, that there is a large class of such readers, the book is still open to criticism. There is everywhere a forcing of the note, an exaggeration of emphasis, a lack of sane judgment. One gets the impression that the Revolution was an event predetermined by the patriot leaders, but carried to a successful conclusion only by the special dispensation of Howe. The patriot leaders are too merely cunning, the Loyalists are scarcely more than a string of of arguments, Washington has too much the air of hunting for "traps" to get into and out of, Howe has too much ability and too little patriotism, there is too much of the olive branch in the first years of the war and too much of the sword in the last. Finally, in details, the book is not free from errors of fact, questionable dogmatizing, confusion of thought, and irrelevant incidents. It is not true that Boston "demanded" the first Continental Congress (p. 123). It is too strong to say that England never "really established her sovereignty" in the colonies (p. 31). It is mere confusion of thought to assume that because "the historians" think the Declaration of Independence was not long premeditated, they therefore think the desire for independence, much less the Revolution itself, was a "sudden thought" and not a long growth and development (p. 5, chap. ix). The "true" history of Aaron Burr, Jacataqua, their dog, and their child, has no discoverable relation with the "true" history of the expedition to Canada (p. 275).

There is no bibliography, and no adequate index.

Reminiscences of Early Chicago and Vicinity. By Edwin O. Gale. Illustrated by W. E. S. Trowbridge. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1902. Pp. 452.

When Meriwether Lewis, after toiling two years up the Missouri, stood at the fountain-head of that river, he found it small, forming a rivulet he could step across. But, however small to his eye, it was great to his mind; he knew what great things had come from it. In like manner, Mr. Gale, who has walked hand in hand with Chicago's advancement at every step, feels a thrill regarding every feature of the hamlet where his eyes first took conscious notice of anything. His feeling has deepened as the 600 (the maximum estimate of the population he first saw there) have died or scattered beyond knowledge, so that he—perhaps he only—has now escaped to tell us of his own and the city's cradle-years. Not yet threescore and ten, he has seen Chicago exhibit the most marvellous growth of ancient or of modern times. No wonder his heart sometimes overflows in "measured lines which jingle at their ends"; and readers of his pathetic stanzas on Chicago River will hesitate to call him a mean poet.

His diary of current events was early begun. His reminiscences were corrected and completed by research in newspapers often of unique files, by correspondence with his local contemporaries whose race is run, and, above all, through interviews at Old Settlers' annual receptions on his Sabine farm, his father's Galewood. How can 'Early Chicago' fail to become a universal necessity? It answers questions sometimes asked by all dwellers there and by as many outsiders, and to which few of those myriads can find answers from such a first-hand source. Some of these inquiries are when, how, and in what local habitations Chicago's beginnings began, each marking a step forward, if not always upward. Answers, not without many a mnemonic tag, are furnished concerning buildings or establishments like the following—the first brick house, saloon, church (Methodist, half of a log house), school (whether Sunday or secular), tavern (eight among a census of 600), post-office, postrider, stage coach, horse car, steamboat, railroad, bank, gaslight, locofocos (which rendered superfluous the by-law against carrying live coals through the streets in an open vessel), primitive makeshifts at fires, the first steam fire engine, the first piano, milliner, and silversmith (all three more primeval than we think), the first ditching, planking, sidewalking, and draining of streets; canals and waterworks; newspapers from their start, etc. To set before us these origins and others beyond arithmetic, so that we remember much and get an interest in more, no man can be better fitted than is Mr. Gale. Such a herald of the city's dawn we have not seen, nor of a certainty shall we see.

He has witnessed all vicissitudes, and has had more than a finger in not a few. Versatile by nature, he tasted several lines of life before deciding on a druggist's pestle and mortar as his life-work. His Boston birth (1832) was that of Chicago, for Government land there was then first sold. Within three years thereafter, his coming was a swift transit of thirty-two days from New York city, all but nine of them sailing from Buffalo on a brig. Ever since, Chicago has been his home, in the main on the selfsame suburban farm preëmpted by his father very early, and the only one within city limits still held by the family of him who entered it (p. 243). Incidents back of his own memory were so transfused into him by hearsay that he unawares, through a dozen pages, writes of himself while a three-year-old seeing whatever his father saw. His words are, "*We* look about town." "*Our* historic stroll," etc. His phrases and etymologies would sometimes make Quintilian stare if not gasp, and he uses words unknown both to the Century and the Oxford storehouse; yet we can believe that, as he says, he was in boyhood a student of Latin, and that for a year after entering business he daily consumed midnight oil in learning German.

Countless minutiæ, particularly dates and names, which last form a sort of golden book or 'Who's Who' of pioneer worthies, cannot be held in hand by readers. Knowing the inevitable lapses of memory, Mr. Gale has provided an index, here preeminently needful. Thus his volume—a chronicle of day by day, not a relation for a breakfast—will be handy for ready reference in every family. Fort Dearborn blockhouse is pictured on the front cover of 'Early Chicago,' and again at the conclusion of the volume. It had already stood nineteen years when our author was brought into Chicago, and in 1856 he saw it demolished. We cannot fail to share in his regrets that a facsimile of this oldest of Chicagoan relics, insuring safety to the feeble colony, was not exhibited at the World's Columbian Exposition, where it must have made a more touching local appeal than did La Rabida, the monastic refuge of Columbus.

Through the Heart of Patagonia. By H. Hesketh Prichard. With illustrations by J. G. Millais and from photographs. D. Appleton & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. xvi., 346.

"Inexpressibly desolate and monotonous" is the general impression of Patagonia which this book leaves, though these words are used of a particular spot. Its vast pampas, hemmed in between an inhospitable, harborless coast and an inaccessible mountain range, is roamed over by only a few hundred Indians. The white man is to be found in some small towns, and here and there on a farm, measured not by the acre, but by the square league, and separated from his nearest neighbor by "often three, four, or five days' ride." Monotony also is a characteristic of Mr. Prichard's narrative of his eight months' wanderings through this dreary region, where "ever the wind shrills." In the absence of any striking incident or discovery, or of variety of life in the saddle and in the camp or in the hunt, he fills his pages with unimportant and tedious details. There are minute descriptions of his various horses, their color, dispositions, and escapades; more space being devoted to them than to the Indians. We are told, for instance, that one of them, in bucking, gave himself a deep wound in the pastern, and "Jones tied it up with his handkerchief." At a lagoon four ducks were shot, "which were plucked before we came into camp." To this statement a paragraph is given: "I saw one condor poised high." This verbose triviality is unnecessary, for the book, whose external attractiveness renders its contents the more disappointing, contains abundant evidence that had the author taken more time and pains and been content with a less pretentious volume, he might have made a useful contribution to the scanty Patagonian literature.

The discovery in 1895 of the skin of a prehistoric mammal, the Mylodon, or giant ground sloth, in a cave in southern Patagonia, had awakened the hope that the animal still survived in the Andean forests. To search for further evidence of its existence was the object of Mr. Prichard's expedition. He crossed the plain to the foot of the Cordillera in two different places, and explored a small forest tract

near Lake Argentino. In the open country there were no traces of it, and the apparent absence of all life, small or great, in the forest, more marked the farther he penetrated its depths, seems to warrant his conviction that it is extinct. "But there are hundreds of square miles of dense forests still unexplored along the whole length of the Patagonian Andes, and I do not undertake to declare positively that no such animal exists in some unknown and hidden spot among their recesses." In addition to this negative scientific result, he navigated a hitherto unknown river, a few miles in length, having its source in a mountain tarn, which he named Lake Pearson, after the proprietor of the *Daily Express*, to whose generosity the expedition was due, and shot a new sub-species of puma, now known as *Felis concolor pearsoni*.

Throughout Mr. Prichard's narrative are to be found entertaining descriptions of his experiences, though his adventures were few. He had comparatively little to do with the Tehuelches, but perhaps the best part of his book is his account of this Indian race, which, endowed with many fine qualities and a remarkable physique, is yet fast disappearing, victims of the greed of the liquor-selling trader. By nature courteous and peaceable, when under the influence of strong drink the Tehuelche becomes completely changed. If there be liquor at hand on some tribal festival, "the younger women, who never drink on such occasions, go round beforehand and gather up every knife, hatchet, or, in fact, all and any weapon they can find, and bury them in some hidden spot about the camp. This custom, which is in its own way pathetic, speaks for itself." There is also some reason to fear that the guanaco, upon which, with his horse, the Indian depends for his living, much as the Laplander depends upon the reindeer, is also doomed to extinction. More than once the traveller came to spots strewn with the dead bodies of hundreds of these animals killed by the winter frosts and snow, and he says that the "mortality among guanaco in a really hard winter is tremendous." But the white man, rather than nature, will probably be its destroyer, for the pampa is eminently adapted for sheep and cattle raising, and when there is communication by rail between the interior and the coast it will be covered with countless herds of cattle and flocks of sheep. Now it takes some farmers two months to bring their wool to a port and return to their ranch.

There are three excellent maps, and numerous illustrations, some of which are of unusual merit, while others are trivial and uninteresting.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Jacob. A Boy on a Farm, at Work and at Play. Edited by Clifton Johnson. American Book Co. 45 cents.
American Almanac, Year-Book, Cyclopedia, and Atlas. W. R. Hearst.
Andrews, E. F. Botany All the Year Round. American Book Co. $1.
Andrews, E. J., and Howland, H. N. Elements of Physics. Macmillan. $1.10.
Baldwin, James. Barnes's Elementary History of the United States Told in Biographies. American Book Co.
Bennett, Arnold. Anna of the Five Towns. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Boas, Franz. Tsimshian Texts. Washington: Smithsonian Institution.
Bowne, B. P. Theism. American Book Co.
Brinkley, F. Oriental Series: Japan and China, Vols. 7 to 12. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.
Bruner, J. D. Chateaubriand's Les Aventures du Dernier Abencérage. American Book Co. 30 cents.
Bullock, S. F. The Squireen. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Burgess, E. S. History of Pre-Clusian Botany in its Relation to Aster. (Memoirs of the Torrey Botanical Club, vol. x.). New York: Published by the Club.
Buxton, Sydney. Fishing and Shooting. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.
Carter, W. R. History of the First Regiment of Tennessee Volunteer Cavalry. Knoxville (Tenn.): Published by the Author. $2.
Castle, Agnes and Egerton. The Star Dreamer. F. A. Stokes Co.
Clerke, Agnes M. Problems in Astrophysics. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Corneille's Cinna. Edited by J. E. Matzke. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island, 1723-1775. Edited by Gertrude S. Kimball. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Davenport, Arnold. By the Ramparts of Jezreel. Longmans, Green & Co.
Davis, C. H. S. Greek and Roman Stoicism and Some of its Disciples. Boston: H. B. Turner & Co.
Dean, Bashford. Japanese Oyster Culture. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Driscoll, Katherine E. A Story from the Philippines. The Abbey Press.
Firth, J. B. Augustus Cæsar and the Organisation of the Empire of Rome. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
FitzGerald, Edward. Poetical and Prose Writings. Vol. VI. (The Variorum and Definitive Edition.) Doubleday, Page & Co.
Forbes, Mrs. W. R. D. "Unofficial": A Two-Days' Drama. (Town and Country Library.) D. Appleton & Co.
Forman, J. M. Journey's End: A Romance of To-day. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Foster, J. W. American Diplomacy in the Orient. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Franklin, Susan B., and Ella C. Greene. Selections from Latin Prose Authors for Sight Reading. American Book Company. 60 cents.
Freeman, Mary E. W. Six Trees. Harpers. $1.25.
Gardner, E. G. The Story of Siena and San Gimignano. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Gazder, N. B. Streamlets from the Fount of Poesy. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Gilliss, Walter. The Story of a Motto and a Mark. The Gilliss Press.
Haldane, R. B. The Pathway to Reality. London: John Murray.
Harper, R. F. Assyrian and Babylonian Letters. (The Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago). Chicago: The University Press.
Hayward, J. K. A Rebuttal of Spiritism, et al. Peter Eckler.
Jackson, Margaret D. A Daughter of the Pit. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
James, Henry. The Better Sort. Scribners. $1.50.
Linn, J. W. The Chameleon. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
McMurry, C. A. and F. M. The Method of the Recitation. Macmillan. 90 cents.
Métin, Albert. L'Inde d'Aujourd'hui: Etude Sociale. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Paston, George. Side-Lights on the Georgian Period. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Patten, S. N. Heredity and Social Progress. Macmillan. $1.25.
Pemberton, Henry. The Path of Evolution through Ancient Thought and Modern Science. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Company.
Racine, Jean. Andromaque, Britannicus, and Athalie. Edited by F. M. Warren. H. Holt & Co.
Reich, Emil. A New Student's Atlas of English History. Macmillan. $3.25.
Rexford, E. E. Home Floriculture. Orange Judd Co.
Scott, W. A. Money and Banking. H. Holt & Co. $2.
Sewell, J. W. Language Lessons. American Book Co.
Shakspere, William. A Midsommer Night's Dreame. First Folio Edition. Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
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Townsend, E. W. Lees and Leaven: A New York Story of To-day. McClure, Phillips & Co.
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Van Dyke, J. C. The Meaning of Pictures. Scribners. $1.25.
Van Vorst, Mrs. John, and Marie. The Woman Who Toils. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Wafer, Lionel. A New Voyage and Description of the Isthmus of America. Edited by G. P. Winship. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co.
Wallace, Elizabeth. La Perfecta Casada por el Maestro F. Luys de Leon. (Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago.) Chicago: The University Press.
Ward, F. Pure Sociology. Macmillan. $4.
Ward, Mrs. Wilfrid. The Light Behind. John Lane. $1.50.
Weir, J. F. Human Destiny in the Light of Revelation. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
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Wyatt, Edith. True Love. McClure, Phillips & Co.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

A few years since, in the Speakership of Reed, the country was startled by the announcement that appropriations to the amount of one billion dollars had been made by one Congress, and somebody dubbed it the Billion-Dollar Congress. This phrase seemed likely to create some prejudice against the Republican party, until Mr. Reed offset it by saying that this was a billion-dollar country. The Republicans rallied at that thought, and actually did recover from the temporary depression that had overtaken them. Now, Senator Allison tells us that the appropriations of the Congress which has just expired have been more than a billion and a half ($1,554,108,518), but he adds, apologetically, that fifty millions is for the purchase of the Panama Canal. If we subtract this item, however, the remainder still exceeds a billion and a half, and it is needless to tell us that there has been an increase of $50,000,000 in the cost of the postal service, which includes an extension of the rural free delivery. The postal service is not properly included in the spending departments of the Government. Only the difference between receipts and expenditures should be placed in the budget. This deficiency, Mr. Allison admits, is smaller than it has been in many years. To sum up the situation, this is now a billion-and-a-half-dollar country, and it will be a two-billion-dollar country as soon as the revenues will allow it to become such.

Resentment was the prevailing mood of the Senate on Thursday—first against Congressman Cannon, who had characterized as "legislative blackmail" Senator Tillman's hold-up of the General Deficiency bill in behalf of a South Carolina claim; next, against the American people at large, who, in the opinion of the speakers, are adopting a tone of impertinent criticism towards the ways of the upper house. Whether Mr. Cannon's rebuke of the Tillman hold-up was technically correct or not, it was just—and this irrespective of the nature of the claims upon which the reporting of the Deficiency bill was made to hang. To obstruct in the last moments of a session a necessary bill in order to push a private claim, is a kind of brigandage that is very mildly qualified by Mr. Cannon's phrase "legislative blackmail." Because this practice is also called "the courtesy of the Senate" is no reason why the House should adopt such euphemisms. Congressman Cannon has spoken uncomfortable truth, and that is why Senators Tillman, Hale, and Allison devoted the early hours of a special session to berating him.

More significant than this personal passage was the evident fact that these influential Senators fully realize the extreme unpopularity of the Senate, and resent it while they marvel at it. Mr. Tillman told complacently of his hold-up; he had "shut his jaws down on the proposition," which under the rules of the Senate he rejoiced that he had a right to do. Senator Hale deplored Mr. Cannon's words, and especially the implication that such opinions had the country behind them. Mr. Allison was in a higher mood of indignation, and, remarking that the Senate rules had served for a hundred years, said the Senate would not change them for any "outside body." But how if that body were the people of the United States? That is the situation which the Senate must soon face. One of their own number, Mr. Foraker, has told them so roundly. The air of uneasiness which pervaded the speeches shows that the Senate has begun to see how other people regard it.

Was ever the most august assembly on earth, as the Senate loves to call itself, in so little august an attitude as it confesses itself to be in the matter of the Panama Treaty? The melancholy Republican leaders say that it is rapidly narrowing down to a question of killing the treaty or killing Morgan. He has not a single new argument to present, not one consideration or proposed amendment that has not been threshed to dust. Not even his friends maintain that anything he can say will affect the judgment of a solitary human being—yet he is to be allowed to say it, world without end. Five hours a day are now assigned him, and at that rate he may be getting well into his subject by April 1. Yet the dismayed Senate protests, in the fulness of its courtesy, that it cannot put greater pressure upon Morgan. A "continuous session" might be fatal to him, it is explained, at his age and in his state of monomania. But we should advise the Senate to take the more cheerful view of an "exalted personage" whose saying has been going about Washington. "You say that it would kill Senator Morgan if the Panama Treaty were ratified. But do we really need that added argument for ratification?"

Senator Lodge was prompt to resent Senator Hoar's demonstration, the expiring Congress being the *corpus vile*, that our form of government unfits us to legislate for 8,000,000 unrepresented people, 8,000 miles away. We are just as able to deal with that "problem," said the junior Senator from Massachusetts, as with "the greater and mightier problems before." But Mr. Lodge forgot that what the occasion called for was not a stump-speech boast before the fact, but an explanation of admitted failure after it. Are Imperialists to be like the poet's "Man"—"never is but always to be blessed"? The last campaign was the time for valiant predictions of the wise and benevolent things Congress was going to do. Senator Lodge made them then in the roundest terms. The work of fulfilment was placed in his own hands. It was no Little American, but Lodge himself, who was given the job of showing, as Senator, what, as historian, he had denied could be done—that is, a people across the sea governed satisfactorily by a Parliament in which they had no representation. But the great man, the enthusiastic tackler of "problems," failed miserably when the real trial came. He should be the last man to take a braggart tone now. Let him not rail at Senator Hoar, but at the hard facts. What the natural inference from them is has been stated by Mr. Brewster Cameron—special representative, we believe, of the Manila Chamber of Commerce. He declares:

> "The fact that the Congress of the United States, controlled by men in sympathy with his political views, is not willing to act upon the recommendations of a man like William H. Taft—particularly when those recommendations are cordially approved by a War Secretary and a President who have the full confidence of the American people—will cause many thoughtful men who have heretofore believed in holding fast to the Philippines to pause and consider whether, after all, we are capable of giving a wise and just government to a people ten thousand miles away."

In the Senate of the United States on January 28, Senator Proctor of Vermont presented an elaborate defence of Capt. Cornelius M. Brownell, who was charged with the murder by torture of Father Augustine, a Catholic clergyman in the Philippines. This defence was written and signed by Capt. Brownell himself. Senator Proctor added to it some remarks of his own, declaring that Brownell was "fully justified in taking any steps he saw proper for the safety of his command," etc. Now comes a review of Brownell's conduct by Judge-Advocate-General Davis, who, after an investigation, says that Brownell was not justified by any military necessity, and that his only duty in the premises was to hold Father Augustine as a prisoner of war. It appears from this high military authority that Brownell had no duties to perform at the time when his villany was executed, except to maintain order in the town where he was stationed, and that he tortured Father

Augustine to extract information to satisfy his own curiosity. Then he sums up the military view of the case by saying that "the taking of human life under the circumstances above disclosed constitutes one form of felonious homicide which is triable by military commission, by a general court-martial, and, in certain cases, by a civil court having criminal jurisdiction." Thus it appears, when the bottom facts are reached, that the charges of cruelty resulting in death, preferred against Capt. Brownell, for which the anti-Imperialist committees and newspapers have been so often censured and called slanderers of the army, have been confirmed, and more than confirmed, by the highest authority in the army. Torture of prisoners is never justified, but if it were ever justifiable, it was not so in the case of Father Augustine. Now who is the slanderer of the army? we beg to inquire. Is his name Herbert Welsh, or Carl Schurz, or Charles Francis Adams, or is it George B. Davis, Judge-Advocate-General, U. S. A.?

President Roosevelt's letter explaining his policy of negro appointments has received the almost unanimous endorsement of the Republican press. A part of the approval expressed is merely perfunctory; but here and there is a flash of the old enthusiasm for human rights. Mr. Roosevelt's doctrine of "all men up," as against "some men down," could not but stir the hearts of those who believe in equality of opportunity for talent of all kinds. Even the Southern newspapers have had to admit that the President is "theoretically right." But some of them quibble beautifully. The Mobile *Register*, for example, asks: "When is a man 'fit' for office? Mr. Roosevelt believes that if the man has character and ability he is fit"; but the *Register* goes on to argue that "fitness has a meaning of its own," and is not "merely a synonym of the other two words." That meaning is, in the last analysis, that you can pronounce a man unfit if you do not like him. "You are not fit, Dr. Fell; the reason why I cannot tell."

Two events, pregnant of ill to the State of Delaware and to the country as a whole, took place on Thursday. Mr. J. Edward Addicks was appointed by the Governor of the State to be a trustee of Delaware College, and William M. Byrne was nominated again by President Roosevelt as District Attorney. All the reasons why Byrne should not have been appointed four months ago remain of full force, with the additional one that the Senate Judiciary Committee reported adversely to him. The choice of a notorious briber as trustee of a college is a crime against the youth of the State and the country. In taking this step, the Governor has advertised himself as a corruptor of the morals of the rising generation. Far better would it be to send Addicks to the Senate, where only grown men would be exposed to his example and his teachings, than to place him in a position where he may be looked up to as a guide and monitor by boys at the impressionable age of college life.

At last Pennsylvania is going to have ballot reform, and we are bound to admit that Quay should have the credit of it. It goes by the name of the Quay Ballot Reform bill, as it ought, for when he decided that only high-souled statesmen should hold public office, he made enough of an exception to keep control of the Legislature. It is only fair to record that Quay's new friends feel that the bill which is about to become law is not quite all that they would have it. Its principal feature is that it changes the voting space from a circle to a square. Quay is "squaring the circle," irreverent persons are saying in Pennsylvania. But every one must realize that reforms come but slowly, especially in the Keystone State. And, of course, there are other changes. The names on the ticket are rearranged, and the sheet made smaller. To be sure, independent voting is rendered more difficult than before, but doubtless Quay did not think of that. "While disappointing to a great many," says the Philadelphia *Press*, "it can be accepted as a step in the right direction. There are various influences to be taken into account." Of course there are! That is one of the advantages of consorting with a man like Quay. You no longer go out into the dark and stumble over "various influences." You have them right at hand.

A strike of trainmen and firemen on the Wabash Railway, which had been in contemplation for some weeks, was on the point of being declared on Tuesday week, when an injunction was issued by Judge Adams of the United States District Court at St. Louis against the leaders of the Trainmen's Union. It commands them, until the further order of the court, absolutely to desist and refrain from ordering, coercing, persuading, inducing, or otherwise causing the employees of the Wabash Railway Company to strike or quit the service of the company. The injunction was obeyed, and the traffic of the company continues without interruption. There was a time in the history of the labor troubles and labor organization in this country when it was possible for the employees of a railway to desist from work without any warning whatever, and leave passengers stranded midway between stations, or to abandon a cattle train in a snowstorm, leaving the animals to perish from hunger and cold. The courts put a stop to that kind of strike, and organized labor itself acknowledged the justice of the proceeding, or at all events made no protest against it. No authority was assumed to curtail the liberties of workingmen to demand and enforce their rights in an orderly way, not inconsistent with the rights of other members of the community, but merely to postpone hasty action which might work irreparable injury to persons having no share or interest in the dispute. Judge Adams, we infer, has but applied this rule to the threatened strike on the Wabash Railway. At all events, his injunction is only temporary.

The anarchy which now always dogs the heels of a great strike has roused the citizens of Waterbury, Conn., to unusual efforts. They perceive that they have to protect the good name of their town, union-ridden as it has been of late years, as well as their own lives and property. Responsibility for the cold-blooded murder of a policeman who was guarding a car in charge of a non-union conductor and "scab" motorman is, of course, repudiated by the labor leaders. They profess great indignation that unionism should be thought capable of such a crime. As in the case of the outrages and murders in the coal regions, they challenge "legal proof" that any conspiracy to murder existed, or that any "member in good standing" was guilty of the foul deed. We presume that, at Waterbury as in Pennsylvania, it would be held a sufficient exculpation if the detected murderer should prove to be a member who was behind in his dues. That, as anyone can see, would clear the skirts of unionism. All these renewed sophistries and evasions are cut through, however, by a stroke of common sense. To whom was the murdered policeman offensive? Who thought of him as an enemy to be removed? In what atmosphere of hate and ferocity were engendered the passions which directly led to the murder? Everybody knows the right answers to these questions. It was the intolerant, the tyrannical, the unscrupulous spirit of unionism which fired the shot at the guardian of the non-union men. This was the case, whether it shall be proved or not that the revolver was actually held by a union man. The murder was the natural and fitting culmination of the long series of acts by desperadoes which were confessedly the weapons of unionists levelled at free laborers, and which have been bringing reproach upon the lax and timorous authorities of Waterbury.

As Mr. Goldwin Smith says, with accustomed pungency, in his letter in Tuesday's *Sun*, "whether the cause of the union is the cause of labor, can be determined only by allowing the laborer *freely to decide* whether it is his inter-

est to belong to a union or not. His judgment is not free if refusal exposes him to persecution." Goldwin Smith is entitled to speak on this subject, for he is one of those soldiers of liberty who fought out the battle of freedom of association for the workingman. With Bright and Cobden he stood against the oppressive combination laws which made it a crime for laboring men so much as to confer together to advance their own interests. And he now affirms that not one of that group of greatly daring Liberals who contended, under much obloquy and odium, against the laws which gave landlords and employers a monopoly, would have countenanced for an instant the modern attempt to create a monopoly of labor. Swift would have been the condemnation of those men for acts of labor-union violence—and its various disguises, as boycotting, picketing, or social ostracism of the non-union laborer—and great would have been their pain and astonishment at beholding the very classes whom they had striven to free from coercion, themselves turning coercionists of the most violent sort.

The action of the Steel Corporation's management, in deciding to carry out their much-discussed stock-conversion scheme, is greatly to be regretted. As all well-informed people in financial circles know, there is far less excuse for the plan to-day than there was when it was proposed a year ago. Regarding that part of the new bond issue which concerns the raising of $50,000,000 fresh capital for improvements, Judge Gary's statement as to the needs of the property will carry deserved weight; though even here it must be observed that the accretion, within the past twelve months, of upwards of $30,000,000 of "undivided earnings" should have made possible the reduction of borrowing demands. For the plan of converting $200,000,000 preferred stock into bonds—a plan already condemned by the best financial judgment—no defence is offered in the directors' circular, beyond the well-worn argument that interest on 5 per cent. bonds is 2 per cent. less than dividends on 7 per cent. stock. It has been intimated that the management itself wished to abandon a plan which the year's events have made not only needless but unwise, but that it found itself bound by its contract with the underwriting syndicate, and could not, therefore, change its policy. This is a possible explanation. Under that contract, the syndicate engaged last April to deliver, in exchange for a portion of the projected bonds, at least $20,000,000 cash and $80,000,000 preferred stock. In return for such services, the syndicate was to receive from the company a cash bonus of 4 per cent. on all bonds placed in accordance with the plan. Since the profit thus involved might amount to the very respectable sum of $10,000,000, it would not be at all surprising if the underwriters had stood on the terms of the contract, and it may be that their legal claim is impregnable. We doubt, however, if such an explanation will avert criticism.

A symposium of German professors on the Monroe Doctrine has produced more sound and fury than sweetness and light. The professors in council pretty generally committed themselves to the Middle-European theory, advocating a coalition against the "empty pretensions" of the United States. But these doctors disagree badly as to the scope of the central European confederacy. Professor Wagner, an economist at large, feels that the object of attack is Anglo-American preponderancy. "The world's civilization would hardly be advanced thereby." His bitter remarks, unwise and unjust though they be, are but the natural comment upon extreme Imperialism, whether British or American. Still another *Gelehrter* would like to see the Anglo-German alliance made permanent as against the United States. The editor of the Berlin *Post* finds that the blessed Doctrine is a "non-binding monologue, whose enforcement is purely a question of force," but he holds that Germany's interests are so little involved in the question that it may be dismissed as academic. In this German discussion, strangely enough, the part of wisdom has been left to the pessimist philosopher Eduard von Hartmann, who opines that it would be unpopular in Germany to speak well of the Doctrine, unpopular in America to speak ill of it; hence, that "silence is best."

The attempt to continue the unnatural alliance which has carried the tariff bill through the Reichstag is a striking tribute to the strength of the Socialist movement, against which the coalition is directed. It may be that fear of Socialism will cement a cabal composed of such incompatible elements as National Liberals, Anti-Semites, and Agrarians, but it is equally true that everything points to a corresponding increase in the strength of the Socialists. The scandalous food taxes, which must inevitably bring distress, the impediments thrown in the way of reciprocity treaties which might stimulate export of manufactured articles—this whole programme of industrial oppression pleads loudly the cause of social reform in all the cities of the Empire. In the election of 1898, the Social Democrats had a substantial plurality of the votes cast. Just how many votes they will add to their 2,120,000, or how many seats to their present 56, is matter of sheer speculation. But since the German proletariat has real and substantial grievances, and since the German Socialists have excellent leadership and a moderate programme of reform, it is certain that the movement must grow, despite temporary hostile combinations of the minor parliamentary groups. In fact, this tripartite alliance against Socialism will unfailingly recall to a whimsical observer a bond between an engineer, a fireman, and a stoker, to sit on the safety valve and prevent the escape of steam.

Professor Holland, who teaches international law at Oxford, points out that the Venezuelan protocols still leave it in doubt whether Great Britain was ever at war with Venezuela. The British Government seemed to cling to its theory of "unfriendly pressure" and "reprisals," as accounting for all that occurred. Professor Holland disposes of this by one knock-down argument. Prize courts were set up in Trinidad to pass upon captures, and prize courts necessarily imply a state of war. Even Lord Lansdowne appears to have been dimly aware that something very like war was going on, since one clause of the protocols provided that any treaty between Venezuela and Great Britain which "may have been abrogated by war" should be renewed. Professor Holland argues for more explicit and straightforward proceedings, contending that it is "surely desirable that henceforth Great Britain should know, and that other nations should at least have the means of knowing, for certain, whether she is at war or at peace."

To Roman Catholic Christianity, so perfect is the continuity of its traditions, it would make comparatively little difference whether Leo XIII. or another Pope were celebrating his twenty-fifth anniversary. The gorgeous display under Michelangelo's dome would be the same. Thousands of prelates in splendid robes would represent the ecclesiastical pomp that befits the head of a universal church, armored guards and equerries would keep up the requisite show of royal state, and the acclaiming multitude would represent that desire for spiritual leadership upon which, in the last analysis, all organized religion rests. What makes the present solemnity interesting to all thoughtful people, Christians or otherwise, is the man Joachim Pecci, not the Pope. In that ardent spirit lightly held in a frail body they see, first, a man of simple and apostolic piety who has carried into modern times the graceful scholarship of an Æneas Sylvius, and a Pontiff who has led a great church out of the toils of political intrigue prepared for it by Metternich, and onward into sympathy with society and government as they actually are. How important this exaltation of the moral as against the bureaucratic function of the Church has been is only beginning to be understood. Such considerations give to the ceremonies on March 3 a more than œcumenical significance.

LARGER ASPECTS OF THE LATE CONGRESS.

In passing judgment on the Fifty-seventh Congress, it will be wiser to look at its general influence and drift than merely to reckon up the number of bills passed, slain, or mutilated. Rival partisan cries always confuse the issue of fact. "You have been prodigal." "No, we have not." "The people will soon turn you out as unprofitable servants." "No, they won't; they will be too busy keeping *your* party out." These vain disputes profit us nothing. In actual work done, Congress has given us the usual mixture of sweet and bitter. We may thank it for a failure to act at all on the Ship-Subsidy bill; we may praise it for its beginnings of Trust regulation and for its measures of army reform—just as we must condemn it severely for its callous neglect of the Filipinos; but, after all, the more deeply and permanently interesting questions are, What political and public tendencies does the late Congress exemplify? How does it stand before the country as reflecting the national will?

We think that the two years just ended at Washington have marked, on the whole, a further abasement of the power of the House, as compared with the Senate. This has been partly due to its being in the hands of small men. Like Speaker, like House. Vacillating incapacity in the Chair goes well with fluctuating irresolution on the floor. But there is a deeper reason. Senators are more and more coming to dominate the House through their control of whole "delegations" in it. How can the House be expected to stand out against the Senate in a great matter of legislation on which Senators have set their hearts, when Quay and Platt and Hanna can walk over and whip their forty or fifty puppets into line? This is one of the ways in which the overshadowing Senate has grown more towering. Secretly controlling, because Senators have created, a large element in the House itself, it casts a grosser shadow every day.

Yet, with its swelling power, the session has shown it to possess a deepening disrepute with thoughtful men. Congressman Cannon, in his impassioned manner, uttered the thoughts of many hearts when he denounced the way in which the Senate delivers itself—and the public business—bound and gagged, into the hands of the unblushing obstructionist or the unscrupulous corruptor. The Senate has broken down in its own theory of "courtesy" as the solvent of all difficulties and the best agent in the dispatch of public affairs. So like the methods of highwaymen has the courtesy of the Senate appeared during the last few weeks; so shameless the arrogance and disregard of the general interest displayed; so humiliating and even disastrous the result, that it is no wonder the whole situation appears almost intolerable to Senators themselves. Unless they mend their manners or change their rules, it will soon appear altogether intolerable to the country.

In the matter of the relations of Congress and Executive, we have seen still further examples of what is called, on the one side, "Executive encroachments," and, on the other, "a firm discharge of the duty of the Chief Magistrate." Whatever we call it, or whatever we think of it, the fact remains that the President had to fling himself upon the late Congress, and exert his influence in all manner of open and indirect ways, in order to secure from its grudging hand the legislation which he and the people demanded. In many cases, even his impetuous urging could not make Congress budge; but the constant pressure has excited friction. Everybody who goes to Washington and has confidential conversation with Congressmen, is struck with the extraordinary bitterness of many of them towards Mr. Roosevelt. A frequent query of theirs is, "How can we keep that man out of the White House after his present term?" This intense hostility grows partly out of questions of patronage; but more out of the way in which the President has sailed his own course, and so often brought Congress up with a round turn. It pervades the entire party organization of Congress down to the very doorkeepers, who make no concealment of their hope that Senator Hanna will be the next President. The whole phenomenon is certainly one of the most striking facts connected with the Fifty-seventh Congress.

Fully as significant, however, is the total failure of the Congress to live up to the boasts and the promises of our Imperialists. As an organ of government for distant colonies, it has shown itself altogether a disappointment and a delusion. No Expansionist can deny this, for it stands written on the record. Out of President Roosevelt's own mouth let an Imperialist Congress be judged. At least three capital measures did he urge upon Congress as a portion of our "world-policy"—the interoceanic canal, the Cuban treaty, the Philippine Tariff bill. These were an essential part of that great mission which we are to play whether we want to or not. But Congress could tell Mr. Roosevelt a thing or two about that. It took his great-mission bills and threw them into the rubbish heap. He solemnly reminded it of the "responsibilities" which it had assumed, but it couldn't have run away from them any more cavalierly if it had been his own dearest foe—the "weakling."

Why should this surprise us? Our country's very existence is a standing protest against the notion that colonies can be justly governed across the estranging sea. That idea fails to-day with us, just as it failed with England and her American colonies, and with Spain and hers. We send our best Governor to the Philippines; but when he emphatically warns us that our course is one of perilous neglect, we treat his appeals and his protests just as England treated Franklin's, or Spain Polavieja's. In other words, Congress stands to-day a confessed failure, in the eyes of Imperialists themselves, as a source of wise and healing legislation for distant subjects. What our forefathers asserted to be the necessary fate of a people governed against their will and without representation, we are now proving in the sad experience of our Philippine subjects. Disagreeable as it would be to President Roosevelt to confess this truth, by at once calling the new House in extra session, as well as the new Senate, and demanding the passage of the bill which Gov. Taft certifies to be vital to the welfare of the Filipinos, that way duty, if not strenuosity, lies.

NEGROES AND POOR WHITES.

President Roosevelt's prompt renewal of the nomination of Dr. Crum will compel the new Senate, with a Republican majority of twenty-four, to face a question which the last Senate endeavored to shirk. That question is whether the colored man of education and character is to be recognized and encouraged, and through him his race encouraged. Behind this individual case there lies, of course, the large principle at stake. Is the attack on the negro's political rights to include an assault upon his personal rights? Is his disqualification for office to go hand in hand with his disfranchisement? Is he to be thrust back, instead of helped, when he tries to rise? These are the issues now looming large before the Republican party, and it could not put them by if it wished.

In approaching their discussion and settlement it is necessary to look fairly at the situation in the South. The apparent solidity there in opposition to the colored man's struggle upward is not real. Evidence abounds that the best Southern people do not share that intense hostility to the negro's aspirations which has been voiced in so many an intolerant utterance by Southern newspapers and Southern Congressmen. For negro education, in particular, is there widespread sympathy among intelligent Southerners. They show it in word, and deed, and gift. The heads of institutions for the education of colored youth testify in the strongest way to the active encouragement and support which they receive from the finest white citizenship about them. There is undoubtedly a philanthropic class of Southerners who not only think kindly of the negro, but labor intelligently for his uplifting.

This brings us to the striking fact that the most violent and clamorous pro-

tests against equality before the law for the negro come from the "poor whites" of the South. (We use the term for identification, merely, not by way of reproach.) It is they and their spokesmen who are most intemperate and inflammatory. Senator Tillman is their apostle. If not exactly a poor white himself, it was at any rate as the representative of that class that he rose to power. It was the more ignorant and prejudiced white vote of South Carolina which enabled Benjamin Tillman to wrest political control from the old white aristocracy of the State. He exalted himself by humbling the Hamptons and Butlers, and driving them out of public life. This must be borne in mind when weighing the words of this man. He does not speak for the entire South, but for a Southern class. The Lamars, the Gordons, the Haygoods, the Currys—in general, the intellectual and moral aristocracy of the South—would repudiate Tillman's extreme positions as indignantly as the best people of the North.

This, however, does not lessen the ominous significance of the stand taken by the South Carolina Senator. Speaking for his class, he declares opposition not only to negro office-holding, but to negro suffrage; not only to negro suffrage, but to negro education. In his speech in the Senate on February 24, he made it all too clear that the poor whites of the South dread and hate the rise of the negro to better things. The only good negroes in Mr. Tillman's eyes are those who quietly work for the white man and "do not know anything about the elections." It was all very fine, he said, for the President to talk about not shutting the door of hope and opportunity to the black man, but if you opened it to the negro, do you not see that you would be shutting it in the face of his white brother? What the poor whites really want was declared without ambiguity by Senator Tillman. They want the negroes to remain in ignorance and degradation, so that they may continue as a sort of serviceable peasantry in the South, and never rid themselves of "that feeling of *subordination* which is their only salvation."

The bearing of this on negro education is obvious. Senator Tillman is frank enough and logical enough to see whither his argument tends. He perceives that, if the educated negro is not to be permitted to rise, then it is criminal folly to educate him at all. Accordingly, he admits that the educational qualification for the suffrage, adopted in so many Southern States, was designed only as a makeshift to suppress the negro vote. It was only a "temporary" expedient, says Senator Tillman; and he is now in a state of great alarm over the increasing number of negro graduates from public schools who are able to pass the educational test. The idea of an intelligent electorate—when *colored*—appalls Mr. Tillman. "Every man who can look beyond his nose can see that, with the negroes constantly going to school, the increasing number of people who can read and write among the colored race . . . will in time encroach upon and reach and overbalance our white men." This is the fear which makes Senator Tillman assert that the sufficiency of the educational solution of the race problem in the South can be believed in only by "shallow thinkers." His remedy would be to shut the negroes out of school as well as out of office. This shows how essentially and necessarily the movement against the political rights of the negro is a movement to force him back into ignorance and barbarism. This is not slavery, it is said. "Subordination," the wise it call. But, however named, it is evident that the poor whites of the South are bent on putting it as a yoke upon the colored race, which they would keep in a condition of tacit helotry, hewers of wood and drawers of water for ever.

THE WALL STREET FLURRY.

There are people in Wall Street who believe that the prevailing stringency in money is due to the failure of the Aldrich bill, and to the large drafts of the Treasury on the cash reserves of the banks. This opinion prevails extensively among those who are carrying on margin large blocks of railroad and industrial bonds which they have been unable to sell. The load of these securities resting on the market is enormous. It is impossible to make any close estimate of the amount, since nobody knows how many have been worked off since their first issue. They consist largely of new securities which are intended to take the place of old ones, but which have to be first converted into money; in part, also, of new undertakings such as additional tracks and terminal facilities for railways, and still more, perhaps, for the purchase of small roads to serve as branches of large ones. The total amount which has not yet reached the hands of investors who will hold them for the sake of the income they bring, ranges in the hundreds of millions of dollars. The securities are generally of a good class. They earn their interest. In an ordinary market they would pay for their own carrying. The only trouble is that there are too many of them. The resources of the banks were never so large as now, yet they have their limits. The demands upon them are apparently without limit, and Europe has been called upon from time to time to make up the difference.

According to the best estimates obtainable, our floating indebtedness abroad at midsummer last year was between four and five hundred millions. In one way and another this had been lessened about one-half at the beginning of the present year, and would have been reduced to manageable proportions ere this time but for an unexpected phenomenon, the freight blockade. This element in the financial situation has not received the attention that it deserves. Enormous quantities of grain have been stopped between the producer and the consumer for the want of cars, locomotives, and rails. Wheat that was started from the farms last December and sent five hundred miles eastward is still en route. Offers have been made by shippers in the West of 2½ cents per bushel above the published rates, for the transportation of corn to any seaport beween Boston and New Orleans. The grain elevators on the lakes are full to bursting, and here we find another drastic call for money. If all of this stuff could be moved it would all be paid for, and would *pro tanto* liquidate our indebtedness abroad. The part which cannot be moved must be carried by the banks. The "hurry call" from the West for money two weeks ago must have had some connection with the congested condition of the grain trade, and this congestion cannot possibly be relieved before the opening of lake navigation. The fact is, that our railroads were built and equipped for the conditions of twenty years ago. In the interval, great cities have doubled in population and more than doubled in productive power. Facilities of transportation have not increased in like proportion, and, generally speaking, terminal facilities have not increased at all. The latter, being the most expensive additions of all, are generally the last ones attended to, and here we find the most stubborn element of the freight blockade.

The payment of our floating debt abroad grew less and less, and finally came to a halt, and now we are borrowing back the same money we had once paid. Europe is willing to let us have it at a price. Time money was loaned to New York borrowers by Berlin last week at 5½ per cent., and even 6 per cent. was quoted in that market on Saturday. Of course, such rates cannot be paid forever on collaterals which earn only 4, 4½, or 5 per cent. The situation must work its own cure. There is money enough in the world to absorb at some price all the surplus bonds that are really earning their interest. Both American and European investors will take them when they think that the bottom has been reached. Dropping the price, however, is a delicate matter, like taking soundings on a lee shore during a fog. The investing public usually go in droves. They buy when prices are rising, and abstain when they are falling. They are abstaining now, not because they do not consider the goods worth the prices asked, but because they believe that some of the present holders will be obliged to sell, and

that then better bargains can be made. They are probably right in so thinking.

In the face of the enormous calls for money to carry this accumulation, the takings of the Treasury are of small account. And what do these takings signify? They represent the consumption of goods by the American people. They are imposts and excises (cuttings-off) which the Government takes as its share of commercial transactions. The greater or less amount which the Government takes is symptomatic of the condition of trade at any given time. At the present time they point to a condition of general prosperity. It is something like mockery to tell a man whose note at the bank, backed by good collaterals, is called, that the country is prosperous. Yet that is the fact. Whether the flurry in Wall Street shall continue or subside, the economic condition of the country is sound, of which fact the freight blockade is additional testimony coincident with the large receipts of the Treasury. The London *Times* is right in saying that our business world has "bitten off more than it can chew," if that phrase is limited to the manufacture of stocks and bonds, but not if it applies to the production and exchange of the useful commodities of civilized life.

MODERN MEDIÆVALISM.

It is more than likely that most Americans heard for the first time the name of Gaston Paris through the inadequate obituaries printed in Friday's papers, yet the news of his death will bring to scores of scholars in our colleges and universities that peculiar sense of loss which comes when a leader dies. For Gaston Paris illustrated in its perfection, if he did not originate, a new and fruitful attitude towards the study of the Middle Ages. The time will come when scholars will study the Mediæval Renaissance, which throughout the nineteenth century runs curiously counter to the ever increasing current of natural science, as they now study the Classical Renaissance. Such investigators will discover that the first generation of Mediævalists, whom we may represent roughly by Bishop Percy of the 'Reliques,' by Herder and the Schlegels in Germany, by Scott and Hugo in fiction, and Ruskin in art, all approached the Middle Ages in the spirit of sentimental travellers. They welcomed the ring of Roland's horn and the flash of Siegfried's brand, or the naïve beauty of an allegory by Giotto as a relief from the periwigged Catos and Cæsars, and, in general, from the conventional Olympus of the eighteenth century. The world was weary of the clarity and common sense of Voltaire, and found solace in the mysterious land of Arthur or the strange doom of Tristan and Isolde.

There was a mixture of motives in the enthusiasm of the first mediævalists. They loved the literature and the art of the Middle Ages for its romantic quality, which they greatly exaggerated, and for its unlikeness to the art of the followers of Boileau and Pope. They also found the fund of mediæval legends an inexhaustible quarry of fresh and attractive material for literature. Scott in a score of works, Hugo in 'Notre Dame de Paris' and 'La Légende des Siècles,' our own Longfellow in the 'Golden Legend' and 'Tales of a Wayside Inn,' discovered to the world a little part of the neglected treasures of the Middle Ages. None of the men of this school really understood or cared to understand the material with which they were dealing, any more than the ardent tourist, glutted with new sensations and impressions of beauty, cares to break the spell of enjoyment with the chill of analysis. They had at best proved that the Middle Ages offered much of interest, that Beowulf deserved some consideration beside (say) Ajax, and that the courtly Gawain was not, even in comparison with Ulysses, a negligible personality; they had at most rather asserted than proved that it was as reasonable to consult our nearer origins in the Middle Ages as it was to seek the remoter sources of our culture in classical antiquity.

While these excursions and alarums of the littérateurs were in progress, hundreds of obscure scholars throughout the civilized world were following tardily the example of Muratori, and actually publishing the remains of mediæval literature and art. The first effect of this work was a revulsion of feeling. Studied more narrowly, the Middle Ages lost much of their mystery. The men were very like ourselves. Their literature was at times puerile, and not seldom tedious; their architecture, despite the impassioned pleading of Ruskin and the saner advocacy of Viollet-le-Duc, not adapted to our modern needs. There was and is danger that all who concerned themselves with things mediæval should get a reputation for mole-like industry and corresponding stupidity.

The lifework of Gaston Paris is a refutation of any such short-sighted view. He saw, as Jacob Grimm had seen before him, and as his master, Diez, had shown him, that the Middle Ages must be studied comprehensively as the record of a common and highly intricate civilization. He saw that no single literature could be understood by or for itself. He made it his task to trace the action of literature upon literature. Thus, in one of the most delightful of his popular essays, he shows how the Celtic poets gave to the story of the fated lovers, Tristan and Isolde, its ruder form, how the Normans of England modified the legend in a romantic direction, how the Germans decorated and interpreted it, until the French prettified it out of all resemblance to its original state. Nor is his study complete with the courtly poets of the twelfth century; he analyzes, in conclusion, the modern (one might say, neglecting chronology, the *fin-de-siècle*) atmosphere of pessimism which Wagner wove about this primitive legend of ill-fated love.

No one will fail to note how in such a study erudition and human interest go hand in hand. M. Paris took all mediæval knowledge to be his province. He followed his material, most frequently an episode of the great legend of Arthur, through a dozen literatures. Old Irish, Welsh, Old English, Icelandic, German, French, Spanish, Italian —no pertinent document or version was neglected in his survey. Even in the more special articles which he published in his journal, *Romania*, one frequently had the exhilarating sense of dealing with a living thing. To him a legend or heroic tradition was not merely a literary oddity. It was a growth which, upon a slender basis of history, came into being in answer to the needs of a people. It was an organism that had the power to slough off superfluous members, to graft upon itself foreign material, to lose itself in some greater legend cycle—all of these transmutations arising in obedience to the thought and feeling of the men of the Middle Ages. This mere hint of M. Paris's point of view should suggest its value. He hoped to ascertain the mediæval spirit as definitely as classical scholarship has assimilated the Hellenic or Roman spirit. There is no need to compare the two fields of study. Enough that both are humane, and that the mastery of any alien civilization is in a sense a doubling of the personality of the investigator.

It was consonant with the comprehensiveness and humane intention of this new mediævalism that its most distinguished representative found time, while indefatigable in his production of special works, to fulfil the public duties of an Academician, the large administrative responsibilities of the Directorship of the College of France, to dispense a gracious hospitality to all literary Paris and its guests, to train hundreds of students in his methods; finally, to make accessible to the cultured public his most important results in essays on mediæval subjects which are a model of classic structure and grace.

MIDWINTER LOAFING IN JAMAICA.—II.

PORT MORANT, February 3, 1903.

The journey from Port Antonio to Mandeville, where my previous letter was dated, may well be broken at Spanish Town. The island was discovered by Columbus during his second voyage, in 1494, and tradition still points out the spot where he careened his ship. The Spanish domination lasted considerably less than half of the four centuries that have since elapsed, for in 1655 Admiral Penn, the father of our William, came out at Cromwell's behest and made Jamaica a British dependency; and thus the names of the two capitals, Spanish Town of the past and Kingston of the present, suggest in briefest epitome the history of the island. Spanish Town is, in very deed, of the past, and "Ichabod" is writ staring on its walls; but not, I must admit, on the walls of its charming little inn, the Rio Cobre, for of that hostelry the "glories are" not yet "departed." A superb Royal Palm adorns the space before the main entrance; the verandas are cool and shady, the rooms airy and clean; and the bath-tanks (you can hardly call them tubs) of cumbrous masonwork are uncommonly inviting. The food and cooking, too, are distinctively Jamaican: you may have yams done to perfection—that is, without a trace of sogginess—or fried ackie (its toothsomeness, I suspect, like that of sweetbreads, is adscititious), or stewed guavas with cocoanut cream (toothsomeness, *per contra*, intrinsic!); and for dessert you may, after your banana pudding, have a glass of "matrimony," or make it yourself by mingling in a large "schooner" the pulp of an orange with that of a custard-apple. I am seated near several young men (Norwegian and German) who have come hither from the technical schools of Berlin to serve as chemical experts in the dyestuff

factory. A letter from the Fatherland is given to one of them, and, holding it in a hand that is stained very black, he reads it with an expression that makes one surmise that, despite tropical scenery and luscious fruits and good pay, life here to him is exile indeed.

After luncheon and a leisurely siesta, I visit the cathedral church of St. James of the Plain (Santiago de la Vega). It is an impressively venerable structure. The enthusiasm of the verger, perhaps more loving than judicial, referred one part of the transept to the year 1530; a critic in Kingston made short shrift with that claim, but the solid mahogany roof-timbers of the (much younger) nave are so black as to suggest great antiquity to the unrestrained imagination of the laic. The aisles are paved with the sepulchral tablets of old-time notables, and the inscriptions, well worn by the footsteps of the devout, are now literally the "fading honors of the dead." A rickety "buggy" takes you to the somnolent market, to the superb statue of Rodney that commemorates his victory over the French fleet in 1782, to the King's House, once the residence of the Governors, the worthy scene of many a stately function, and so finally to the quiet railway station.

The first few miles offer convincing evidence as to the value of irrigation. On our left are extensive plantations of logwood trees, and the well-watered acres are green and flourishing with unnumbered tons of the precious dyeware; while on our right the land stretches dry and sear in almost painful contrast. The irrigated acres have recently quadrupled in value, they say, and I can well believe it. The train passes under the arches of a beautiful old Spanish aqueduct. It looks as if it were modelled after the Roman one at Segovia in Old Castile; and one might marvel at the age and directness of a human tradition that reaches from the Campagna of 312 B. C. to St. Catherine's parish of now, were it not for the thought that our planet is, after all, but a chick-pea in the cosmos, and recorded human history not half the tick of many a celestial clock. Be all that as it may, Jamaican railway journeys at longest are short. From Spanish Town to Williamsfield, where we leave the train, is about forty-one miles, and a run of two hours. An hour and a half is spent on the first thirty-five; that brings us to Porus, where the climb begins in dead earnest, and the remaining half-hour is spent on the remaining half-dozen miles. As miles of horizontal progress they count for six, but they include also nearly nine hundred feet of progress in the vertical. At Williamsfield we enter a "buggy" and are fairly whirled upward for another eight hundred and more, over the splendid roads, until at last, behind horses that steam in the chill evening air, we alight at the lodgings of Mrs. Halliday in Mandeville.

Apart from climate and flora, there is much in Jamaica to remind you of India. There are coolies (ten thousand and more), with bangles on their arms, and on their walls Sanskrit or nāgarī characters, a script that almost startles you here at the antipodes of the pandits. One sign, as I remember it, was "Dan Pattie a Coolie man," evidently the Sanskrit Dhana-pati, 'Lord of wealth,' and having as little to do with Daniel and Patrick as the "wealth" had to do with stocks and bonds. The country beds are springless couches on which is laid a mat of rushes or leaf-fibre, thus answering to the seetalputty or 'cool mat' of Bengal. The fewness of the birds is very striking, and, if you ask the reason, you are told that the mungoose was imported from India to exterminate (*à la* Rikki-tikki-tavi) the snakes; that he did his work no less effectively than Kipling's little hero; but that he then devoted himself to the birds and their eggs, and that even now he does not discriminate properly between birds and poultry. This was more than the Jamaicans bargained for, and yet all the time there were Sanskrit fables, millenniums old, to warn them against precisely such a contingency! Even the place-names suggest India. Mandeville recalls the shadowy Sir John and his wanderings on the way to Cathay; and was not Porus the Hindu King famous for his quick-witted answer to Alexander the Great? "How would you be treated?" asked the victor. "Like a King," said Porus.

The sights of Mandeville are not the "work of men's hands." They are the distant hills and mountains, and the sky. But I visited the market on market-day. There you shall see women who have walked a dozen miles with a basket of yams on their head; donkeys laden with most unrefined loaves of native brown sugar, and with a look of indifference to joy or to sorrow on their faces that would do credit to a Buddhist saint; ropes of tobacco at "thruppence" a yard; fruits that attract and meats that repel; for indeed the shambles were enough to subdue to vegetarianism the carnivorous instinct of the rabidest beef-eater. You wonder that the methods of exchange and distribution should still be so primitive, and—perhaps, rather loftily—you contrast them with those obtaining at Park & Tilford's or at Wanamaker's.

It was a discovery fit for a wandering New Englander's Sunday to find that every one of our company of eight at Mrs. Halliday's was from New England; and pleasantly suggestive of Cambridge and home to hear in the evening Longfellow's "Psalm of Life" read aloud from a collection that lay in the common room. To me it was a vivid reminder of my honored colleague and neighbor and friend, Charles Eliot Norton, to hear by odd chance, immediately thereafter, the charming idyll of his father, Andrews Norton (1786-1853), entitled, "After a Summer Shower." What Harvard student of to-day thinks of Cambridge as the possible setting for an idyll? Its quiet roads, its lanes, with grassy walks and borders of trees, are gone; "progress and improvement" have given us instead noisy tracks of steel, pavements of brick bordered with massive posts and foliage of wire—all as little suggestive of poetry as is the lumbering water-cart that lays the pungent dust. Norton's lines, sweet with the smell of woods and field, are a poem, and a document as well, and deserve to be remembered elsewhere than in Jamaica.

We bestir ourselves Monday long before sunrise. To be awake at that hour in the tropics is not unworth the while, if for no other purpose than to see the splendid stars, their quick and silent fading out, and the glories of sunrise. That very sight gave the *motif* for one of the oldest poems of our race, a hymn of the Rig-Veda, of which one verse (1. 50. 2), Englished quite closely, reads:

> "Off—like as robbers—slink away
> Yon constellations with their beams
> Before the all-beholding Sun."

The moderns will not greatly improve the description. Broad daylight finds us jolting prosily along in our train, and, as we near Kingston, the business men join us. One of them, a little lawyer, engaged in conversation by my companion, berates the Torrens system of land-registration, now in force here, for its possibilities of injustice, quite in the manner of much more intelligent, and so less excusable, conveyancers nearer home.

The day at the capital passes quickly with sight-seeing and the buying of knick-knacks. For the boys you must take home machetes, the big chopping-knives that look so murderous, and are, in fact, used so generally for the most peaceful operations of husbandry; and for the girls you take brown-faced, West India dollies, and some little ippi-appi hats, the latter durable enough to serve for the dollies of the granddaughters of those same girls. If, otherwise than by personal observation and inquiry, you want to learn facts about the island, get the 'Handbook of Jamaica for 1902, comprising historical, statistical, and general information concerning the island,' by T. L. Roxburgh and Joseph C. Ford. It is issued by the Government Printing-Office at Kingston, and is in its twenty-third year of publication. The most important guide to other sources of information is doubtless the 'Bibliographia Jamaicensis,' by Frank Cundall, Secretary of the Institute of Jamaica (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). This is a well-arranged collection of over eleven hundred titles, set under such rubrics as history, descriptive accounts, biography, natural history, medicine, agriculture, trade, law, folk-lore, fiction, etc., and is obviously indispensable for any serious student. The Institute Library is rich in works on Jamaica; and among the exhibits of the attractive museum are the papers which were found in the maw of a shark, and which led to the condemnation of the brig *Nancy*, in 1799—ocular evidence of an occurrence such as has formed the cardinal incident of many a romantic tale of ancient and modern times.

Our steamer quitted Kingston harbor early this morning for Boston, calling here for the day at Port Morant for a few thousand more bunches of bananas. As we turn to enter the bay, the air is filled with delightful fragrance, and I am told that it comes from the blossoms of the logwood trees on the somewhat distant shore. The supercargo, at leisure for an hour or two, is a man of intelligence, and tells me not a little of his happy life on an estate of 993 acres of which he has the leasehold; and something, too, of the banana industry. He was sanguine in his prophecy of fortunes for the men who shall successfully utilize as paper fibre the enormous masses of banana stalks that now rot on the ground. As to the reason why Congress maintains an import duty on bananas he was discreetly reticent; perhaps it is for the protection of some growers of this hardy fruit on the sun-kissed slopes of Nahant!

It may interest others than myself to know that the custom obtains here for the tenant or sub-tenant to pay the taxes to the Government directly, and not through the hands of his landlords. How often with

us is the tenant of an apartment, or even of a stately house, looked upon, not only by others, but even by himself, as a non-taxpayer, because, forsooth, he makes no direct remittance to the collector! And what possibilities of improvement in our municipal life inhere in the Jamaican custom! If only the day laborer could be brought to see that the money squandered by dishonest officials is his money, earned by his toil, how much more keenly alive to the need of good public housekeeping might he not become! But our bananas are aboard, the night is falling, the steamer rounds the point, and, thrusting her bow into the billows of the northeast swell, she heads for Cape Maysi and home. C. R. LANMAN.

Correspondence.

WANTED—AN INDIVIDUALIST PARTY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Politics," according to George IV., "is a poor trade for a gentleman." It certainly is, if he tries to think consistently. In politics, if he appeals from what seems to be the immediately expedient to principles, the ultimately expedient, he is "doctrinaire." If he is in opposition to the general trend, he is "negative"—like the ten commandments, and about as unpopular. If he points out evils, he is "pessimistic." Let him believe that our Legislatures might better be employed in repealing discredited statutes than in passing similar measures to be discredited, and he is not "constructive." Should he oppose tinkering, he is scoffed at as "laisser-faire." Without offence, he may ably discuss any single question; but if, in its discussion, he hints at the existence of a coördinating thesis—a central unifying idea—in his theory of politics, he is "not practical." If he gives the public something that is not kindergarten, he commits the unpardonable sin—he is "academic." In politics, the personnel, with praiseworthy exceptions, is what might be expected from the philosophy.

Disraeli, the tricky, once said with a complacent smirk, "This country is governed by Parliament, and not by logic." If he should come to earth again, none of our Legislatures would offend him by their excessive addiction to logic. But a change is coming. As the Barbarians were a beneficent scourge to Rome for cowardly living, the Socialists will prove a needed corrective to us for our cowardly thinking.

There are two great basal principles of political action—Socialism and Individualism. Two parties are needed to represent these principles. The Socialist party is doing effective work by forcing vacillating politicians into definite positions. An Individualist party—call it Republican, if you wish: the name is not important—it is to be hoped, will soon be formed. The day is coming when the people will say to both the great parties, in the strong, old-fashioned words of Scripture: "I know thy ways, thou art neither hot nor cold. I will spue thee out of my mouth."

JAMES DOOLING.

NEWTONVILLE, MASS., March 5, 1903.

CULTURE, OR SOMETHING AKIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been greatly interested in "Agatha's" 'Observations in a Big University,' and in Fanny Purdy Palmer's addendum thereto under the heading "Culture and 'Commonness.'" With many of the views expressed I am in closest sympathy; but, as a graduate from one of those "big Western universities," I protest against any final judgment being pronounced upon them or the results of their training when only the two witnesses, "Culture" as defined by Matthew Arnold, and "Commonness," have been heard.

If to be truly cultured one must be engaged in "the disinterested pursuit of perfection," then few of the graduates of our Western universities are or may ever hope to be cultured. Arnold's definition of culture may adequately define the culture of one who is always and only to be a scholar; but if the word be limited to his definition, we shut out a "something" which comes to the life of every earnest student who spends four years in a big university—a something which we have made bold to call culture.

Our Western universities are receiving young men and young women from country homes and from small villages, and giving them opportunities to come in touch not only with the brightest minds among their fellows, but with the matured and broadened intellects of professors and teachers; they are enlarging the horizon of life for thousands of boys and girls, and giving them sound views on the relative values of things with which they will come in constant contact in their future lives. In spite of the frivolity which "Agatha" deplores, these big Western universities are teaching the majority of their students to attack difficult problems with courage and zeal, and to hold to them until they are solved. If this mental and spiritual breadth and depth, the soundness of judgment and courage of spirit—in short, the power to meet life as it faces each of them in future years, and to meet it victoriously—if this spirit, which is developed in our big universities, be not "Culture," it is something very worthy to take its place.

JEANNETTE BOYNTON STORMS.

MADISON, WIS., March 4, 1903.

A MISFIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: From a letter published in one of your recent issues, written by Mr. Jones of the Salem Public Library, I notice that he has had some difficulty in using the index to the American edition of Alderson's 'Andrew Carnegie.' I mistrust that the American publishers, in resetting the work from the English edition, have "followed copy" in the case of the index without replacing the references by new paging. If Mr. Jones had purchased the English edition, he could have imported it for 56 cents, instead of paying $1.26 (library rate for the American edition), and would have had a copy in which the index would "work."

Very truly yours,

GEORGE F. BOWERMAN, Librarian.

WILMINGTON INSTITUTE FREE LIBRARY, WILMINGTON, DELAWARE, March 4, 1903.

THE "FIRST NOVEL" SERIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has just been called to a review of a novel published by Messrs. McClure, Phillips & Co., in your issue of February 5. It is described as being a volume in the "First Novel" series. I certainly am much surprised to see this announcement, as this is the title of a series we originated now some twelve months ago, the first volume in which, 'Wistons,' by Miles Amber, was published in New York by Messrs. Scribner, and the other volumes in the same series have been published in New York by Messrs. Appleton and Messrs. Funk & Wagnalls. Under the circumstances surely there must be some mistake; I cannot believe that another publishing house would adopt the title and style of a Library issued by a confrère, even though he be an Englishman.

Yours truly, T. FISHER UNWIN.

11, PATERNOSTER BUILDINGS, LONDON, February 19, 1903.

Notes.

'The Development of Muslim Theology, Jurisprudence and Constitutional Theory,' by Prof. Duncan B. Macdonald of Hartford Theological Seminary, is in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons for speedy publication.

From McClure, Phillips & Co.'s spring list we select an abridgment and rearrangement in one volume, by George Gissing, of Forster's Life of Dickens; 'Life and Destiny,' by Felix Adler; 'The Prayers of Dr. Johnson,' edited by W. A. Bradley; 'The Flower Garden,' by Ida Bennett; 'A Book of Travel,' before the mast, by Albert Sonnichsen; 'American Industrial Problems,' by W. B. Lawson; and 'George Douglas Brown: Unpublished Papers and a Memoir.'

Twenty-six studies of American character constitute Mr. George Ade's new book, 'People You Know,' in the press of R. H. Russell.

The Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, have nearly ready, in "The Historic Highways of America," 'Braddock's Road,' to be followed by 'The Old Glade Road' and 'Boone's Wilderness Road'; also, the first of the 55 volumes of 'The Philippine Islands, 1493-1803,' edited by E. H. Blair and J. A. Robertson, with an introduction by Prof. E. G. Bourne.

The "universal language" is not dead yet, as witness 'Esperanto: The Student's Complete Textbook,' containing full grammar, exercises, commercial letters, and two vocabularies, compiled by J. C. O'Connor, B.A., and to be published immediately by Fleming H. Revell Co.

From Richard G. Badger, Boston, we may expect Julius Wolf's metrical romance of 'Tannhäuser,' translated by Charles G. Kendall; 'Vita,' a drama, by Grace Denio Litchfield; and a large number of books of verse.

Francis P. Harper will publish early next month a 'History of Early Steamboat Navigation on the Missouri River: Life and Adventures of Joseph La Barge,' in two volumes, illustrated by Capt. Hiram Martin Chittenden. It will form No. 4 of the "American Explorers Series."

The season's output of A. C. McClurg &

Co. embraces 'An Index to Poetry and Recitations,' based on more than 300 standard and popular collections; 'A Selection from the Best English Essays,' with introductions and an historical and critical study of English prose style, by Sherwin Cody; 'Reflections of a Lonely Man,' by A. C. M.; 'The Souls of Black Folk,' by Prof. W. E. B. DuBois, of Atlanta University; 'The Law of Mental Medicine,' by Dr. Thomas J. Hudson; Felix Dahn's 'Felicitas,' translated by Mary J. Safford; and 'Cartoons by McCutcheon,' from the Chicago *Record-Herald*.

Lemcke & Büchner announce that they will publish, for America, the *editio princeps* of one of the oldest manuscripts of any Greek author, Timotheus of Miletus, the 'Persæ,' from a papyrus recently found at Abusir—unfortunately the second half only. It has been edited by U. von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff. Hitherto only a few quotations from this work have been known. A facsimile edition will be issued with a short introduction, and also a text edition with a very full introduction, a philological commentary, a paraphrase in scholiastic Greek, and *index verborum*.

The Wallace collection at London has been the subject of many illustrated works, but none of these have been so ambitious as the folio announced by Goupil & Co. The entire work will be printed on Japanese vellum; the plates will be 100, of which twenty will be colored in "Goupilgravure." It will be issued in ten parts, with duplicates of the plates on India paper. The edition is limited to 100 copies, and the price thirty dollars a part.

Walter Jerrold's edition of Thackeray's Prose Works (Dent-Macmillan) proceeds with his 'Paris Sketch-Book.' The illustrations are rather notable—a handful by Brock, including a counterfeit of Philipon's pear-shaped caricature of Louis Philippe; a copy of Burnard's bust of Thackeray; and the author's own "Ludovicus Rex," or royalty robed and disrobed.

The sub-title "First Folio Edition" gives the reason for a new issue of Shakspere by Charlotte Porter and Helen Clark. The text is a literal reprint of the First Folio, all additions by the editors or from the quartos being inclosed in brackets. Emendations and various readings are relegated to the foot of the page, though rejected variorum readings have an especial appendix. The notes are very full, and also the glossary, while there is a department of "selected criticism." This is said of "A Midsommer Nights Dreame," which, neglecting the order of the First Folio, begins the series. The volume is of pocket size, and satisfactorily made by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. It should be acceptable to all readers of antiquarian taste, for Shakspere as his editors and their printers spelled him is not easily accessible. But the careful editors of the present series have been unfortunate in departing from their principle in printing not the portrait from the First Folio, but the so-called "Droeshout Original" portrait at Stratford. This panel will undoubtedly turn out to be only an oil transcript from the print, as Mr. John Corbin intimated some time ago in an article on the Shakspere portraits at Stratford.

The printer's device or trade-mark, which seems to have been suppressed almost entirely by general consent during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, was revived by William Pickering of London, about 1830, and has been steadily growing in favor ever since. The Gillis Press of New York has made the trade-mark of that house the subject of a neat little book ('The Story of a Motto and a Mark') explanatory of their device, with its legend in Italian which may be thus freely translated: "Trifles make perfection, but perfection is not a trifle." This legend is attributed to Michelangelo. Several examples of the devices of early printers are introduced to illustrate the subject more clearly. It is a misfortune that some of these illustrations have been reduced too much; they give form with correctness, but are deficient in light and shade, and do not fairly illustrate the strength, clearness, and breadth intended by the designer. Over-reduction in photo-engraving is a common evil which makes the reader lament the decadence of engraving on wood. A design painted with a brush, of the size 16x20 inches, or a print, in the original 4x5 inches, has a different appearance in a book illustration when reduced to the size of 2x3 inches or less. Accuracy of form is preserved, but light and shade are damaged. Pale grays and dark grays become confused and foggy. Excellent presswork has diminished the bad effects of too much reduction in the Gillis Press book, which is in many features a bit of beautiful workmanship, and contains bits of valuable information.

The *Studio* (New York: John Lane) publishes 'Representative Art of Our Time,' which is to be completed in eight parts. Each part is a large paper-covered folio containing half a dozen plates—original etchings, engravings or woodcuts, and reproductions in color of oil or watercolor paintings, pastels, or chalk drawings. This is a publication with an air of sumptuousness and importance, but little of the work contained in it is really remarkable. "The Bather," an original mezzotint by Marx Pietschmann, is the only plate in the three numbers now before us which we have found at all inspiring. The work is edited by Charles Holme, and each number contains a monograph on some branch of art. Thus, we have had, so far, "The Modern Aspect of Wood-Engraving," by Charles Hiatt; "The Modern Aspect of Artistic Lithography," by Joseph Pennell, and "The Future Development of Oil-Painting," by Percy Bate. The last paper amounts to little more than an admission that we know nothing about its subject, while Mr. Pennell confines himself to a lament that the cost of printing is a severe tax on the artist-lithographers and a discouragement to original effort. Mr. Hiatt takes the ground that the day of wood-engraving as a reproductive art is over, and that this fact is not to be regretted. The future of wood-engraving is with the original artist who executes his own designs, specially made for their adaptability to the art he practises, instead of endeavoring to imitate the quality of designs made in other materials by artists who are not engravers. The same thing might be said, with equal truth, of lithography, mezzotint, etching, or any other of these arts. "Process" has killed them all as popularizers of work in other materials, and they can exist in the future only by virtue of their intrinsic artistic qualities as independent productions.

'Albrecht Dürer,' by Lina Eckenstein, is the latest issue received by us of "The Popular Library of Art" (London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Dutton). The little volume, though not equal in interest to those on Rembrandt and Rossetti, is yet an acceptable addition to the series. The illustrations are good and well chosen, though one misses the "Melencolia."

By his choice of Murillo for treatment by himself, in the Bell-Macmillan "Miniature Series of Painters," the general editor, Dr. Williamson, again marks his preference for sentimental painters of little force. Other recent issues in this series are devoted to Greuze, to Millais, and to England's one draughtsman, Lord Leighton. They are by Harold Armitage, A. L. Baldry, and Dr. Williamson respectively, and conform closely to the uniform method of these useful little books, each containing a chapter on the life of the artist dealt with, a second on his art, and a third on "Our Illustrations," the whole concluded with a list of chief works.

The 'Watteau' of this series, by "Edgcumbe Stanley," has been revised and considerably enlarged, and is now brought out as one of the "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture" by the same publishers. We are glad to see that the somewhat ludicrous errors in the printing of French words and phrases, which we commented upon, have been corrected.

Mr. Charles Sprague Smith's 'Barbizon Days' (A. Wessels Co.) consists, with the exception of a few pages of personal reminiscence of the village and the neighboring Forest of Fontainebleau, of chapters on the life and work of the four artists, Millet, Corot, Rousseau, and Barye, compiled from various sources, mostly accessible enough, and containing little that is fresh, and next to nothing that could be claimed as original. The book is pleasantly written and quite readable, however, and seems to be accurate. The illustrations are partly from the works of the artists discussed, and partly from photographs of their homes and haunts, and are well executed. Altogether, this survey will be welcomed by many.

Mr. Edwin M. Bacon has no superior in New England guide-book making, and one may confidently accompany him in his 'Literary Pilgrimages in New England' (Silver, Burdett & Co.). Eastern Massachusetts, as the frontispiece map shows, is the principal territory, being that in which our guide is most at home. The "scheme" involves a tutor or mentor and an eager youth, and, if not new, is skilfully managed. The abundant illustrations are nearly all photographic, and all significant—portrait or place. The work, compact with information and much pertinent quotation, may be commended for use in schools as well as by "pilgrims."

Mr. Clifton Johnson, who has cleverly employed his camera in fixing phases of country life at home and abroad, sometimes in books with a text of his own, now trains it on *tableaux vivants* for the illustration of Jacob Abbott's 'Rollo at Work' and 'Rollo at Play,' for school purposes (American Book Co.). Some of the pictures are half-tones, others pen-and-ink sketches upon photographs. The revival is interesting, and is made more so by a brief introduction by Dr. Lyman Abbott, paying

a filial tribute to his father in all his dealings with children.

William S. Lord, Evanston, Ill., publishes 'The Western Slope,' a book of social and character studies by Mrs. Celia Parker Wooley, whose name is better known in Chicago than in New York and Boston, except as she has been a preacher in Unitarian pulpits and a writer for Unitarian journals. Her 'Western Slope' is the downhill of life (Mrs. Child's 'Looking Towards Sunset'), taking for its starting-point Dante's "Mezzo del cammin di nostra vita." Her lucubrations have a wise and genial character, and are touched with a pleasant humor. The book has the charm of conversation with a highly cultivated and very agreeable person. Its best part is a series of chapters on "The Way We Have Come," religiously, socially, and as concerns the status of women; the third of these chapters being particularly sensible and just.

Prof. Franz Boas continues his record and translation of Indian legends in 'Tsimshian Texts, Nass River Dialect' (Bulletin 27, Bureau of American Ethnology). These stories were collected from four individuals in the latter part of the year 1894. The form of the Bulletin is substantially that employed in the 'Kathlamet Texts,' recently issued; here also the transcription of the Indian sounds is attempted.

Under the title "Italia Artistica" the *Istituto Italiano d'Arti Grafiche* of Bergamo (publishers of the admirable little monthly, *Emporium*) has begun a series of illustrated monographs of Italian cities, under the direction of Sig. Corrado Ricci, director of the galleries of the Brera in Milan. Two volumes have already been issued: 'Ravenna,' by Corrado Ricci, and 'Ferrara e Pomposa,' by Giuseppe Agnelli. In the month of March are promised 'Venezia,' by P. Molmenti; 'Girgenti,' by S. Rocco; 'Segesta e Selinunte,' by E. Manceri, and, we believe, 'Urbino,' by R. Lipparini. In size and get-up they so resemble the series of monographs entitled "Land und Leute," published by Velhagen & Klasing of Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Büchner), that it is hard to believe they are not modelled upon it. The volumes issued are attractive in appearance, abundantly and well illustrated, and modest in price (frs. 3.50). The name of Sig. Ricci is also an earnest of good work in the text. It were to be wished, however, that to the succeeding volumes an index should be added.

That time proves the worth of a good thing is freshly illustrated by the posthumous success of the late Herman Grimm's thoughtful novel, 'Unüberwindliche Mächte,' the third edition of which has just been brought out by Grimm's literary amanuensis, Prof. Reinhold Steig (Stuttgart: Cotta; New York: Lemcke & Büchner). This novel, which in so striking a manner depicts the influence exerted by American democracy upon a highminded German nobleman, should be of particular interest to American readers on account of the approaching Emerson centennial. For there can be little doubt that one of its characters —the benign, enlightened, optimistic hermit of the Catskill Mountains, "Mr. Willson"—is an adumbration of what Grimm conceived Emerson to be; and it is remarkable how true to life this ideal portrait is.

The Free Religious Association, by the way, of which Emerson was one of the founders, will celebrate the centennial of his birth by devoting the principal session of its annual convention in May to the subject of Emerson's Religious Influence. It will hold an Emerson Memorial School or Conference for three weeks in July, beginning July 13, with morning sessions in Concord and evening sessions in Boston. Concord will celebrate the anniversary for itself on May 25, and Boston the evening previous, under eminent auspices. Finally, for the present, Charles E. Goodspeed, Boston, will bring out in season for the birthday 'The Personality of Emerson,' by Frank B. Sanborn, in a limited edition, with an etched portrait (standing) after David Scott's Edinburgh painting of 1848.

Prof. August Sauer, the well-known literary historian of the German university at Prague, has collected his occasional addresses and essays under the title: "Gesammelte Reden und Aufsätze zur Geschichte der Litteratur in Oesterreich und Deutschland' (Vienna: Carl Fromme). As may be expected from the editor of the works of Grillparzer, he has made this poet the centre of his disquisitions and reflections. There is an oration, delivered at the Grillparzer centennial, which attempts a survey of the whole of the poet's activity; there is a lecture on his relation to Katharine Fröhlich; there are essays on various of his dramas, such as "Medea" and "Libussa," and there are a number of essays on other Austrian writers which bring out all the more clearly the central position of Grillparzer in Austrian literature of the nineteenth century. The whole book is distinguished for its sound and sympathetic attitude, and its entire freedom from captiousness and caprice.

No. 21 of the *Palaestra*, edited by Profs. Alois Brandl and Erich Schmidt, consists of a valuable monograph, by Dr. Karl Detlev Jessen of Harvard University, on 'Heinse's Stellung zur bildenden Kunst' (Berlin: Mayer & Müller), which brings out the curious position of this eighteenth-century novelist and art critic as standing midway between classicism and romanticism. A violent opponent of Winckelmann's apotheosis of Greek art, at the same time an ardent admirer of Lessing's 'Laokoon,' Heinse possessed sufficient breadth of artistic sympathy to become on the one hand one of the first apostles in Germany of impressionism, and of the unbounded expression of the national temper in art; on the other hand, a worshipper of the ideal and the eternally human. We need not be surprised, therefore, that he could do justice to Rubens as well as to Michelangelo, to Raphael as well as to Claude Lorraine. The greatness of Rembrandt, however, seems to have remained hidden from him. It is to be hoped that Dr. Jessen will follow up this interesting study with a complete view of Heinse's life and work.

Mr. Caspar Whitney's *Outing* finished its fortieth volume last September, and now comes to us bound in a spring green. It is a mine of sporting illustration, narrative, and information, from "Women in Athletics" to "Photographing Wild Birds and their Young"; from automobiles to angling and the saving of drowning persons.

In the Harvard College reports of President Eliot and his associates for 1901-02 there is the usual food for reflection and the customary stimulus in presentation. The President's statistical ingenuity is freshly displayed in a computation, for half-a-dozen classes from twenty-five to thirty years out of college, of their reproductive capacity. The result shows that nearly 30 per cent. of the graduates remained unmarried; that their children averaged about two to a pair, and that the male children did not numerically replace the class membership; Harvard could not live by Harvard alone. The materials are now pretty ample for extending this inquiry, both at Harvard and in her sister institutions. We must confine our further selection from this instructive volume to the section in Dean Briggs's report entitled "Lack of Guidance for Freshmen." We quote two sentences: "For a freshman, when he first faces the elective system, the danger of mistakes is grave." "A suggestion to the Faculty that specimen programmes of study might help both students and advisers, found little favor last year in the Faculty as a whole."

—Mr. John Burroughs, in the March *Atlantic*, does a bit of keen-edged reviewing in the field of recent books on Natural History. Ernest Thompson Seton and the Rev. William J. Long are the chief objects of attack, the former mainly for the mingling of fact and fiction with no easily traceable line of demarcation, the latter for crass ignorance of his subject. President Hadley continues his discussion of "Academic Freedom in Theory and Practice." Much friction, he thinks, is traceable to the union of incongruous functions in the American "faculty." He would eliminate ordinary discipline, athletics, intercollegiate relations of undergraduates, etc., by placing all such matters in the hands of a committee chosen either by graduates alone or by students and graduates in unison. Some disentanglement also he would find for the functions of teaching and examination, of prescription of courses and nomination of professors. By development on these lines much trouble might be avoided, but, for the difficulties growing out of the relation to teaching of present or prospective donors, no sure method of avoidance is yet in sight. J. T. Trowbridge's "Own Story" covers in this issue his early years in Boston, and is of great interest. Raymond L. Bridgman pleads earnestly for a "world-legislature" to attend to world-business and promote peace, but his plea will hardly be commended to popular favor by the assertion that a world-judiciary, and in time a world-executive, with adequate means of securing revenue to meet expenses, would naturally follow.

—Mr. John Corbin opens the March *Scribner's* with a plea for the Twentieth Century City. As Mr. James has set the Londoner to discoursing of the richness and color of the atmosphere about him, so may our American cities gain in beauty if some artist will but body forth to our dull eyes the beauties which they already possess. Mr. Corbin makes a telling presentation of much that is beautiful in New York, but is not altogether convincing in his attempted apology for the Flatiron Building. When he asks if it is not true that the treatment is fine, "granting the subject and the proportions," one is reminded of the enthusiastic Texan who set up the claim that his State was just about perfect, "barring the

lack of water and good society." "Yes," answered a crusty fellow-traveller, "and when you come to think of it, water and good society are about all that is lacking in the infernal regions." Justice Brewer's article on the Supreme Court of the United States is interesting for its indications of the author's point of view on some of our great constitutional problems. For instance: "As one reads some of the propositions which are advanced, he is inclined to believe that the instrument possesses an elasticity which would make the manufacturers of india rubber choke with envy." It might have been more profitable, however, to give a more thorough and systematic presentation of the place of the Supreme Court in our governmental machinery, and its methods of working. The editor contributes a very readable essay on the subject of deafness, its advantages, disadvantages, and obligations. Russell Sturgis takes up again the subject of American pottery, to which he devoted a paper four months ago.

—Abbey and Swinburne once more have the place of honor in *Harper's*, with "King Richard II." as their text. The key to Swinburne's comment on the play is promptly presented in the first sentence: the play discloses a time "when the one unequalled and unapproachable master of the one supreme art which implies and includes the mastery of the one supreme science perceptible and accessible by man, stood hesitating between the impulsive instinct for dramatic poetry . . . and the facile seduction of elegiac and idyllic verse." But Swinburne is fairly out-Swinburned on the next page, where he points out a fault which, "if mortal manhood may venture to pass judgment on immortal godhead, I must say that Shakspere does not seem to me to have seen." It may be questioned whether a less hysterical commentary would not better accompany Mr. Abbey's pictures and contribute more to an intelligent appreciation of Shakspere—if mortal manhood may venture to appreciate, etc. Two papers of antiquarian interest display possibly more enthusiasm than scientific caution—one of them an attempt by Stewart Culin, curator of the Museum of Science and Art, University of Pennsylvania, to support the aggressive title, "America the Cradle of Asia," and the other an account by Giacomo Boni of recent excavations under his direction in the Roman Forum. One can hardly avoid a lively interest in the ardent Director, "underground, following intuitively in the track of Cæsar"; but archæology by intuition needs pretty careful checking up by more material tests. The "real editor" and the occupant of the Easy Chair discourse entertainingly each on a topic supplied by the other. A step further would give us a genuine dialogue between the two, which would certainly form an interesting diversion for this day of literary novelties.

—'The Shroud of Christ' (Dutton) is elaborately discussed in a handsome quarto of 170 pages, from the French of Paul Vignon. Since 1898, when the shroud was exhibited and photographed at Turin, it had been the subject of several French pamphlets and of a larger Italian work by P. G. Sanna Solaro. The cloth may be identical with one mentioned in 1203 as preserved in Constantinople; but its definite history begins in 1353, when Geoffroy of Charny and Champagne, who had been a crusader, gave it to the abbey of Lirey, near Troyes. Skeptical bishops questioned its authenticity, and Clement VII. pronounced it a copy of the original. About 1450 it was given to the Duke of Savoy. In 1532 it was injured by fire at Chambéry. Since 1578 it has been at Turin, locked in a metal casket, and displayed only on great occasions, as seven times in the last century. The Besançon shroud, destroyed in 1794, is believed to have been a mere copy of this. Lacking historical evidence, the value of the Turin cloth could be approximated only by investigation, which first became possible in May, 1898. The prepossession against alleged relics of course weighed with the educated; but "the markings on the shroud were found to have the characteristics of a photographic negative, in that, on the photographic plate, which reverses the lights and shades, a positive portrait revealed itself," such (it was thought) as no mediæval painter could have produced. In 1900 M. Arthur Loth, Laureate of the Academy of Inscriptions, called attention to these facts in a pamphlet, which "the religious world received with reserve, awaiting the decision of science." Historical scholars took up the matter, and the reluctance of physicists, or some of them, was overcome. M. Vignon has now attacked the fortress of our incredulity with a battery of scientific arguments and illustrations from art. He asserts that "the impressions are actual negatives," which "cannot be paintings" nor "have been produced by chemical transformation," and that "the shroud has retained the impression of a human body." He even claims to "show scientifically that the body did not remain enveloped in the shroud more than two or three days." His book deserves the attention—of the curious.

—Sir Wyke Bayliss's 'Likeness of Christ' originally appeared in folio, and included the work of his friend Thomas Heaphy (who died in 1873), in copies of early paintings found in France and Italy and of frescoes in the catacombs, with writings on the topic dear to them both. Sampson Low, Marston & Co. have brought out a "Library Edition, revised and enlarged," with the title 'Rex Regum: A Painter's Study of the Likeness of Christ, from the Time of the Apostles to the Present Day.' This likeness, Sir Wyke insists, has existed from the first century, "has never changed," and was by no means invented, but merely preserved, by the great painters of the Renascence and of modern times. As shown in forty illustrations, it is marked (with some variations, indeed) by long black or dark hair, moderate forehead, oval countenance, large dark eyes, long straight nose, mustache receding from the lip, short beard, and generally sombre expression. Those who limned the Master with golden locks must have been heretics, though Sir Wyke is too kind to say so; there is but one "likeness of Christ," and he believes it "must stand or fall with Christianity." The clergy, holding that it is the things which are unseen that are eternal, incline to lay less stress on any counterfeit presentment; but they are poor judges, for "to the artist the question is more direct and simple than to the theologian." In fact, " 'Rex Regum' is more than an argument for the authenticity of the Likeness of Christ—it is a Hymn to Christ." We must take the book, then, as a prolonged devout lyric, free from "the crotchets and quavers" of rhyme and metre.

—'The Principles of English Constitutional History,' by Lucy Dale (Longmans), is a manual of very considerable merit and one which it is a pleasure to praise. Its unusual feature is such an admixture of narrative as serves to explain the constitutional changes described. Too often the writer on constitutional subjects assumes that his undergraduate readers will be quite familiar with the course of current politics, but in a large majority of cases this assumption is quite unwarranted. Mrs. Dale gives us a sketch of English history from the 'Germania' to the Reform Bill, in which the growth of institutions is constantly associated with the progress of events. But while the element of pure narrative is much larger than it is wont to be in such works, the author's grasp of constitutional principles is by no means weakened thereby. One thing, however, we fail to understand. Mrs. Dale says in her preface: "This book, while presupposing a certain knowledge of what are commonly called the facts of English history, deals rather, as its title indicates, with the principles by the light of which alone these facts can really become intelligible." As we have already stated, the essential merit of the treatise seems to be its willingness to set forth environing circumstances where others have taken too much for granted. We can reconcile the passage quoted with our strongest impression only by suggesting that the phrase "a certain knowledge" is somewhat elastic. Mrs. Dale may have come across manuals which presuppose less knowledge of fact than her own, but we, at least, have not seen one. Some further idea of the design may be gathered from a brief statement regarding the arrangement of contents. The Saxon period is dismissed in a single chapter of thirty-two pages, and less than a third of the book has been traversed when we reach the death of Edward I. The central point comes at the accession of Henry VIII., thus giving the Middle Ages less prominence than they usually receive from the disciples of Stubbs. There is a good account of the Puritan Revolution, and the effect of modern conditions on the development of the political organism is also traced with admirable clearness. Our one adverse criticism is that the centuries which precede the Norman Conquest have been treated a little too rapidly. Yet even here there is ample room for difference of opinion. This is a sketch which students will like, and will be able to read with profit by themselves.

BROWNE'S LITERARY HISTORY OF PERSIA.

A Literary History of Persia from the Earliest Times until Firdawsi. By Edward G. Browne, M.A., M.B., Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. (Library of Literary History.) London: Unwin; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xiv., 522.

Such a book as this must be received with peculiar pleasure. It is, in the first place, another sign of that renaissance in Oriental study which is evidently in progress in England, and in which we so unhappily are having small part. In time, perhaps, the American public will arrive at an

interest in the literature and history of the East for its own sake. At present, the religious and theological interests are supreme—whether for orthodoxy or for heresy—and no Orientalist can have a hearing, or a sale, until he drags his subject into some Biblical affiliation and catches the ear of the Sunday schools. In England, as was shown by the lamented E. J. W. Gibb's monumental 'History of Ottoman Poetry,' and is further shown by the present work, the case is different. The East is not simply the land of the Bible, or an expository annex to that land; it has meaning and value for itself. Again, this book is unique and refreshing in its point of approach to its subject. One of the most curious results of the theological origin of Oriental studies in Europe lies in the fact that the Arabist, in the rarest of cases, has been a Persianist; and that the Persianist, if possible more rarely, has been an Arabist. All the efforts of Fleischer and the German school, with its trivium of Arabic, Persian, and Turkish, have done little to bridge this gap. Persian has gone with Sanskrit; Arabic with Hebrew. In England, especially, students of Persian have been Indianists or Sanskritists; students of Arabic have been either theologians or closely affiliated to theology. Even William Wright, trained in the German schools and with no theological connections, when he went outside of Arabic went into Syriac. The sphere of Persian he freely abandoned to a Sanskritist like Cowell. But in Orientalism, all is topsy-turvydom, and Mr. Browne, the present author, whose professional training was that of a physician and who walked Guy's Hospital in his time, began his Oriental studies with Turkish, made his reputation as the best Persianist in England, and has now attained the official status of a Professor of Arabic.

His place is thus in the little band of men who have turned to the East because they heard it calling and could heed nothing else. Of these, in the last generation in England, was Edward Palmer, the greatest Arabic linguist of his time, who died for the empire at the hands of the Bedawin of Sinai. Such, too, is the present author, Palmer's nearest successor, though not to his chair, and laying his weight in a somewhat different field. As Palmer knew the Arabs, had nighted and dayed among them in the desert, and could play upon them with the magic of their own magical tongue, so Browne knows his Persians, knows them as no Indianist or Sanskritist could, probably as no other European does. He has lived with them and entered with sympathy into the (for us) grotesque fantasies of their religious thought, to him not fantastic or grotesque, but part of the universal cry to the Unknown. He has mastered their language—in this, too, like Palmer—in no mechanical way, but wields it easily with the skill of a Persian secretary. Whatever may be said hereafter by way of Arabic criticism, there can be no question of Mr. Browne's preëminence in knowledge of Persian and the Persians. Above all, he has come to them from the side of Islam, and thus his book, first of its kind, bridges for the West the artificial gap between Arabic and Persian, and shows the Persians, in history and in literature, as standing in the great circle of the Muslim peoples, and drawing a hardly intelligible stimulus and direction from their Arabic-speaking conquerors. That is, of course, the great puzzle of the history of Islam. The Persians, akin to the Greeks in race and language, were left unaffected by the conquests of Alexander and his successors, long as some of these endured, but were moulded permanently by the semi-barbarous hordes from Arabia, preaching, as they did, a doctrine which the Persians have transformed before accepting. But, puzzle or not, the fact stands fast, and it is that fact which is emphasized here.

This, then, is a literary history of Persia as a part of the Muslim world. Persian writings outside of the Persian race, as in India, it disregards; writings by Persians, though not in Persian, it receives. And the approach is on the side of Islam and Arabic, not that of supposed racial or linguistic affinities with India. It recognizes that the means of understanding that literature can be gained only through Arabic; that the student is tenfold better equipped if he have preliminary knowledge on that side rather than on the other, and that when the Persians for some three centuries after the conquest wrote in Arabic, it was still Persian, and living Persian, literature which they were producing. The present volume, therefore, consists frankly of prolegomena—absurdly lengthy, some may think, seeing that the history proper is to be summed in a volume of the same size; really essential, as all qualified know, to any intelligent knowledge which would go beyond belletristic trifling with Sa'di, Hafiz, and Umar Khayyam.

These prolegomena divide into four books. First, of origins, covering to the close of the Achæmenian period, and dealing with such matters as the beginnings and sources of the Persian races, their languages and scripts; the date of the Avesta, and its historical and geographical conditions; the discovery and interpretation of old Persian in cuneiform and in the Avesta; Hyde, Anquetil-Duperron, Grotefend, Burnouf, etc.; a description of the literature, in inscriptions, in the Avesta, in Pahlawi, and of the epic legends. The treatment of all this, though of necessity second-hand, is most excellent and full. Next comes—passing over that singular break stretching from the conquest of Alexander to the fall of the Parthians, B.C. 330-A.D. 226, so strangely fruitless of effects upon Iran—an equally luminous account, evidently more at first hand, from the rise of the Sasanians to the fall of the Umayyads. It covers the historical legends crystallized in the Shahnama and elsewhere, the conception of the divine right of the ruler which produced the great cleft in Islam, the origin of the Manichæans and the Mazdakeans to be thereafter so fruitful, the conquest of al-Yaman by Persia with its consequences, and the overwhelming and undreamt of *débâcle* of the Arab conquest. With this, Islam enters, and the conditions are laid for modern Persia. The Sasanians from henceforth are a vanished memory, and the "Kings of the Sons of Sasan" might as well, as in the 'Arabian Nights,' have lived in China. To understand Persia from this point, we must understand Islam; its threads now join with those of the history of Muslim thought. Here, then, a fresh start has to be made, and Muhammadan history—especially as to formative ideas—sketched in broad outline.

Book three depicts that golden century which formed the first of the Abbasid dynasty, in which the Iranian genius began to recover and came practically to rule, intellectually and politically, the Arab Khalifate. This was the result of the founding of Baghdad and the transfer of the seat of empire to within the Persian sphere. Before us moves the court of al-Ma'mun with its self-conscious "enlightenment"; the Mu'tazilite heresies develop and the orthodox theology forms, the Sufis pass from ascetics to mystics; Persian heresiarchs begin to spring from a fertile soil; above all, the great distinction of Sunnites and Shi'ites is fixed. The early Abbasids had deliberately played off the Persians against the Arabs, and this was their reward. But, so far, the empire had held politically together. The fourth book sketches the decline of the Abbasids which now followed, while the empire crumbled gradually, and it was no longer simply Persian thought which asserted itself, but Persian nationalism as well. Now rise the different families of Alids, the Isma'ilians, the Qarmatians and Fatimids, the Tahirids, Saffarids, Samanids, and Buwayhids. Persia has fully avenged itself. The history reaches to the times of Mahmud of Ghazna, who, though a most orthodox Muslim, gathered at his court a rich circle of poets, Persian now in tongue as well as in heart. This is a bare recital of names, but on Mr. Browne's pages there is a wealth of literary detail, almost too luxuriant for clearness; and the intellectual energy of the period, religious, philosophical, and mystical, fully lives before us. Last comes a short chapter on the literature of Persia in the specific sense, a bibliography, and a most elaborate triple-columned index of twenty-five pages. The second volume, to which this is but an introduction, will bring the literature from the circle of Mahmud of Ghazna to the present day.

A book such as this is, and still more will be, is epoch-making in its class. In no language does its like yet exist, and we shall probably have to look long enough for its successor. In manner and style it is a curious compound of old-fashioned England and modern Germany. It is full of a comfortable leisure; space is of little account, and details, picturesque, but not always exactly relevant, abound. MSS. are precisely described and located, with comments on the relative generosity of their holders; even abandoned theories find hospitable mention. Almost a page is given to the verses which Adam and the Devil are said, in Muslim tradition, to have made, in Syriac, against one another, and several pages to a sketch of the beginnings of Oriental study in Europe. Reading has made Mr. Browne a full man, and he wishes to give us it all. It is not to be wondered at that his publisher was hard to move to two volumes instead of one. Personal details too, are many. The late Professor Cowell is his "dear old teacher"; a page—well merited, but this was not the place—is given to the late Mr. Gibb; more than a page to Mr. Browne's own course of study. The discursive, chatty method which made his 'Year among the Persians' so valuable, here often becomes a burden. But these are truly details, and do not diminish the value of the book.

Other matters are somewhat more serious. Mr. Browne is one of the most accomplished Persianists alive, and on Per-

sian ground is absolutely at ease. In Arabic it is evidently different. His studies have required of him some knowledge of that language, and that knowledge has gone far enough for him to hold a chair technically of Arabic. But his Arabic, though good and exact, is not broad, and his access to authorities is not easy. The principal historical texts he, of course, uses, but he is evidently not familiar with the more recent investigations in Muslim philosophy and theology. Thus, his general dependence on Steiner for the Mu'tazilites is, at least, astonishing, and to quote Tholuck and Home on al-Ghazzali is to go back several generations. The sketchiness, indeed, of the treatment of so primary and formative a genius as al-Ghazzali is significant for Mr. Browne's philosophical studies in Arabic. Equally significant is his dependence on the laborious but not exactly brilliant or illuminating Dieterici, a man to whom certainly all honor is due as a pioneer. Significant, too, is the respect with which the opinions of Brockelmann are quoted, especially in one passage (p. 358) where that learned bibliographer is gravely bracketed with Goldziher, the greatest authority alive on Muslim literature and thought. On Sufiism, on the other hand, Mr. Browne is much more complete and exact, although even here he does not seem to have been in touch with the latest investigations. He recognizes its mingled ascetic and Platonic origin, but on the relationship of these two sources, as it has now been worked out, he is not very clear. At another point, his personal experiences with the Babis have been of much service, and he is prepared to believe that the Isma'ilians and other subterranean heretical sects may have been grossly slandered. There is certainly much, besides analogy, pointing in that direction, and the whole subject of the pursuit of intellectual and religious freedom and advance in Islam could well have been treated at greater length. This holds especially of the Zaydites.

Of direct slips there are few to note. Al-Junayd was much more orthodox than is represented on page 363; the Kitab al-bad' can no longer, as on page 310, be ascribed to an al-Balkhi; *rij'at*, same page, should be *raj'at; muluk at-tawa'if* (p. 79, etc.) is much more "Party Kings," *i. e.*, kings of small districts and petty dynasties, than "Tribal Kings"; *al-Fakhri* is the name of a book and not of its author; the statement (on p. 208) of the transfer of the khalifate from the last Abbasid to the Ottoman Turks is incorrect—it was transferred by inheritance, and not by gift, and the first Ottoman Khalifa was Sulayman the Great, not Selim I.; on page 367, al-Maturidi should be al-Mataridi.

Finally, mention must be made of the exceedingly happy translations which are scattered through the book. Mr. Browne has the knack of turning neat English verses, and is not burdened, like Mr. John Payne and his followers, by any unhappy theory as to the exact reproduction of Oriental metres. Such methods he explicitly rejects. In consequence, his verses have vitality and salt; they run easily upon the tongue and carry atmosphere with them. That they are often free is unavoidable. Oriental prose can be rendered literally; Oriental verse never.

A wholly admirable second volume may be confidently looked for; in it Mr. Browne will be on ground which he knows absolutely.

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

Professor Münsterberg of Harvard University, at a meeting of the Boston Authors' Club lately, is said to have met the assertion that all literature was tending toward the form of prose fiction, by the answer that Germany had already gone through that period, and was distinctly entering upon the dramatic form in the works of Sudermann and others. This time has certainly not yet arrived in our country, but any one who observes new books must notice the steady increase of published plays and tragedies, which are, or aim to be, within the domain of literature. Many instances might be cited. Among the more recent are "Maximilian: A Play in Five Acts," by Edgar Lee Masters (Boston: Badger); "Jonathan: A Tragedy," by Thomas Ewing, jr. (Funk & Wagnalls); "Ralegh in Guiana; Rosamond, and a Christmas Masque," by Barrett Wendell (Scribners). In the same way, Miss Anna Olcott Commelin gives us "Atala: An American Idyl" (Dutton), a poetic dramatization of the celebrated work of Chateaubriand. No one of these can claim positive dramatic merit, and only Professor Wendell's can be said to have literary merit; while even this, though by a highly cultivated man, is on the whole rather academic in character than otherwise. To these must, however, be added a volume of higher claims than either, containing three dramas—"Pontius Pilate, Saint Ronan of Brittany, and Théophile: Three Plays in Verse," by Henry Copley Greene (Scott-Thaw Company). Of these dramas, the first two seem a little experimental, as if the author were not quite sure of his ground; but the third, from beginning to end, shows grasp, power, dramatic beauty, and the mediæval spirit; and withal it has stood admirably the test of actual performance, at least by amateurs. Under these last conditions, it may truly be said to have given as effectually a new sensation to all who beheld it as was produced by the Morality Play of the Elizabethan Company which has recently been among us. Mr. Greene's play is happily illustrated in this volume by a frontispiece by Cecilia Beaux, who has thrown into her figures in its full force the intense power of the original conceptions. The appearance of this drama alone would be enough to prove that in America, as in Germany, the exclusive reign of prose fiction is past.

It is always difficult for foreigners to comprehend how easily the literary habit in America, like all other habits, may be simply one manifestation of the overflow of versatile minds. Mr. T. S. Denison, a well-known Chicago publisher, has personally produced thirty-six plays, all of which must have been acted, for his list of them gives precisely the number of minutes occupied by each. Of these plays collectively, nearly half a million have been sold. He has also written and published two novels, each of which has reached a fourth edition, and now issues a volume of poems called 'The Old Schoolhouse, and Other Poems and Conceits in Verse.' Of these he says in his preface:

"They are part of the bric-à-brac accumulated in my intellectual workshop during twenty-five years. Not knowing what else to do with them, I cast them forth on the sea of print as a mother bird casts her fledglings from the nest. Some of them, like 'Hasten, Love, Hasten,' are poetry; others, like 'The Ibis,' merely rhymes. If I were to indulge any regret concerning their publication, it would be that not more of them are poetry."

This last regret is one which critics may generally be relied upon to share, and in no way can an author do more favor than to indicate which of his works best fulfils his own standard of excellence. We hasten, therefore, to give a verse selected by himself in Mr. Denison's circular, and presumably his most approved (p. 59):

"I've built thee a bower 'mid roses and vines,
Where each fragrant hour to love lore inclines;
The south wind is blowing, the rose is aglow;
Oh, hasten, love, hasten, thy coming is slow."

It is certain that this can scarcely be criticised as placing the author's standard of execution unreasonably high.

A poet seldom risks more than when he selects from his volumes the technically sacred poems, and prints them separately. The rhymes of faith which add greatly to the effect of a miscellaneous volume, are apt to seem weak and monotonous when put off by themselves. This ground for criticism we find in Mr. Louis Alexander Robertson's 'Cloistral Strains' (San Francisco: Robertson)—a little volume which seems to need, if the phrase be not thought self-contradictory, his previous poem of the "Dead Calypso" to give it life. Or perhaps another new volume by him, 'Beyond the Requiems, and Other Verses' (same publisher), is relied upon to restore the balance. At any rate, a single poem of this last work, called "A Rhyme of the Redeemed" (p. 30), vindicates the essential tone of this author; and the modesty of his prelude to the volume vindicates the whole of it. It is thus (p. 9):

THE SHRINE OF SONG.

In mute amazement oft I pause before
The portals of Song's shrine, and list to those
Whose music from its classic cloisters flows
Adown the tide of Time for evermore.
I see the place that no man may explore,
Save him whose Art its life to Genius owes,
On whose rapt lips the sacred cinder glows
That teaches Song's sweet shibboleth and lore.

Ah, it were heaven to enter in and kneel
In some dim aisle, unnoticed and apart,
With thirsting soul to drink the sounds that shame
My songs to silence; then to rise and feel
That my untutored lips had learnt the art
That seats the singer in the House of Fame!

Perhaps no American poet puzzles a conscientious and kindly critic more than the Rev. James Vila Blake of Chicago, who prints in that city and publishes in Boston a volume, called simply 'Sonnets,' which includes no less than 150 of such productions, whereas even Shakspere was content with 154, and might well have spared a dozen or so of those. Not content with this, the Chicago poet offers fifty-one "Cameos" of nine lines each, and ends with four pages of notes, giving the names of thirty-four different ladies to whom individual poems are dedicated. He tells one of these ladies that the "courage of conviction, of thought, and of choice of a church, is no small valor," which looks as if this lady might be his latest convert. All this as a bit of autobiography may be suitable enough, and Mr. Blake can write simply and wisely like this (Cameo XX.):

My simple verse, I do admire
Your harmonies, your gentle fire
Of happiness, your love entire.
Ye make a chambered glow for me
In which I walk about with you:
So I am never out of view

Of Light, though dark around it be.
Ye spare me tumult and desire,
And mad flame of ambition dire.

But how unlike is the simplicity of these lines to the feebly fantastic qualities of a sonnet like this (lxxxvi.):

Juno, Olympian Queen, to Iris, said,
"Dispatch ye now the circling world to scan;
Find me three maids so cold and nunnery-bred
Their bosoms have not brooked one thought of man."
Down on his opal wings of changing hue
Dropped Iris; but he sought the maids in vain,
All corners rummaging; then up he flew
And stood before the spouse of Jove again.
"What! Not found one?" quoth Juno with knit brow.
"Have patience, Queen of Heaven, I heard of three;
But Pluto seized them first and has them now."
"What! Pluto? Pluto hunting prudes?" quoth she;
"And pray for what? Are they Tartarean houris?"
"He wished them, Madam," Iris said, "for furies."

Of the two new volumes before us by Mr. Madison Cawein, 'Kentucky Poems' (Dutton) and 'A Voice on the Wind, and Other Poems' (Louisville: Morton), the one has an introduction by Mr. Edmund Gosse, and the other has in turn a dedication to him. Whether this is to be the alternation in future of Mr. Cawein's always profuse volumes, is yet to be seen. Mr. Gosse's introduction begins by speaking of "that graceful and somewhat academic school of poets who ruled American literature so long from the shores of Massachusetts." It would be difficult, perhaps, to reason seriously with the critic who can find nothing but "grace" in Emerson and nothing that is not "academic" in Whittier. Then he goes on, after the practice of the secondary class of English journalists, to reproach America for liking what he calls humorous verse, "which is mainly in fashion on the western side of the Atlantic." He finds it convenient to overlook the fact that it is not in America, but in England, that such verse, however readily it may be produced here, comes to the dignity of being "in fashion." Every American, when he goes to England, hears jokers and doggerel-makers quoted of whom he never heard at home, just as he is offered so-called American drinks whose names were never known in this country. Mr. Gosse further complains that "this is not a moment when serious poetry, of any species, is flourishing in the United States," and ignores the fact that he himself has had to spend most of the last dozen years in importing it from other countries even into England. He is simply quarrelling with that ebb and flow of the tides for which the only remedy is patience and good sense.

As a matter of fact, all that American criticism has ever done in respect to Mr. Cawein has been to urge upon him, in spite of the compliments always paid him by Mr. Howells, a little more moderation of epithet and a little more patience in execution, as he approaches maturity of years. When one compares, for instance, the admiration with which Mr. Lanier's poems, in spite of their exuberance, have been recived by American critics, it must be owned that they are not wholly unreasonable in imploring Mr. Cawein—who is, if we mistake not, drawing near the age at which Lanier died—to show something of that capacity for growth which marked his more highly gifted predecessor. It is fair to claim that their remonstrances have not been wholly unavailing, and that he is now at last beginning to exhibit what even Mr. Howells guardedly calls "his increasing control of his affluent imagery," and may in time outlive his more ardent admirers and do something worth preserving. We honestly wish it might be so, for we never open one of his books without admiration for his minute study of nature, commonly spoiled in its rendering, at least up to this time, by an immense exuberance of adjectives. The following poem, from 'A Voice on the Wind,' gives him at his best (p. 63):

THE END OF SUMMER.

Pods are the poppies, and slim spires of pods
The hollyhocks; the balsam's pearly bredes
Of rose-stained snow are little sacs of seeds
Collapsing at a touch; the lote, that sods
The pond with green, has changed its flowers to rods
And discs of vesicles; and all the weeds,
Around the sleepy water and its reeds,
Are one white smoke of seeded silk that nods.
Summer is dead, ay me! sweet Summer's dead!
The sunset clouds have built her funeral pyre,
Through which, e'en now, runs subterranean fire:
While from the East, as from a garden bed,
Mist-vined, the Dusk lifts her broad moon, like some
Great golden melon—saying, "Fall has come."

We have hitherto had occasion to find promise in the earlier productions of Mr. George Cabot Lodge, whose volume of 'Poems' (Cameron, Blake & Co.) is now before us; but we regret to find that this author, although thirty years old and eight years out of college, still lingers in the sophomoric period. There are dashes of serious thought and of poetic expression, and there is certainly quite enough in the way of semi-turbulent passion, half sense and half sentiment; but we find no signs of condensed power or the brevity that deep feeling gives. He still seeks new and yet inexpressive epithets—"the chuckling tide" (p. 40), "desirous tears" (p. 55), "the wondering-up of love" (p. 83). It is to be feared that we must look to some high purpose or deep and genuine grief to bring him to maturity. These verses are a favorable selection, yet note the turgid phrases, the cheap alliterations (p. 54):

ODE TO THE SEA.

Lure me, O musical motions of the sea,
Thou of the cosmic heart most mighty mood!
And breathe beside me once again, O ye
Intimate whispers of the outlawed wind!
And grant, O Earth of long maternity,
While dawn grows golden like an infant God
Who walks the young world's twilight nude and free,
Thy latest child the rest he cannot find!

Still as I sought thee soul and flesh were fain!
Before the flower of sunset, one by one,
Scattered its petals like a golden rain,
Before the twilight clear as amethyst
Covered my lidless eyes, within my brain
Seemed, in the lasting silence of the sun,
All life as interludes of uttered pain
That scar the lips of Heaven's mute Agonist!

I am the heir to Time's exceeding dower:
Ease me, thou minstrel of the changeless theme!
Now while the midnight yields the mystic flower
Of moondawn, violent as a sanguine stain,
Like love's desire that in night's loneliest hour
Dawns thro' the empty twilight of a dream,
Mend with thy music-threads of faith and power
Life's raiment ruinous with surmise and pain!

A beautifully printed book from Updike's Merrymount Press, Boston, and published by the Pafraets Book Company, Troy, N. Y., is a collection of versions from a great variety of languages, including the Oriental, under the title of 'Flowers of Song from Many Lands,' translated by Frederic Rowland Marvin. Such great variety itself rather tends to scatter attention than to command it, and we find no striking evidence of ability in use of language on the part of the translator. Nothing in this handsome volume interests us so much, on the whole, as the little collection of Sun-Dial Mottoes from Southern Europe, such as these (p. 137):

Afflictis lentae, celeres gaudentibus horae.
Motto on a Sun-dial at Courmayeur in the Valley of Aosta.

Felicibus brevis, miseris hora longa.
Motto on a Sun-dial at Martigny.

Maestis lentae, celeres gaudentibus horae.
Motto on a Sun-dial near Padua.

Mr. Rossiter Johnson, who has always been in literature a faithful and high-minded but not always inspired workman, is, in his 'Morning Lights and Evening Shadows' (The Marion Press), perhaps, at his best in the very shortest of his poems, which yet has in it wisdom enough for a dozen (p. 108):

GREAT AND SMALL.

Our lives are little, but our times are great.
We come, we see, we linger, and we pass;
Weave but a single thread in web of state,
Or give the field a single spear of grass.
We are too often like a boyish class,
Where each one stumbles through his dozen lines,
And looks bewildered at the stubborn mass
Of foreign words and intricate designs,—
But lo! when all is done, through all an Iliad shines.

Miss Edith M. Thomas, so long a resident of Ohio, but now of New York, has suffered a little of that loss so apt to come to those drawn by powerful attraction to the metropolis; or else she is one of the many in whom genius is powerfully enough developed to command attention, but not quite sufficiently so to hold it. In her volume, 'The Dancers, and Other Legends and Lyrics' (Boston: Badger), her two final poems, "The Mistakes of a Day" and "Shield Me, Dark Nurse," betray perhaps some consciousness of this; and one turns to the graceful verses "Is It Spring Again in Ohio?" for a little relief from the sadder strain. The poem which, however, to our thinking, shows most of the author's old power, is one whose mere title is a song by itself (p. 35):

THE WOLVES OF THE WIND—A BURDEN OF THE SEASON.

Bare are my walls, and low is my roof,
Yet, heaven be praised! they are winter-proof!
Hark, how the wolves of the wind rush by!
(Was the sound I heard a human cry?)

The fire on my hearth is blazing bright,
Within is cheer, without is the Night
Blanching with fear from earth to sky—
Hark, how the wolves of the wind rush by!

They are swift, they are fell, and they never tire,
But they shun the light of my blazing fire,
So blest is my portion, so safe am I.
(Was the sound I heard a human cry?)

They have broken the leash that held them back,
And the whole world dreads the fierce, wild pack!
To shelter, to shelter, let all things fly—
Hark, how the wolves of the wind rush by!

Matters not where, the heath, or the town,
Whatever they meet they're trampling down:
And the veins of the victim they're draining dry!
(Was the sound I heard a human cry?)

The sound, too plain it rises again,
The myriad wailing of outcast men:
In the path of the pack they stricken lie—
Hark, how the wolves of the wind rush by!

'North Flowers: A Few Poems, by Wendell Phillips Stafford' (St. Johnsbury, Vt.), truly describes itself; the product is but scanty. The author, not unknown to readers of the *Atlantic* and the *Green Bag*, now elevated to the Supreme Bench of his native State, perhaps would signify by this volume the close of his poetic diversion. Hence a greater inclusion than if his muse looked forward confidently to fresh inspiration and activity. There is much here that is singable; more, of better quality and deep feeling, expressive of affection for home and kindred. The division "Pastime" exhibits some charming and some effective legal humor, and good epigrams are not wanting. It is, however, in elegiac verse that Judge Stafford reaches his true level—in the memorial tribute to his great namesake, and in the stanzas on "The Republic," evoked by the Chicago Exposition. It is hard to choose between these lofty and admirably sustained poems, but

we will quote from the latter as less well known:

"Her hands are clasped across her knees,
Around her rise the hymns of peace;
She hears them not—upon her ears
The storms of battle swell and cease.

"The saviours of her doubtful day
Are with her in her dreams, and they
That lacked the sinews, not the will,
To wrench her sceptre-staff away.

"(Slowly her strength the Titan learns,
Dimly her dawning fate discerns;
She was conceived in strife, and still
The birthmark on her forehead burns.)

. . . . . .

"She hears, and smiles in slow surprise;
Her limbs to awful stature rise;
The sunlight trembles in her hair,
And all the future fills her eyes."

CLASSIC ARCHITECTURE.

The Orders of Architecture—Greek, Roman, and Italian: A Selection of Examples from Normand's "Parallel" and Other Authorities, with Notes on the Origin and Development of the Classic Orders, and Descriptions of the Plates. By R. Phené Spiers. Fourth Edition, revised and enlarged. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Architecture of Greece and Rome: A Sketch of its Historic Development. By the late William J. Anderson and R. Phené Spiers. 179 illustrations. London: Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xvii., 300.

Mr. Spiers is very widely known among all who use English books on architecture, because of his labors in reissuing, with important additions and notable changes, Fergusson's 'History of Architecture,' John Murray's edition of 1893. Of this work the two volumes which are much the most widely known, and which constitute the 'History of Ancient and Mediæval Architecture,' were indeed so recast by Mr. Spiers that Fergusson would not have known them. The editor's services in contributing a new chapter on Byzantine art, and in making the changes, often very much needed, in the assertions of the original book concerning Classical, Assyrian, and Judaic architecture, are all of incalculable value. He is known, moreover, as the director of the Architectural School of the Royal Academy and as extremely active in the matters of the Architectural Association of London and the Royal Institute of British Architects. That work of his which is most accessible to Americans is contained in his articles contributed to the 'Dictionary of Architecture and Building,' extremely thorough and minute. In the preparation of an exhaustive book on the Grecian and Græco-Roman orders the work of no writer would be more welcome than his. The subject has not been treated yet in a completely satisfactory way. If then the orders of the Renaissance and Post-Renaissance periods are also to be studied in connection with those of antiquity, there is much waiting to be done. The first book before us seems to undertake this comparison, as well as comparative treatment of different examples of each order; but it is not so complete a work as that which we have imagined.

Speaking, then, of what it is: there are twenty-six plates, of which one gives profiles of a number of Greek capitals and mouldings, and two give drawings of ornament, the one of Greek, the other of Roman examples—drawings in outline only, and often not refined in the handling, therefore, leaving in doubt the exact curvature of scrolls and sprays; nor of very complete rendering. Indeed, they frequently leave doubtful the question whether the ornament shown is in high or low relief, or with parts of it relieved much more than others. There is one plate containing an interesting comparison of the Greek Doric order, the Roman Doric, the Greek Ionic and the Roman Corinthian orders, but it may be misleading to the beginner to see them all uniform in actual height, thus making the Grecian Doric look much the most massive on account of its proportions, and ignoring the fact that the Roman Corinthian was frequently carried out on a much larger scale. In like manner, the student is vexed with the displaying of three Ionic examples in Plate VI. and five Doric examples in Plate II., with continually varying scales. It would surely be worth some effort to show (Plate VI.), by actual comparison of the three buildings side by side, that the temple on the Ilissus in Athens is a little thing with columns much less than half as great in their lower diameter as in the temple of Minerva Polias at Priene. The scales are there, to be sure—the thirty feet of the Priene scale equivalent to only ten feet in the Athens scale; but one of the important things to insist upon in these matters is the curious fact that Græco-Roman architecture almost invariably followed its proportions boldly without attempt at modification in consequence of size, the absolutely inevitable narrower spacing of the columns being almost the only distinction made between the gigantic Temple of the Sun and a little temple like the smallest of those at Pæstum. So, in Plate IV., the Doric order of the Theatre of Marcellus is taken from Normand, and nothing is suggested of the alleged recent discovery of a base to these columns, the more to be regretted as it has always been a surprise to students that that building should have been built as it was supposed to have been built, without bases.

The text is full of interest, and relates to the origin and development of the classical orders in the way that we have said is so much needed; but it seems not to have been treated carefully. Revision would have suggested to the author that, if the corner columns in a Doric temple are nearer to their next neighbors than the other columns are one to another, there is reason for this besides the desire of making the metopes square. It is of doubtful propriety to speak of the mutules as "slabs" when they are merely in slight relief from the surface of the large block of stone and are not separate pieces. The famous acroterium disk of the Hera temple at Olympia is not "semi-circular," because, as truly stated in the next line, its soffit or lower bed corresponds to the double slope of the raking cornice above the pediment. What can be meant by the saying (page 4) that the rules spoken of as invariable, *e. g.*, that the angle column is set closer to make the metope square, as above stated, has some "exceptions which prove the rule"? The exceptions are named, and in those the metopes nearest the corner are not square; but does that or any other exception "prove the rule"?

It was quite time that a book should appear, giving a popular and also trustworthy account of the architecture which is most near, in respect and in sympathy, to our modern communities. And it was desirable that such a book should have but little strongly held theory—should have but little to prove. There is interest enough in the clear statement of those long-held beliefs and those discoveries of recent times upon which all scholars are agreed; there is novelty enough in the setting forth of those revised and more exact views of the great arts of antiquity, without the urging of any opinion, or even of any conjecture, for which argument or elaborate demonstration would be needed. Such a book is the second whose title is given at the head of this article; and it is important to the beginner in this study that there is here no attempt to urge unduly either the theory now much held that Græco-Roman art is one, and to be treated as one, or the contrary theory that the building of the imperial times was faulty and tasteless in that its chief architectural decoration was a contradiction of the real structure, and that it is in this way far enough from being a natural evolution of the art of Greece. Each of these theories is tenable for awhile; and the question which of them shall prevail in the mind of any one student is very much a question of temperament. On all accounts, then, it is well that it should not be raised while one pursues his preliminary inquiry; and in like manner it is best not to spend too much time over the tempting, because insoluble, mystery—whence came the solid mortar-masonry of the Roman engineers? Now the present work, while suggesting the existence of this and other such questions, does not insist upon them. Chapter i. deals with the Mycenæan age; chapters ii. and iii. with the archaic period; chapter iv. with "The Culmination in Athens"; chapters v., vi., and vii. with further considerations and with the later work of Greece. Of the matter so presented, about half is announced as the work of William Anderson, who died some four years ago. There is then a chapter on Etruscan building, and thereafter, occupying just one-half the volume and six chapters, follows the account of Roman work, given with but little historical sequence, and with almost a wholly analytical treatment. There is a brief glossary of terms, a list of selected books relating to the subject in hand, and an index occupying twelve pages.

The illustrations to the book are in part photographic prints; and, for some of the inserted plates, care has been taken to point out separate buildings or details by means of reference letters or separate printed indications at head and foot. About half of the illustrations are line-cuts scattered through the text. If the general subject of all the pictures be considered, it appears that there are very many useful plans, some of them quite inaccessible to the public, like those (pp. 91, 93) of the Artemis Temple at Ephesus, as restored by Dr. A. S. Murray, or like the very large plan of the buildings on the Palatine Hill as inferred and imagined by Mr. Deglane, and the more trustworthy plan of the Forum at Rome by A. F. V. Dutert. Views taken by the camera are naturally less available in an inquiry directed in the main toward dismantled or wholly ruined buildings; but there are still interesting pictures of Roman work, as of the memorial arches, and of many details of sculpture,

as also of rooms in the house of Vettius at Pompeii.

As to the general value of the work, it is perhaps to be pronounced that of one full of knowledge, but not carefully prepared nor put into perfect shape. The importance of the book is in that part of it which belongs to Mr. Spiers—so much is evident enough; but this work seems to have been done in the easy manner and with that indifference to form not unnatural to a scholar well versed in the subject, and well decided to do the immediate work of composition in the most prompt and familiar way. No pains have been taken to avoid repetition; little success has been reached in the ordering of the subject; the scraps of historical record which are scattered through the text do not come in apropos; the work is, in short, a somewhat inadequate result of the use of excellent and ample materials. In the present condition of our libraries, devoid of a satisfactory book containing the latest discoveries and the latest conclusions of those who have made a special study of classical art, this one is essential to every student; but it is greatly to be desired that it should be put into more agreeable and especially more convincing form. More directness of statement; more consideration, as one part of the subject is unrolled, of that which has been said of other parts of the same subject—were these things secured, the book would be one not easy to supersede.

Fishing and Shooting. By Sidney Buxton, M. P. With illustrations by Archibald Thorburn and from prints. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

We have here a volume primarily for the entertainment of the sportsman, not for his instruction. Mr. Buxton leaves the would-be sportsman to learn how to use his rod or gun elsewhere, so far as technical instruction is concerned. We find no rules for fly casting, with the regulation cuts of the angler in various impossible attitudes at the different stages of his cast; no chapter on amateur fly tying, with endless lists of White Millers, Jock Scotts, Brown Hackles, Seth Greens, Silver Doctors, Yellow Sallys, etc.; no scientific demonstration of the superiority of a Sproat or a Limerick over a Kirby or Carlisle. This kind reserve bespeaks the reader's gratitude. One does not learn to angle in that way, and such discussions are not particularly interesting simply as literature. As to gunning, Mr. Buxton does essay a few pages of formulated advice, but the note of jocular insincerity which one soon detects in the advice itself is confirmed by the immediately following injunction to "chuck it away out of the window, clear your mind and brain of all rules, and shoot as seems best to you."

It must be said that our author rides overhard the hobby of "dry-fly fishing." Angling has always been a prey to hobbies. It has its fads of individual anglers, its fads of groups, its fads of locality, and its fads of times and seasons. One does well to listen with reserve to any adviser who cannot see the sport out from under the shadow of some one or more of these fads. Mr. Buxton also presses unduly the method of "fishing *at* a fish" which you have previously located and "stalked," as against that of "fishing *for* a fish," which may be somewhere near the spot where you drop your fly, and again may not. Every man to his own taste, but the acme of enjoyment in the streams and woods is to the eclectic, not to the rigid adherent of a method.

We are sorry to say that the book shows traces of weakness as to the ethics of sport. Excessive slaughter is condemned in words, but at the same time Mr. Buxton boasts once and again of a single day's record in his own experience of fifty trout, each weighing over one pound, "besides many others under a pound." If an angler of the highest type, in a moment of weakness, should be led by unlooked-for success into making such a haul, he would seek to hide the fact from others rather than to publish it. Again, Mr. Buxton is rather inclined to apologize for his best day at pike fishing, landing only thirteen, "the three largest being fourteen pounds, twelve pounds, and ten pounds, respectively." Commend us rather to the American angler who crossed a large portion of the continent for the experience of landing a tuna, and, after securing one fine specimen, his first strike, took his rod apart and went ashore while the fish were still actively feeding.

In shooting, too, Mr. Buxton greatly prefers "the blessed system of driving," which we can hardly allow to be the highest ideal of healthful and manly sport. It is one thing to take a pair of guns, with a hired assistant to carry and load them for you, ensconce yourself in a fixed position, "cartridges and paraphernalia conveniently disposed, sods altered, foothold trodden level," and then wait for the birds to be beaten up and sent flying over the guns by still other hired assistants: it is quite another thing to shoulder your gun some autumn morning and spend a fine day in tramping over the fields and woodlands—happy in any case, and only more so if the game-bag come back not entirely empty. If the latter be not considered the better, so much the worse for the man behind the gun.

We are told, to be sure, that the rough day in the west of Scotland is the most delightful of all, but the genuineness of the sentiment is ill supported by the general tenor of the volume. Perhaps the author's temperament, whatever his theory may be, does not incline him to methods which require too much physical activity. The illustrations with which he has chosen to adorn his book are on the whole rather suggestive of what some would call "kid-glove" sportsmanship. One would like to guide him along the trail of some nameless little trout brook through the mazes of a Michigan cedar swamp, where the best holes are sometimes to be reached only by perching yourself upon the slippery trunk of a fallen tree ten feet or more above the water, or by tearing your way through pathless acres of prickly raspberry bushes, often higher than your head, too dense for the ground to be seen, and concealing every few feet some fallen log, woodchuck hole, or other trap for the unwary.

Mr. Buxton has an undisguised preference for the rod over the gun. He is perhaps not far from right when he attributes the zest for shooting largely to "the aboriginal killing instinct." There can be no question that the amount of suffering produced by the gun is many times greater than that for which the rod is responsible. The wounded bird or animal very frequently escapes in such condition as to insure a lingering and painful death, while the fish so hooked as to permit escape is but rarely injured to any fatal or seriously painful degree. Many an angler has had the same indubitable evidence which Mr. Buxton cites, that a fish may break off one hook in his mouth, go to feeding again immediately, and within a few minutes be taken upon another. If the broken hook were seriously painful, the fish would, of course, cease feeding for the time. Such cases are also pretty good evidence that the sense of extreme fright which it is generally assumed that the fish experiences on being hooked, is somewhat overestimated.

In its literary quality, Mr. Buxton's book is somewhat uneven. There are fragments of description in it which are finely done, and in general he can put his thoughts in a straightforward and effective way; yet he is capable of saying "A heavy up-stream gusty or cross-stream wind tells against accuracy of casting, and are better away." Again, we are told of a bird which "falls, twisting round and round, shot through the brain, into the rhododendrons." We should like to see a score of average school children asked to hazard a definition of the word *rhododendrons* on the basis of that sentence. It reminds one of Thoreau's "natural pasture for the moose and deer, exceedingly wild and desolate, with occasional strips of timber crossing them." Externally, the light weight of the volume, in proportion to bulk, makes it easy to handle, and the green buckram binding, with appropriate gilt designs of natural and artificial flies, game birds, trout, etc., is pleasant to the eye. The text is clearly and attractively printed, and typographical errors have been almost wholly eliminated; "sense" for tense, on page 109, being the only such error we have noted. On the whole, Mr. Buxton has written a readable volume, fairly representative, no doubt, of the British sportsman, but with none of that delightful seasoning which one finds in such books as 'Fisherman's Luck' or 'Little Rivers.'

Gardens Old and New: The Country House and its Garden Environment. Vol. II. London: Newnes; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xii., 284.

About a year ago we printed a notice of the first volume of this admirably illustrated work. A second volume is now at hand, and indeed, considering their origin, there is no reason why volume should not succeed volume annually as long as that entertaining English weekly, *Country Life*, continues its present course. The chief article of that paper is usually devoted to a country house and its gardens. A profusion of excellent photographs, reproduced with the utmost skill by the half-tone process, characterizes these articles. From the wealth of material thus accumulated, it is no difficult task to select a series of views representing in delightful fashion the garden art of the land where that art reaches its most interesting development—where, though its form is less stately than in Italy and less grandiose than in France, it nevertheless has a personal and intimate charm lacking in other lands. To have placed before us, week by week and year by year,

all that is best of this art, whether it be new or old, is a privilege of which Americans in increasing numbers avail themselves; but the finding of an article on a given garden among the old issues of a weekly magazine is no light task, and therefore the gardens are doubly welcome when bound by themselves and separated from race horses, society dames, and automobiles, the photographs of which accompany them in the original publication.

The present volume, though particularly rich in ancient houses and gardens, is not without excellent examples of very recent work in both. Munstead Wood, near Godalming, the residence of Miss Gertrude Jekyll, shows the combination of her own skill as a garden artist with that of Mr. Lutyens, the architect of her house. The garden has a natural character, containing some features of stone work consonant with the architecture, but the whole is dependent for its greatest charm upon the skilful and abundant use of hardy plants. This garden, which for the larger part existed before the house, is familiar to the readers of Miss Jekyll's books. In it she has put into execution her ideas of good gardening, and from it she has learned the many lessons that she in turn offers so freely to her readers.

Among old houses none can exceed in picturesqueness Compton Wynyates in Warwickshire. But it is not alone the irregular, towering, castellated masses of the house which give to Compton Wynyates its unique charm. The gardens in loveliness, in radiance, in appropriateness, form so excellent a setting to the old mansion that one is constrained to yield them a large share of his admiration. About the old moat extend great masses of those tall, hardy flowers that give the note of distinction to much of our modern gardening. There is little formalism in the arrangement, but a few hedges and solemn yews serve to unite the old garden with the new. Peace and repose invest the ancient abode as it lies in its wood-encircled cup.

To speak of even a tithe of the stately mansions which this book presents would lead us beyond our limits. Suffice it to say that the standard of the earlier volume is maintained in all ways, and, surprising as it may seem, the wealth of gardens of the highest interest seems as yet to show not the slightest sign of exhaustion.

Mutual Aid: A Factor of Evolution. By P. Kropotkin. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902.

Two aspects of animal life have so impressed Prince Kropotkin as to lead him to offer this criticism of the Darwinian theory of natural selection. While journeying in Siberia, he observed that the struggle for existence against inclement nature was very severe; but he observed also that, among animals belonging to the same species, there was no such bitter struggle as the followers of Darwin considered to be the main factor in evolution. On the contrary, he saw that mutual aid and mutual support constituted a feature of the greatest importance for the maintenance of life, the preservation of each species, and its further evolution.

Other observers, it is true, have remarked the existence of love, sympathy, and self-sacrifice among animals, but it seems there is a feeling wider than this: the consciousness, among men, of human solidarity, to which the social instinct among other animals corresponds. Darwin indeed pointed out how, in numberless animal societies, the struggle between separate individuals for the means of existence disappears; how *struggle* is replaced by *co-operation.* He asserted positively that "those communities which included the greatest number of the most sympathetic members would flourish best, and rear the greatest number of offspring." But this view was obscured by Darwin's devotion to the gathering of evidence illustrating the consequences of a real competition for life, while Huxley and others, bettering their master, represented the animal world as on about the same level as a gladiator's show: "the spectator has no need to turn his thumb down, as no quarter is given."

Some allowance must be made for the ferocity of Huxley's dialectic, and no one seriously denies that in families, and even in larger communities of the same species, mutual aid is essential to life. But the earlier social unions of men seem to have been formed for defence and for attack—in short, to oppose and even to exterminate members of the species outside of these unions. Nor does it admit of denial that, even within a community, there will be strife where food is insufficient; if some must starve, it will generally be the weaker rather than the stronger. No doubt there are exceptions, and the author makes the most of them, but he is reduced in the end to the bald assertion that those who survive a famine or an epidemic are neither the strongest, nor the healthiest, nor the most intelligent. This appears to us both untrue and irrelevant.

The custom prevailing among certain savage tribes of killing old and decrepit members is explained as an amiable compliance with the generous anxiety of these cumberers of the earth to relieve the community of the burden of their support. This explanation does not fit the case of infanticide; but we are told that great reluctance to resort to this practice is often displayed. This may be conceded, but it also is irrelevant. In fact, we cannot consider the reasoning in the book as meeting the demands of a scientific presentation of evolutionary theory. Nevertheless, the facts collected are very well stated and make interesting reading. Comparatively little is told of mutual aid among the lower animals, but coöperation among savages is fully illustrated, and the mediæval guilds and modern trade and labor unions receive ample notice. It may at least be said that this aspect of human evolution deserves the recognition which it here receives, as contrasting agreeably with the harsher features of competition.

The Harmonics of Aristoxenus. Edited by Henry S. Macran. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1902.

This book contains, beside the text of Aristoxenus, an introduction, an English translation, notes, and an index. The text shows careful editing, and the notes are scholarlike, in spite of an unfortunate bias against Marquard and Westphal, to whom our editor is sometimes positively disrespectful. The translation is pleasant to read; but it is, now and then, more properly a paraphrase. This, in the case of mere literature, is often preferable to a translation; but it is dangerous in dealing with scientific works, because a paraphrase is necessarily affected by every bias of the paraphrast.

The most important part of Mr. Macran's work is the introduction. What makes it so is that, after all that has been theorized concerning the modes in Greek music, Mr. Macran has still found it possible to evolve an entirely new and extremely ingenious theory. Our readers who have had the patience to follow us in some earlier reviews of recent English books on Greek music, will remember that one of the chief points at issue has been whether the modes differed merely in pitch, or in the size and position of the intervals in the scale. Mr. Macran has hit upon a new basis of classification. Instead of the relations of intervals in the original tetrachord scale, he takes for his basis the heptachord scale and the way in which the tetrachords are combined to produce it—namely, by conjunction, in which the last note of the first tetrachord is also the first of the next; by disjunction, where this is not the case; or by a combination of the two plans. These three methods distinguish, in his view, the three most ancient modes, Iasti, Doristi, and Aiolisti.

The idea is novel and striking. Its chief support is found in a passage of Pollux, in which these three modes are named as the original ones. Only, the passage seems to prove too much; since, if this theory were accepted, it should seem that there never could have been more than three modes.

The interpretation of the three passages cited in support of the editor's view is colored by his *à priori* view of the origin of modes. He accordingly fails to see that Athenæus (xiv., 624, c) cites the opinion of Heraclides Ponticus as something quite excentric and arbitrary; that Aristides Quintilianus is speaking merely of the enharmonic genus; and that the passage from the 'Isagoge' refers to keys and not to modes. We cannot ask our readers to follow us in a discussion of these points; but to us it seems improbable that, at the very early period to which belongs the distinction of these modes, musical theory had gone as far as this subtle analysis implies. And again, if these three names of modes refer to the combination of tetrachords into larger scales, is it credible that the earlier tetrachord scales of the four-stringed lyre had never been distinguished? We have abundant testimony that there were various ways of tuning the four strings, and that these were recognized as different "systemata." It is not credible that these different methods were left unnamed. Nor does it seem probable that the later scales of seven or eight notes were, as Mr. Macran's theory appears to assume, the result of a deliberate *à priori* combination of tetrachords. It seems far more likely that, at a very early period, and perhaps under foreign influences, the original four-stringed lyre received additional strings from time to time in various parts of the Hellenic world, ultimately developing into the complicated instrument which embraced not only the full octave, but several octaves.

We must crave our readers' mercy if we have dwelt even so long on a question which becomes interesting only after close study; but, while we could not ignore Mr. Macran's

clever theory, we could not properly even state it without some warning of its weakness. To those readers who have acquired a taste for these somewhat abstruse questions, we can recommend Mr. Macran's book as suggestive and excellent reading.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adamson, J. E. The Theory of Education in Plato's 'Republic.' London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Altsheler, J. A. Before the Dawn. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Anderson, Tempest. Volcanic Studies in Many Lands. More than 100 Photographs. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $6.00.
Atherton, Gertrude. A Few of Hamilton's Letters. Macmillan. $1.50.
Austin, Martha W. Veronica. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Benson, E. F., and Miles, E. H. H. Daily Training. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Bolles, A. S. The Elements of Commercial Law. H. Holt & Co.
Bulletin of the New York State Museum, No. 44. Vol. VIII. Albany: University of the State of New York.
Carson, W. H. Tito. Boston: C. M. Clark Pub. Co.
Conrad, Joseph. Youth, and Two Other Stories. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Cook, T. A. Spirals in Nature and Art. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Dillon, E. J. Maxim Gorky, his Life and Writings. London: Isbister & Co.; New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.
Durley, R. J. Kinematics of Machines. John Wiley & Sons. $4.
Elkinton, Joseph. The Doukhobors: Their History in Russia, their Migration to Canada. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach.
Elliott, C. G. Engineering for Land Drainage. John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Fischer, Joseph. The Discoveries of the Norsemen in America, with Special Relation to their Cartographical Representation. Translated by B. H. Soulsby. St. Louis: B. Herder.
Fiske, John. Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy. 4 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $8.
Gissing, George. The Private Papers of Henry Ryecroft. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Goschen, Viscount. The Life and Times of Georg Joachim Goschen. 2 vols. London: John Murray; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $10.
Gropallo, Laura. Autori Italiani d'Oggi. Rome: Casa Editrice Nazionale.
Grover, Eulalie O. The Sunbonnet Babies' Primer. Rand, McNally & Co.
Gulland, W. G. Chinese Porcelain, vol. ii. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Hayden, Eleanor G. From a Thatched Cottage. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Hepworth, G. H. We Shall Live Again. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Herrick, S. B. A Century of Sonnets. R. H. Russell.
Heysinger, I. W. The Light of China. Research Pub. Co.
Hilprecht, H. V. Explorations in Bible Lands during the Nineteenth Century. Philadelphia: A. J. Holman & Co.
Hilty, Carl. Happiness: Essays on the Meaning of Life. Translated by F. G. Peabody. Macmillan. $1.25.
Hutchins, B. L., and Harrison, A. A History of Factory Legislation. London: P. S. King & Son.
Hutton, Edward. Italy and the Italians. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Ingalese, Isabella. Linked Lives. The Occult Book Concern.
Kenton, Edna. What Manner of Man. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
King, Bolton. Mazzini. (The Temple Biographies.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York; E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Laurie, S. S. Studies in the History of Educational Opinion from the Rennaissance. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Lawson, Elsworth. From the Unvarying Star. Macmillan.
Leading Newspapers. George P. Rowell & Co. $1.
Letters of an Actress. F. A. Stokes & Co.
Loveman, Robert. The Gates of Silence, with Interludes of Song. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Merriam, C. E. A History of American Political Theories. Macmillan. $1.50.
Meyer, E. S. Ludwig Fulda's Der Talisman. H. Holt & Co.
Moyer, Willard. The Witchery of Sleep. Ostermoor & Co.
Muir, Robert, and James Ritchie. Manual of Bacteriology. Edited by N. M. Harris. Macmillan. $3.75.
Murphy, E. G. Words for the Church. Thomas Whittaker.
Myers, F. W. H. Human Personality and its Survival of Bodily Death. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $12.
Official Records of the Union and Confederate Navies in the War of the Rebellion, Series I., Vol. XIV. Edited by E. K. Rawson and C. W. Stewart. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Publications of the Mississippi Historical Society. Vol. VI. Edited by F. L. Riley. Oxford (Miss.): Published by the Society.
Rolfe, W. J. A Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. Rev. ed. for 1903. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Rolland, Romain. Millet. (The Popular Library of Art.) London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Rosenau, William. Jewish Ceremonial Institutions and Customs. Baltimore: The Friedenwald Co.
Shoemaker, M. M. The Great Siberian Railway from St. Petersburg to Pekin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Smith, A. C. The Turquoise Cup and the Desert. Scribners. $1.25.
Smith, Mary E. E. Eskimo Stories. Rand, McNally & Co.
Stevenson, R. L. A Child's Garden of Verses. Rand, McNally & Co.
Sturge, M. Carta. The Truth and Error of Christian Science. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Swift, Benjamin. In Piccadilly. G. P. Putnam's sons. $1.
The New International Encyclopædia, Vol. VII. Edited by D. C. Gilman, H. T. Peck, and F. M. Colby. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Tilton, Dwight. On Satan's Mount. Boston: C. M. Clark Pub. Co. $1.50.
Von Hügel, Pauline. A Royal Son and Mother. Notre Dame (Ind.): The Ave Marie. 75 cents.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Lady Rose's Daughter. Harpers. $1.50.
Wilson, H. Silverwork and Jewelry: A Textbook for Students and Workers in Metal. D. Appleton & Co.
Woolley, Celia P. The Western Slope. Evanston (Ill.): William S. Lord. $1.25.

SOME OF **Henry Holt & Co.'s** SPRING BOOKS

LORD LEONARD, THE LUCKLESS. This story of an English peer of to-day who made a Moloch of the truth, is by W. E. NORRIS, author of those truly great novels "Matrimony" and "No New Thing." The book is, however, in a more serious vein, and impressively tells a story that a less able writer would have been liable to make sensational. Some of the episodes are decidedly tragic, but Mr. Norris's humor does not desert him, and is used in effective contrast. $1.50.

TIOBA. These eleven tales, presenting a gallery of very varied Americans, are by ARTHUR COLTON, already known to the discriminating by his "Delectable Mountains" and "Debatable Land," and his stories in our leading magazines. His sympathy and descriptive power are notable, he has the saving grace of humor, and makes us think well of our fellow men. Tioba was a mountain which meant well but was mistaken. There is a striking frontispiece by A. B. FROST. $1.25.

A SUMMER IN NEW YORK. EDWARD W. TOWNSEND made his reputation years ago with his "Chimmie Fadden" stories, as master of a cheery humor. It strongly characterizes this new "love story told in letters." The tower of the Madison Square Garden bathed in moonlight adorns the cover, while the illustrated chapter heads emphasize the local color. $1.25.

THE TRIUMPH OF COUNT OSTERMANN, by GRAHAM HOPE, is the love story of Peter the Great's German Prime Minister. Peter, dissolute and violent, but glorified by his will and noble purpose, is strongly drawn. $1.50.

RED-HEADED GILL, by RYE OWEN. A very original story, in which a weird East Indian influence is a leading theme. The characters and scenes are strong, interesting, and often beautiful; and there is withal a very saving sense of humor. $1.50.

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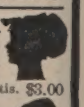

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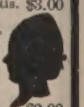

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 19, 1903.

The Week.

The Panama Canal treaty was ratified on Tuesday. This is a new success for Secretary Hay, perhaps the most important of his career. It required a deal of wisdom and tact to steer between the reefs of Colombian susceptibility and American jingoism. The Colombians are sensitive on the subject of their sovereignty, and we are committed by a long line of stump speeches to the idea that the canal should be fortified by us whether it needs fortification or not. The treaty makes provision for defence of the canal by us, but not for permanent fortification. Doubtless Secretary Hay took the view that the United States is strong enough to defend the canal without permanent fortifications, and that it would be a waste of time and words and opportunity to discuss a question of so much delicacy now. Such debates are to be expected, however, among Senators who have so often hurled defiance at the Powers of the Old World on this subject. The speeches being now all made and the treaty ratified, the work of building the canal will be resumed where the French company left it. Some little sputtering may be expected over the ratification in Colombia, but it is not to be supposed that the $10,000,000 which we are to pay that country for the privilege of making it the highway of nations will be thrown away for any sentimental considerations by the politicians at Bogota.

What is chiefly significant in the correspondence between the Argentine Minister and Secretary Hay, made public last week, is the further clarifying of an obscure question. Shall South American countries be exempt from forcible collection of just claims urged by European nations? It has long been a favorite doctrine of South American legists—it is laid down in Calvo's treatise on international law—that one Power has no right to exact payment *vi et armis* of any pecuniary claim whatever. The attempt has been made to place this doubtful contention under the ægis of Monroeism. Mr. Hay, however, refuses to strain the Monroe Doctrine in that way. He states the position of the Administration to be that it will not undertake to guarantee any South American republic from punitive measures in case of defaulted obligation, but only that such "punishment shall not take the form of the acquisition of territory." That position itself is not without its embarrassments. With a fine air of generous impartiality, we say to European Powers, "Certainly, go ahead and collect your South American debts; we shall not interfere." But if the creditor proceeds to levy upon the only property he may be able to find, then we *do* interfere with our veto. Nor will we, when the awkwardness of the resulting situation is urged upon us, undertake to keep our troublesome neighbors in order. Such are the complications of the anomalous position. It is somewhat cleared up, however, by the exchange of notes with Argentina. That country repudiates all intention to disown just claims, and asks only for consideration, for regular diplomatic presentation, and for arbitration, if possible, before the appeal to force. That is good sense and ought to be good international law.

That the Senate should at last be willing even to consider a resolution to limit debate, shows that the shafts of public indignation are beginning to strike home. It is not alone Congressman Cannon, not merely the House of Representatives, but the country at large that is growing weary and ashamed of a Senate of grown men which can find no way of escape from filibusterers and marauders on its own floor. Senator Hoar has proposed that a manual of parliamentary law be printed for the special use of the Senate. It certainly needs it. If we had a Vice-President who would exercise the functions of the ordinary presiding officer, and call upon Senators to speak to the point and do business, reform might be begun. He would incur odium at first, no doubt, and would not have the backing of the majority of the Senate; but that would come in time, and the endorsement of the people would be given from the first to any man who boldly strove to free the Senate from the humiliating fetters which it has forged for its own limbs. Meanwhile, the Senate Committee may do something, by the time Congress meets again, to prevent the upper chamber from fulfilling Shelley's dream of a

> "Senate-house whose floor
> Is Chaos."

What has become of the international monetary conference to establish a ratio of exchange between the gold-standard countries and the silver-using countries? The last time we saw it, Senator Aldrich was incubating it in the Sundry Civil Appropriation bill. It had been knocked out of the Philippine Currency bill by the House, and the Senate had concurred in the knockout, but the latter immediately put it in a safer place (the Sundry Civil bill), with an appropriation of $100,000 to pay our share of the expenses thereof. Now, we find, by reference to the *Congressional Record* of March 3, that it was knocked out a second time by a conference committee, and that, instead of an international conference, we are to have some kind of diplomatic treatment of the silver question at a cost not to exceed $25,000. The paragraph, as passed by the two houses, is as follows:

> "To enable the President to coöperate through diplomatic channels with the Governments of Mexico, China, Japan, and other countries for the purpose set forth in the message of the President and accompanying notes submitted to Congress January 29, 1903, and printed as Senate Document No. 119, second session, Fifty-seventh Congress, $25,000."

Further inquiry points to the conclusion that the anti-silver members of the House accepted the Senate's Philippine Currency bill on condition that the international conference clause should be stricken out, and that the silver Senators consented to the striking out on condition that it should be replaced and enacted in an appropriation bill. These two mutually destructive bargains were made at opposite ends of the Capitol at about the same time. Both of them could not be carried out. So the international conference was abandoned, but its simulacrum was preserved, and one-fourth of the money was retained in the bill. The only important question now is how to spend the $25,000. Probably somebody can be found to use it for travelling expenses.

Having over-hastily confirmed the nomination of Major William Plimley as Assistant Treasurer of the United States at New York, the Senate has acted wisely in asking the President to delay issuing his commission pending further consideration and investigation. It now appears that the favorable report of the Finance Committee, on which the Senate acted, was obtained in an informal manner by Senator Platt, when the Chairman of the Committee was absent. The nomination was confirmed within two hours after it was received. There really seems to have been no scrutiny of the nomination whatever. Undoubtedly further inquiry is desirable, not only on account of the importance of the office, but also because of some unpleasant reports which have been current since the nomination was made. Platt, who is Major Plimley's sponsor, assures the public that it is "all right," and that the confirmation is "sure to go through" at an early date. This is Platt's habitual cheerfulness, showing a chastened spirit, with which we are now familiar.

The *Evening Post* is printing a series of dispatches and letters dealing with the political corruption of Rhode Island. No colony had a nobler history than lit-

tle Rhode Island, the home of religious freedom and of all civic virtues. And yet in spite of these fine traditions, in spite of generous provision for all grades of education, in spite of strong churches and able preachers, the country districts, under the malignant hand of a rich and powerful oligarchy, have sunk almost to the level of Delaware and Montana. The debauchery of Rhode Island has not been the work of a few years of pernicious activity like that of Addicks and Clark. Under the Constitution of 1842 each town and city has one member in the State Senate, to whose control, therefore, nothing is necessary but majorities in some of the small and feeble towns. For decades they have held the key to the Senate, and have been bribed by one party or another till now the electors literally have no conception of an honest vote. Against these conditions there has been a long, hard, and hitherto unavailing fight. The Republican boss, Charles R. Brayton, has kept an unshaken grip upon his rotten boroughs; street railways and other corporations that depend upon legislative favor have helped to throttle the commonwealth; and men like Senator Aldrich have risen to eminence through this degradation of their constituencies.

The Senate of Delaware voted on Monday, by 9 to 7, to repeal the Voter's Assistant law, by which bribery in elections is facilitated. This law allows the assistant to enter the polling booth and tell an ignorant voter how to mark his ballot. The system protects the vote buyer against the chance of being cheated out of his money. He need not pay until he sees the right ballot deposited in the box. Several attempts were made, before the recent election of Senators, to repeal this law, but they were defeated by Republican members who were virtuous enough to vote against Addicks, but not virtuous enough to disarm him and drive him away. The most surprising episode in the late proceedings was a speech made by Mr. Conner, one of the Addicks Senators, as published in the *World*. According to this report, Mr. Conner said that the Voter's Assistant law was a fair and commendable measure, because it insures delivery of the goods. "When I buy a horse," he continued, "I want my horse. When a Republican buys a vote, he wants his vote." He did not speak from any selfish motive, however. He wanted the Democrats to have an equal opportunty to secure what they pay for "instead of being cheated, as has been the case so many times in this State." Although the repealing bill has passed, it has to come for signature before an Addicks man as Governor.

Public attention of late has been so much engrossed in the political aspirations of J. Edward Addicks that it has overlooked some facts of interest regarding his financial affairs. There was published among the legal advertisements in this city, in the latter part of last December, a notice that, by virtue of a trust agreement dated January 1, 1889, between J. Edward Addicks and W. E. L. Dillaway of the first part, the Mercantile Trust Company of the second part, and the Bay State Gas Company of the third part, the said Mercantile Trust Company would on a certain day sell at auction 35,363 shares of stock of various gas companies situated in Boston and adjoining towns in Massachusetts. These were the properties of the Bay State Gas Company (of Delaware) of which J. Frank Allee, the newly-elected Senator of Delaware, was, and perhaps still is, President or executor *de bonis non*. The property advertised for sale was held by the Mercantile Trust Company to secure $12,000,000 of bonds on which default had been made by the debtor company, in respect of interest and sinking fund. Shortly afterward a suit was begun in the Supreme Court to restrain the Trust Company from selling the said securities, and a bill in equity was filed making various allegations and embracing numerous exhibits.

Among the latter was a correspondence between President Allee and Mr. F. W. Whitridge who had been for a short time, in 1897, a trustee of the Bay State Gas Company of New Jersey, the latter being one of the mortal forms assumed by the Addicks gas combine in its many transmigrations. President Allee, in his letter to Whitridge, dated January 17 of the present year, holds Whitridge and his associate trustees responsible for all that has happened to the property of the Delaware Company since December 7, 1896, including the threatened sale of stocks by the Mercantile Trust Company. The allegations of Allee embraced one charging that a certain trust deed had been executed to the injury of his company, which trust deed was illegal. "This allegation," says Whitridge in his reply, "was made although your company knows that it received a large consideration for the execution of said trust deed, which consideration was in part a package of five-dollar bills about seven inches high, paid over to your President, in the presence of several of your directors, three days before the Delaware election in the autumn of 1896." This is a contribution which might well be looked after in Mr. George Kennan's future explorations of the prison houses of Delaware. The injunction applied for to restrain the sale of the Bay State Gas Company's securities was not granted.

The highest vote on any of the Constitutional amendments in New Hampshire on Tuesday was about 40,000. This is only about half the vote in the election of 1902, and, much less than half the total of 1900, when it was 92,353. Such small votes require an explanation from the advocates of the referendum. The proposal to strike out the word *male* from the clause in the Constitution dealing with the elective franchise was beaten by a majority of almost 2 to 1, yet the amendment was regularly proposed by a Constitutional Convention, was definite and final in form, and ample time for discussion and agitation was allowed. Evidently conservative New England is still against woman suffrage.

It is astonishing how early, and at how many different places, the Presidential campaign of 1904 begins. We intended to claim the real starting-point for New York by showing that the fate of both parties would depend upon the success of some candidate for Mayor next fall, but Senator Foraker has anticipated us by announcing that Cincinnati has superior claims. The Democrats of that city have nominated Mr. Ingalls, the well-known railroad manager, for Mayor, and the Republicans have named a Mr. Fleischmann, not widely known to fame, but believed by Foraker to be "equally as good." The overwhelming reason, according to Foraker, why Fleischmann should be elected is that "this is the beginning of the great campaign of next year." He says "it is impossible to disguise this fact"; from which we infer that the Democrats are doing everything possible to conceal it, and are pretending that nothing but municipal issues, such as the rule of Boss Cox, are fit to be considered. Foraker will tear off that mask. He will show that not only in Cincinnati, but in all the cities of the Union, the Democrats are making believe that they are trying to reform local abuses while they are actually aiming to defeat the Republican party next year. The proof of this is that "everywhere they are preaching harmony and perfecting their organization." What better evidence could you have than that? If they were everywhere preaching discord and allowing their organization to fall in pieces, there might be some ground for saying that the nomination of such a man as Ingalls was intended for the sole benefit of Cincinnati, but when they are avowedly harmonious and energetic their designs must be dark indeed. In short, Foraker thinks that if Ingalls is elected Mayor, he will be "in line for the Governorship of Ohio and the Presidency." That would be awful.

The question may be properly asked whether there is any emergency warranting so much disturbance as the mortgage tax is producing in business circles. The Governor aims to get $5,500,000 more money from some source or sources to enable him to dispense with the so-called direct tax. The direct tax

is a call upon the counties of the State for their proportion of this sum. Greater New York pays 60 per cent. of whatever is thus called for, but Greater New York could better afford to pay the entire 100 per cent. than to have this tax put on mortgages. The disarrangement of existing contracts and the upsetting of present calculations, based upon the system heretofore prevailing, might involve losses greater than the amount of the tax itself. Good authorities estimate the total amount of existing mortgages in Greater New York at $1,500,000,000. A tax of four mills, if it could all be collected, would be $6,000,000—a demand made in an unaccustomed form and at an unexpected time, and, as regards the savings banks, life-insurance companies, and building-and-loan associations, contrary to the previously declared policy of the State. If the present direct tax can be considered an evil, it is a much smaller one than the proposed tax on mortgages would be.

Recently the State of Nebraska, which forty years ago was an open plain trampled by buffalo, and ten years ago was affirming with vehemence the vagaries of the Ocala platform, invested $300,000 of its permanent school fund in bonds of the staid old commonwealth of Massachusetts. It took them at 3¾ per cent., a rate lower than could be afforded by Eastern banks at the time. The State Bank Commissioner of Kansas estimates that 68 per cent. of the $80,000,000 in the banks of that State is owned by farmers, or those who depend on agriculture directly for a livelihood. It is little wonder that the legislators chosen by a constituency where new conditions and new ideas prevail, are inclined to caution. This growth in conservatism in Western communities is, after all, only a repetition of the history of other sections and other lands. With possession comes responsibility. Responsibility steadies a State as it does an individual. It has broadened and liberalized the West, not alone in its general laws, but in its more local applications of the functions of government. The new outlook has convinced the possessors of the plains that the old ways are the sure ways, and that human nature is much the same East and West when it comes to the care of one's own.

An impression prevails that the changes in the immigration laws adopted by the last Congress have been of a radical type, and that they will make the United States much more difficult of access than it was before. This is a mistake. The law has been strengthened in some particulars, but has not been materially changed. The head tax, formerly $1, has been raised to $2. Citizens of Cuba, Mexico, and Canada are exempted from paying it. Epileptics and persons who have been insane within five years are excluded; also beggars, anarchists, and persons who bring in lewd women. Skilled labor may be imported if labor of the like kind unemployed cannot be found in this country. Alien contract laborers are defined to include those who come to the United States in pursuance of printed advertisements in foreign newspapers, excepting, however, the advertisements of States or Territories of the United States setting forth the inducements they offer for immigration thereto. Wives and children of persons who have taken up permanent residence in the United States and have filed declaration of intention to become citizens, may be admitted, even if they are afflicted with dangerous contagious disease, provided this was contracted on board ship, and provided the landing can be permitted without danger to other persons. Two long sections of the new act provide for the exclusion of anarchists and for the prevention of their naturalization in case they gain admission; but since the evidence to prove anarchism must generally be obtained from the immigrant himself, these sections can hardly be considered deterrent.

The vote of the Pennsylvania Railway shareholders, giving authority for the issue of $150,000,000 new stock, coincided rather strikingly with last week's over-strained money market and Wall Street's heavy draft on Europe for relief. During several months, it has been the commonplace of financial criticism to say that American capital is "tied up"; or, to put the matter in another way, that our floating capital has been largely placed in fixed investment, where it is not available for the money market's present uses. This fact being recognized, the Pennsylvania's forthcoming application is of interest, not only because of its magnitude, but because of the reasons offered for it. The company's annual report stated that $67,000,000 would be needed immediately. At the meeting on March 10, these imperative needs were set forth by the company as follows: Doubling the track facilities from Pittsburgh to the East; grading and six-tracking the line across New Jersey; adding largely to the company's carrying power; and beginning provision for the enormous New York terminal expenditure. That these requirements are really urgent, the recent serious freight blockade at Pittsburgh proved conclusively, and it is reasonable to expect, as Capt. Green pointed out for the company, that constant expenditure, on a similar scale and for similar purposes, must go on for at least three years.

It is legitimate railway expenditure of this sort which leads to the rather familiar comment that the money and stock markets are "suffering from too much prosperity." This assertion is, however, one of those half-truths which are quite as misleading as absolute misstatements. There is, and all along has been, in this country, abundant capital for the financing of enterprises such as we have described. It is not the building of new railway tracks and terminals and bridges which has overstrained the money market and depressed the general level of investment values. The trouble now, as last year, is the huge mass of capital appropriated by our promoting financiers and our ambitious corporation managers for the purpose of buying up existing properties at extravagant valuations—such, for instance, as the forty or fifty million dollars raised on their notes, two months ago, by the Pennsylvania Company itself, and the Lake Shore, to buy up stock of the Reading Railway Company.

Another seat was lost to the Conservatives on Wednesday week, at the same time that the Ministry was saved from defeat in the House only by the abstention of the Irish Nationalists. The price which the latter are to get, or to demand, for their complaisance, we shall know only when the new land bill is introduced. The figure certainly will have to be a high one to make up for the recent quiescence of the Irish in the House. Economists recognize a right to profit from abstention or self-sacrifice; and Irish abstention will expect to be capitalized at a high rate in Mr. Wyndham's land-purchase bill. Moore said of his countrymen that they were always either "blarneying or brawling." Blarney has reigned triumphant for the past few weeks, but the brawling may confidently be looked for if Irish expectations are not met.

Emperor William does not seem to have chosen a happy moment for pardoning a convicted army duellist. His act comes directly upon the heels of an acrimonious debate in the Reichstag on the subject of duelling in the army. The Liberal and Socialist Deputies distinctly had the Minister of War on the defensive. He had to promise to do all he could to put down the duelling practice. Yet here comes the Emperor extending clemency to a peculiarly flagrant offender, who had been sentenced by a military court to two years' imprisonment. His case was one of those which most inflame the German people, since it was a civilian whom he had killed. A very bad effect must be produced by his pardon—not only in the army, where the swaggering exponents of the duello will now feel that they have the Kaiser with them, no matter what public opinion may be, but also in the ranks of the Social Democrats, where the opposition to oppressive militarism, with its barbaric notions of "honor," will be more bitter than ever.

MORE CUBAN JUGGLING.

The Cuban Treaty is to be ratified—by neatly killing it. The lurking enemies of the treaty have walked up to it with smiles, have said to it, "Art thou in health, my brother?" and have deftly inserted a knife under its fifth rib. This weapon was wrapped in an amendment, accepted by the Committee on Foreign Relations and reported to the Senate, in these terms—"This treaty shall not take effect until the same shall have been approved by Congress."

To appreciate the significance of this, we have only to look back to the regular session. Early in its course, Senator Cullom reported a resolution, and made a speech upon it, maintaining that the approval of the House was not necessary, even in the case of a treaty affecting the revenue laws. He took strong Constitutional and historic ground, and stood up for the prerogative of the President and the privileges of the Senate as the treaty-making power. The House had a duty, of course, in passing laws in execution of a treaty, but it had no right to be consulted in advance, or to block ratification. That could be perfected without its consent. Moreover, when the very amendment now adopted was offered last winter, it was voted down as both derogating from the dignity of the Senate and imperilling the treaty itself. The fear was that the House would not approve. It was in session then, and the friends of the treaty dared not risk submitting it to a vote in the House. Now that the House is not in session, they deliberately provide for action by it which may not be had, of course, for a year or more, if ever. The treaty is, indeed, passed on to the Representatives with a pretty broad hint that they are expected to do the final slaughtering which the Senate finds it inconvenient to undertake at this time. Thus what we have is a good deal like ratification by burial.

This surrender by the Senate of one of its prerogatives which hitherto it has asserted most stoutly, has a sinister look. Why was the thing done just at this time, and in connection with just this treaty? We can see no answer except that the Senate sought to do by indirection what it lacked the courage to do in a straightforward way. Willing to wound and yet afraid to strike, it passed on the dagger to another hand. Historically, of course, the House has always had *a* right in connection with treaties, but never the right now tossed to it by the Senate. The question was fought out at the very beginning of the Government, in connection with the Jay treaty; there were those who then asserted the equal voice of the House in the ratification of treaties, but that claim was not sustained. Under its power to refuse legislation necessary to carry out a treaty, the House may, of course, nullify it after the event. This it has never done, we believe, except in the case of the treaty of reciprocity with Mexico. But in the present instance, the volunteered suggestion by the Senate is too broad. "Here is the treaty," Senators say, in effect. "It was an Administration measure, and we could not very well refuse it. But, as you see, we have merely arranged to keep it in suspended animation for a year, and shall then look to you to squeeze the last breath out of it."

President Roosevelt has urged the ratification of the treaty for three reasons. We were in honor bound to give the Cubans a market. But that was the easiest thing in the world for the Senate to get over. It had as contemptuous an opinion of "honor" as Falstaff. Next, said the President, this treaty is a part of our "world-policy." Cuba is within our sphere, and we must treat her so that she will always be looking to us, not to Europe. But world-policy ran up against "my-deestrict" policy, and was ignominiously beaten, not for the first nor the last time. It is humiliating, but it is a solemn fact, that just when you are getting into a fine glow over your plans for dazzling the world, some man from the backwoods, some friend of the beet or of a smuggled herring, rises up to say, "Oh, shucks!" and brings your grandiose programme to the ground. Our ardent Imperialists forgot this, but the failure of their Philippine tariff, and now the burial alive of their Cuban treaty, ought to remind them that there are more things in Congress and in the course of legislation than were dreamed of in their eager young philosophy.

The President also made a plea for the Cuban Treaty on the ground that it would be a good thing for the trade of both countries. We should buy more of Cuba, Cuba would take more of our products. That the latter would have been the sure result of putting the treaty into effect, is fully admitted in the report of the committee on the subject made to the Cuban Senate. It stated that the treaty would so favor American goods that they would have an advantage over all competitors. This, of course, was precisely the fear of English and French exporters to Cuba, and was the reason of their flurried concern. The enlargement of a profitable trade within our reach was unmistakable. Why, then, did we not take it? Why did the Senate determine to keep everything hanging for a twelvemonth or longer, and continue that uncertainty which, the Havana dispatches say, Cuban planters and merchants dread more than they did the outright rejection of the treaty? For no reason, except that the sacred tariff was involved. We should have to reduce a few duties, and the selfish interests that insisted upon their retention were too strong to be dislodged. A greedy, a sullen, an entrenched protectionism has again blocked President Roosevelt. And he is only beginning to find out the hatred it cherishes for any man who dares to lay a hand upon one of its inviolable schedules.

REMEDIES FOR THE BOYCOTT.

The law-abiding citizens of Waterbury, Conn., have been afflicted for some weeks with an interruption of street-car traffic due to a strike of the employees of the local trolley company, accompanied by threats and violence against persons who attempt to run the cars, culminating in the murder of a policeman. A boycott has also been declared against all persons who ride in the cars, and the whole community has been, and still is, under terrorism and mob rule. The condition has become unbearable, and at last the citizens who are not primarily concerned in the controversy have been driven to the necessity of organizing against organized labor. At all events, they have been forced to consider what means may be open to them to escape from the torments of the boycott.

The question involved in the strike itself is the least important thing to be here considered. The most important is the right of each citizen to be unmolested in his person and property so long as he obeys the laws, pays his taxes, and does not violate the equal rights of any other person. When this right is denied and infringed by an individual, he is usually sued for damages or indicted by the grand jury; in an aggravated case, is sent to jail. When it is done by a large number of persons in combination, then usually nobody is sued or punished in any way. The mobbing and the boycotting go on indefinitely until one or the other of the parties to the original quarrel is reduced to exhaustion. Meanwhile, the mass of the communtity, innocent of any offence, have endured privations and inflictions of many kinds, have suffered cruel anxieties, while, perhaps, their business has been ruined.

The conditions existing at Waterbury are very common in the United States. There are dozens of strikes going on or preparing now, and each one is liable to be converted incontinently into a boycott. The legal right to strike is not denied, although some limitations as to time are put upon it by the courts in rare instances where public interests are deeply concerned. Generally speaking, the right of workmen to sell their labor freely and to bargain either singly or *en masse* is never called in question. When, however, this right is perverted to a boycott, it becomes an attack upon society as a whole, and one which ought to be resisted by society as a whole. If A has a quarrel with B, he has no right to demand that C, D, and E shall espouse his side and fight his battles. That is what the boycotter demands; and as long

as society tolerates the imposition, boycotts will multiply and the loss and suffering will increase and deepen.

It was perceived some years ago by certain groups of employers that capital could not maintain itself against organized labor unless it were itself organized. If the workingmen in a particular trade can strike against all the employers by turns, they can bring them all down by turns; but if the employers agree to stand by each other, they can fight an equal battle. In no other way can they hope to do so. The old maxim that in union there is strength applies to them as it does to their employees, or to the bundle of sticks in the fable. A strike is now threatened in the shipbuilding trade, and the shipbuilders have formed a union to protect themselves. Whatever they do will be done in common. No one will seek to gain an advantage over his competitors in the same trade while a common danger impends over all.

Now, Waterbury and all other towns afflicted by boycotters will have to learn the same lesson and adopt the same method of self-protection. Society must protect itself against boycotting practices. This is not so difficult as it seems. Society is already an organization. It makes the law, and it has officers and courts to enforce the law. Mobs, and boycotters, and murderers, and dynamiters are lawbreakers. It is only necessary to execute the laws, and if they are insufficient, to ask the Legislature for new ones. But it will be found in the vast majority of instances that they are sufficient now, and that the only thing wanting is a determined effort to enforce them. If society in Waterbury is supine and nerveless, if the citizens are cowed by the lawless members of the community, if they are so fearful of the loss of patronage that they dare not uphold the rights which the laws guarantee them, they will soon have no rights at all. People who can move away from the town will do so, and those who are so fortunate as not to have homes or property there will avoid the place.

These words are applicable to many other cities besides Waterbury. The evils which exist there have been witnessed in hundreds of towns, large and small, during the past ten years. The city of Chicago was a prey to a boycott in the building trade, where boycotting was practised extensively by both sides, and which lasted eighteen months. One of the valuable results of that prolonged struggle was a pamphlet compilation by Mr. James A. Miller, Chairman of the Legal Committee of the Building Contractors' Council, showing what legal remedies exist for combating the illegal doings of organized labor. Those who read it will be surprised to find how many of the practices commonly used to coerce employers and the public generally to do things contrary to their inclination and their interest, are illegal and remediable in the courts, if the sufferers will unite and boldly fight for their rights.

THE CZAR'S DECREE.

The decree with which the Russian Emperor has commemorated the birthday of his late father, is rather a declaration of principles than a programme of reforms. It is notable for a certain nobility and religious exaltation, which are quite worthy of the mind that first conceived the idea of universal disarmament; but it leaves the student of Russian affairs in some doubt as to the actual changes that are planned in the present political order. The Czar, it is clear, evidently desires (1) complete religious toleration, (2) increase in the powers of the provincial and local assemblies, (3) relaxation of some of the old and tyrannous practices of the village community *(Mir)*.

Nominally, a considerable measure of religious toleration already exists in Russia; but, practically, the local officials have the power to persecute dissenters of all sorts. It is not likely that the Czar can contrive any different system. He hopes, undoubtedly, that this striking expression of his own will may have an abiding moral effect upon all Russian bureaucrats in contact with unpopular sects. The lodging of greater powers in the provincial assemblies (zemstvos) is probably the most far-reaching principle set forth by the Czar. Prince Kropotkin and many other intelligent Russians have long felt that, with the expansion of the Russian Empire, the bureaucracy was breaking down in operation. These observers have predicted that decentralization must take place, or the Imperial machine fall apart from severity of strain. Evidently this is the opinion of the Czar, since he plans to put a larger part of the financial control of the provinces in the hands of those popularly elected bodies, the zemstvos. But any such changes will come about very gradually, and all these reforms are more or less dependent upon the good will of a not very friendly bureaucracy. The Czar's philanthropic designs will sooner take effect in the modifications of certain oppressions of the system of village control.

To a Russian, the *Mir* signifies indifferently his world and his village. It may ostracise him, or, again, it may forbid him to leave his unprofitable acres; through the taxing right it may for a long period control his person and his labor. These rights come from immemorial use, and it is conceivable that their abrogation may be unpopular even with those whose conditions of life would thus be made easier. Yet it should be assumed that the convenience of the changes will soon recommend them, even though they mean a profound modification in the most characteristic of Russian institutions—for the *Mir* was old long before provincial councils or the Empire itself had appeared.

A careful examination of the decree will show that it is not an emergency measure, but the announcement of a new and permanent policy. It is not the answer to the industrial strikes or the student riots of last year, for the reforms will affect chiefly the peasants and the rural nobility. It goes deep below the thin strata of discontent to the bedrock of national life. It is not precisely a response to the recent conferences of the provincial councils held by the Emperor's order, for it appears that the Minister of the Interior, M. Plehve, did everything in his power to make these reform conferences meaningless, and to divert the conferees from real issues. The Emperor has apparently gone over the head of his own Minister, and has faced the problem of local government on general principles of fair dealing. It seems equally certain that the proclamation of religious toleration must be distasteful to M. Pobyedonostseff, the Procurator-General of the Holy Synod. It is like Nicholas III. to cherish generous imaginings, but it is not like him to cross two of his most prominent advisers. For this reason, many will ask, Who encouraged the Czar not only to imagine, but to take so bold a step? And many will conjecture that M. Witte, the Minister of Finance, has seen in the Czar's beneficent plan an opportunity for fiscal reorganization.

Whatever may be the actual outcome of the Czar's decree, it will remain a most honorable monument to his memory. The warmth of the phrasing comes unquestionably from his own heart. Hundreds of interested voices must have told him that the step was a dangerous one, and that his sentimentality would mean the ultimate destruction of the Empire itself. To all such his answer, through this decree, has been, "I choose liberty, though perilous."

The growth of a genuine Liberal party in Russia is interestingly described by F. Volkhovsky, in the *Contemporary Review*. The movement started partly as an offset to so-called Nihilism. Without elaborate organization, a common purpose bound together a great number of nobles and university men in the county councils. In a necessarily informal and secret conference held last summer in Moscow, the Liberals made specific requests for judicial reform, universal primary education, the popularizing of the elections to the zemstvos, the reduction of Government income to actual expenditure, the removal of the censorship. It is needless to say that these pioneers of reform have been vehemently opposed by the Minister of the Interior, Plehve, as they were by his predecessor, the murdered Sipaguine. The local officials of the Empire made it their care to stifle pertinent discussion

in the zemstvos, and to keep the leaders in a state of fear. The only organ of the party is naturally not published in Russia, but abroad, in Stuttgart. This new constitutionalism is significant, first, because it seeks gradual and possible reforms; second, because its adherents are people who have a stake in the community. Abortive as the efforts of these Liberals appear, their agitation cannot be looked upon as vain; the Czar's rescript foreshadows many of the reforms suggested at the Liberal conference of last summer, particularly the granting of additional powers to the provincial councils.

The Czar's effort to lift up the muzhik wins unstinted praise from the very American newspapers which would have the negro kept down. This is strange. Do they wish it to appear that they like the doctrine of equal human rights only in Russia? The same arguments which they have used against President Roosevelt's policy of negro appointments would apply as well to the Czar's decree in behalf of the Russian peasants. Why give them a measure of local self-government? It will only encourage them to demand impossible things. And it is certain to "make trouble." The kindly relation between the great landowners and the ex-serfs will be sure to be broken up. As for "forced labor," of course, that has an unpleasant sound, but, after all, does it not correspond to the hard fact? If the muzhik is not compelled to work, will he work at all? Thus to abolish the *corvée* would simply fill the land with sturdy beggars. So the argument might run on indefinitely. All that we say is that if it is good for the Russian peasant to have the door of hope set open before him, so it is for the American negro. And we do not wish to confine our praise to those who are trying in a foreign land to elevate the ignorant and downtrodden.

LOUISE DE LA VALLIÈRE.

PARIS, February 25, 1903.

M. Lair, a member of the French Institute, has published a new and more compendious edition of his biography of the famous Louise de la Vallière, who was so long a favorite of Louis XIV. before she entered a Carmelite convent. Mademoiselle de la Vallière is the type of the "illustrious penitent," and wears about her a sort of half-romantic, half-religious halo. Her letters, long known only in a sort of rhetorical arrangement, have been found, transcribed in their exact text, at the little château of Bures, in the valley of Chevreuse. M. Lair began his work in that château, and dedicates it to the lady who was its proprietor at the time when he attempted to write the life of La Vallière.

Louise was born at Tours on the 6th of August, 1644. Her father, Laurent de la Baume Le Blanc, added to his family name that of the estate of La Vallière, which was near Amboise. She became, at a very early age, one of the ladies of Marguerite of Lorraine, the second wife of Monsieur, Duke of Orleans, who lived in exile at Blois. When Louis XIV. took with his mother, Anne of Austria, a journey to the Spanish frontier, where he was to find an Infanta, his future wife, he stopped on his way at Blois, his mother wishing to detach the young King from Mazarin's niece, for whom he had conceived a passion. Louis XIV. paid no attention to the young La Vallière, who was afterwards to play such a great part in his life.

After the death of Gaston d'Orléans, his widow did not remain at Blois. She left immediately for Paris, where she established herself in the Luxembourg, which was then called the Palais d'Orléans. Louise de la Vallière continued to live near her, and to be the companion of the three princesses of Orleans. The eldest of these had been thinking some time of becoming the Queen of France, but Anne of Austria had never been willing to favor this alliance. Mademoiselle de la Vallière, who was only sixteen and a half years old, had many bad examples before her. The princesses were jealous of each other; both of them wished to marry the young Prince Charles of Lorraine. The Prince asked for the hand of the eldest, who was the richest, though he preferred her sister Marguerite. The despair of Marguerite was very great; the hand of the Prince of Tuscany was offered her, but she would not at first hear of it. "The King," she said, "was a tyrant." She fled for a time to a convent. "Every day she went out hunting, and sometimes lost herself in the woods, followed by her cousin Charles of Lorraine; she came back at night dishevelled, with her habit torn." All this did not prevent her from being married in April, 1661, to the Italian prince.

The same month, Monsieur, the brother of the King, was married to Princess Henrietta, the daughter of the King of England. Monsieur received the appanage of Gaston d'Orléans, whose widow had no more need of her many ladies. Mademoiselle de la Vallière did not, however, return to her province, and, through the influence of Madame de Choisy, wife of the ex-chancellor of Gaston d'Orléans, she was named one of the maids of honor of the new Madame. This place gave her a pension of a hundred livres (equivalent to about five or six hundred francs a year). This sum would hardly have paid for her clothes, but her living was assured, and she had a good chance of finding a husband. The young La Vallière accepted the offer. She had two unmarried sisters; her parents were poor. She was to leave the Luxembourg, the austere Dowager of Orleans, the fanciful Grande Mademoiselle, and to enter the Tuileries as maid to Madame, the sister-in-law of the King. It seemed to her the most brilliant of dreams. In this new world she was pronounced to be "very pretty, very sweet, very innocent." Monsieur the Duke d'Orléans was amiable; the young Princess Henrietta was the granddaughter of Henri IV., the daughter of Charles I. There was a sort of poetic halo round her.

Louis XIV., who had felt a great dislike to Princess Henrietta when he first saw her, found her much changed to her advantage when she became Madame. She conquered him, and at Fontainebleau he gave a succession of feasts in her honor. The young La Vallière was thrown into the whirl without any guide; she had no intimate acquaintance except another maid of honor, Françoise de Montalais, a dangerous intriguer. A picture, attributed to Mignard (and reproduced in engraving in M. Lair's volume), shows a mythological Louis XIV., in the dress of a shepherd, with Madame and her six maids of honor. All the ladies wear the ringlets which were the fashion of the time; two of them have little pet dogs. Apollo looks very languid, and two little loves are flying in the air. The King saw La Vallière at every moment, and became attached to her; she fell in love with him. Her resistance, it must be confessed, was not protracted, and the King's victory was easy. Louise, who had arrived at Fontainebleau in the month of May, was, before the end of July, the King's mistress. The Queen Mother had been completely deceived by the King's familiarity with Madame; she had seen the danger where it was not, or where it had been only for a moment.

Among those who had paid their court to La Vallière was the famous Superintendent Fouquet. He had the impudence to make her, through a disreputable lady, the offer of a sum of money. Louis XIV. became all the more angry with Fouquet in that he was afraid of him. He had already resolved to dismiss him. In the midst of the great festival at Vaux, Fouquet's magnificent château, the King expressed to his mother the desire to have him arrested. The Queen-Mother remonstrated, and invoked the laws of hospitality. Louis XIV. contrived a journey to Brittany with Fouquet, and had him arrested at Nantes. The unfortunate Superintendent was imprisoned some time in the castle of Amboise, where La Vallière had spent the best years of her childhood; and, by a curious coincidence, the King's lieutenant at Amboise was then François de la Vallière, Louise's own brother.

During the King's absence, La Vallière lived very quietly in her little room under the eaves at Fontainebleau. The King was so anxious to see her that he rode one day thirty-seven leagues, an exploit which was much admired. He had forbidden his mistress to take Mademoiselle de Montalais, whom he disliked, into her confidence. She had imprudently done so, and refused to tell Louis XIV. the secrets of Montalais, who helped Madame in her intrigues. Louis XIV. made such a scene with La Vallière that she ran away and took refuge in a convent near Chaillot. She was admitted with great difficulty. As soon as Louis XIV. knew of it, he ran to Chaillot, found her in tears, obtained from her a confession of the intrigues of Montalais, and sent for a coach to bring her back to the Tuileries. The hour of La Vallière's final retreat had not yet struck, but her flight shows in what direction her thoughts were already moving.

The favor shown her made her great enemies, though she was not ambitious, and we read in the History of Madame Henriette that "if she did not profit by the advantages and the credit assured by such a great passion as the King's, it was because she had little *esprit*." A favorite was considered at that time a political power, but La Vallière never wielded such a power. Among her most bitter enemies was the Countess de Soissons, Olympe Mancini, one of the nieces of Mazarin; with

the help of the Marquis de Vardes and of the Duke de Guiche, she advised Maria Theresa by an anonymous letter of the King's relations with La Vallière. The letter fell into the hands of the King (as it was supposed to come from Spain), and the Queen did not see it. During this incident, Bossuet was preaching before the King. "Louis," says M. Lair, "admired the genius of Bossuet, and paid great compliments to the orator; but of his apostolic counsels he made two parts: as a man, he showed great indulgence to himself; as a prince, he showed himself severe towards others. Guiche and Montalais, who were decidedly mixed up in too many intrigues, were exiled."

M. Lair follows La Vallière from month to month in her new life. She had to leave the court when she became a mother, and she spent the time of her retreat in a house near the Palais-Royal, which the King gave her. The first-born of Louis XIV. and of the favorite saw the light on the 24th of December, 1663. A new life was beginning for her. She was recognized as favorite only at the end of 1664; this gave her a sort of official position, and allowed her to take her place again in the rooms of the Queen-Mother and of the Queen. In 1665 she had another child, a boy. At the time of the death of Anne of Austria, the passion of Louis XIV. was already coming to an end; the rising star was Françoise de Montespan, who belonged to the illustrious family of the Rochechouarts, and was a great wit as well as a great beauty. M. Lair enters into the most minute details on the subject of the efforts made by Madame de Montespan to conquer the King. She did not hesitate to ask for the help of the infamous Voisin against La Vallière. M. Funck-Brentano told us not long ago the whole story of the trial, which bears the name of "the trial of the prisons." M. Lair, a most conscientious writer, has a full chapter on the same subject: "All," he says, "that follows is part of a long and minute judicial inquest, made by a man of rare honesty and penetration. Later, the royal authority attempted to annihilate the traces of these odious superstitions; but the truth has come to us. It is certain now that many ladies asked the woman Voisin for means to obtain the favor of the King."

Madame de Montespan had no need of the horrible incantations of the Voisin, of the abominable "black mass" which was celebrated over her by an infamous priest; it was enough that Louis XIV. had become tired of La Vallière—she had ceased to amuse him. Of the two children that he had had by her, only one lived, a little boy. She had another child, which was born at Vincennes, a girl, at the time when the term of her favor was already marked.

I have no space to linger over the last moments which La Vallière spent at the court; it is well known that she left it for a Carmelite convent, and it is chiefly on account of her conversion that she has taken a special place among the favorites of Louis XIV. The legend will have it that she loved the King for himself, and has invested her with a sort of romantic halo. M. Lair's book, so valuable for its details and *précis-documents*, does not, in my opinion, give a special preëminence to Mademoiselle de la Vallière. She was an ordinary person, with ordinary feelings; and "after all," as the Grande Mademoiselle said, "she was not the first person to be converted."

Correspondence.

ECONOMIC ADMINISTRATION IN CUBA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article of March 5, dealing with the Cuban financial situation, seems to me very misleading and unjust to Gen. Wood's administration in at least one important particular. Without other information, the reader would, I think, gather from your article that the different results attained under the three régimes to which you allude were due entirely to ability in the administration of affairs. You say that the surplus under the Palma administration was "attained on the basis of practically the same revenue and *without curtailing the public service*" (italics are mine). I have not at hand the data to enable me to call in question your statement as to revenue. I have, however, before me, in the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science (March, 1903), Gen. Wood's paper on the military government of Cuba. Every one interested in the Cuban situation should read the paper referred to, and no one who reads it will, I am sure, accept the plain inference of your article that the demands upon the Wood and Palma administrations were substantially the same.

The work done by Gen. Wood in Cuba, in creating a government, in establishing sound sanitary conditions, courts, public schools, proper prisons, and, in fact, nearly everything that constitutes a civilized government, not only out of chaos, but under most unfavorable circumstances and environment, was the work of a genius, and of one who had his whole heart and soul in the enterprise. The stamping out of yellow fever alone is worth to the island twenty surpluses, and it is impossible to compare the cost of such work of construction with that of conducting the government after being organized and put into going order.—Yours very truly,

Max Levy.

Germantown, Pa., March 8, 1903.

[We did not question the value of the services rendered by Gen. Wood; but we think that those who know most about the details of his administration are agreed that it was extravagant. His last budget (we take the figures from the new Cuban journal of finance, *El Economista*) showed receipts of $18,791,473, and expenditures of $19,514,603. The corresponding figures for President Palma's first year are $17,548,924 and $15,389,901. This great saving in outlay has been effected, says the *Economista*, "notwithstanding the new services created, the increase in the rural guard, and certain extra expenditures."—Ed. Nation.]

SELF-SUPPORT IN SOUTHERN COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is a general belief that Southern students rarely, if ever, make the money they spend on their education. I have collected information which, summarized here, will show that there is a fair percentage of students in the South who make part or all of the money required for their collegiate expenses.

The collegiate authorities do all in their power to aid the needy student. In agricultural and mechanical colleges almost all the hired labor is performed by students, who receive from eight to twenty cents for an hour's work. They do various kinds of work about the shop, run the engines and dynamos, fire the furnaces, sweep the floors, and clean the machinery. On the college farm they milk the cows and aid in the work generally. Students carry the mail of the university, clerk in the book store, ring the bell for the hours of recitation, assist in running the press.

A student's first thought, when left to his own resources for a way to earn money, is an agency. The most common agencies are for wood, coal, books, clothing, shoes, laundry, and insurance. Occasionally a student opens a barber shop on the campus, or runs a pressing club. Some students are janitors of the literary societies, of the dormitories (as in the University of Arkansas), and of churches. Others saw wood, garden, work around the yards and stables of families in the town. Waiting at the table is confined to student bodies, to the mess-halls; but student waiters are to be found in some institutions in almost every Southern State. Last year twenty-five waited on the table at the University of North Carolina. Not a few manage messing clubs, or even do their own cooking. Students get work in town as bookkeepers, typewriters, or collectors.

During the summer months many students work on farms, teach schools, fill positions of surveyors, telegraph operators, clerks in stores and hotels, reporters, conductors on railroads. Many are agents for books, pictures, stereoscopic views, or fruit trees.

Of 804 students at the University of Texas, 268 made the money they were spending on their education, and 154 contributed to their support while students. At South Carolina College one man in seven makes a part or all of his collegiate expenses, which is about the average.

Edwin L. Green.

South Carolina College, March 11, 1903.

LYNCH'S CREEK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article on "Lynch Law," in No. 1953 of the *Nation*, there occurs on page 441 this sentence: "It has been asserted that lynch law derived its name from Lynch's Creek, S. C., because at that place the practice of lynching began. This derivation of the term has yet to be proved," etc.

An example of the use of the word in connection with this creek, and of the wide range of meanings which it could have, is found in a journal kept by the Rev. William H. Wills, a Methodist minister of North Carolina, who travelled in his sulky from Tarboro, N. C., to Alabama, in the early summer of 1837. After describing a narrow escape from drowning in an at-

tempt to cross Lynch's Creek while it was swollen, he says:

"Probably I shall never forget Lynches Creek; for it had well nigh Lynch[d] me."

This journal is now appearing serially in the Publications of the Southern History Association, and the sentence in question is on page 479 of volume vi. (November, 1902).

GEORGE S. WILLS.

WESTMINSTER, MD., March 9, 1903.

DR. GARNETT AND CERTAIN SOCIETIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. Richard Garnett, former Keeper of the Books at the British Museum, has sent me a letter, of which the enclosed is a copy, and asks me to send it to one or more literary journals or newspapers to be published. Dr. Garnett says that he has been pestered a great deal of late, and desires to prevent, if possible, the indiscriminate and unauthorized use of his name as sponsor for various questionable commercial enterprises. He therefore desires that general publicity be given to this denial of his affiliation with the two concerns he mentions.—Yours very truly,

D. D. HARPER, Treasurer.

BOSTON, March 12, 1903.

SIR: Understanding that my name has been widely advertised in connection with an "International Bibliophile Society" at New York, I feel compelled to disclaim all knowledge of this society, except as concerns the circumstance referred to. The only Bibliophile Society in the United States of which I have any cognizance is the Bibliophile Society of Boston, with which I esteem it an honor to have had relations. I further beg leave to disclaim all connection with a so-called "Anthologists' Society," which appears to have made use of my name in a manner entirely unauthorized by me.

I remain, sir, your faithful servant,

R. GARNETT.

HAMPSTEAD, ENGLAND, February 20, 1903.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My attention has been called to a brief review, in a recent number of the *Nation*, of the Physical Papers of the late Professor Rowland, and, as Secretary of the committee in charge of the publication of these papers, I think it necessary to call your attention to certain misstatements in the article referred to.

In the first place, the reviewer says that the reprints of some of the experimental works are "too much abridged to answer all the purposes of the critical student." As a matter of fact, every published paper dealing with Rowland's experimental work, either from the point of view of theory or results, is reprinted in full in this volume, with the exception of the figures in the *Tables* of Wave Lengths, copies of which Tables, however, accompany each volume. Not one word is omitted. The description of the methods by which these Tables are obtained is published in the volume. It may be that the reviewer is under the impression that the extracts from certain French scientific papers in regard to Professor Rowland's last determination of the Ohm are abstracts of published articles, whereas, in reality, Professor Rowland never published any description of the methods or results of this research.

In the second place, the reviewer refers to "some public addresses and other writings," thus implying, possibly, that there were other similar writings which were not included in the volume. In reality, *all* Professor Rowland's "addresses and other writings" are reprinted.

In the third place, those papers on purely mathematical subjects which are omitted from the volume, four in number, are in no case those which "most stirred Physical thought and upon which his place among those American physicists who since Rumford have influenced fundamental conceptions (if any such there be) must mostly depend." If the reviewer will look for one moment at the lists of the papers omitted, or, better still, if he will read the papers, he will see for himself why they were omitted. It should be noted, moreover, that every paper, mathematical or not, dealing with the fundamental conceptions of Physics, which Professor Rowland published, is, without exception, reprinted in this volume. Opinions may differ in the years to come as to the relative value of Rowland's contributions to science, but there can be no doubt that his thoughts and his experimental investigations in regard to the properties of heat, light, and electricity will always be of permanent value. Every paper published by Professor Rowland bearing in the remotest degree upon the above subjects is included in this volume.

It is a matter of regret that to any one the character of the publication of this volume should seem to have taken a "cheapish" form. It was the effort of the committee to give the volume such a character in respect to paper, type, illustrations, and binding that it would in every way be a fit memorial of their late colleague. As a matter of fact, the volume in its external appearance compares most favorably with the publications of the collected works of Lord Rayleigh, of Hopkinson, of Reynolds, and others which have recently appeared.

It is a pity that the reviewer did not see fit to call attention to certain features of the volume which will make it always useful to all students of physics—such as the publication of many papers which had been entirely lost sight of, and the detailed description of Rowland's wonderful ruling engine, the mechanism of which is here for the first time explained in print.

I am, sir, very truly yours.

J. S. AMES.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, March 7, 1903.

[We have received from our contributor the following statement concerning this matter.—ED. NATION.]

"Professor Ames's letter convicts me of a grievous mistake of a complex nature. I received a copy of the volume with the request for a note upon it, and very unwisely accepted the commission when it was not in my power to make a sufficiently careful examination of it. The copy sent me was not accompanied by the wave-length determinations for which the name of Rowland is now uppermost; and two misapprehensions of mine, due to my well knowing his insistence on the publication of all details of experimentation, led me to think that these had been omitted in other cases. I had read Rowland's first mathematical memoir, which seemed to me to contain a striking enlargement of conceptions of electricity, and to place him in a higher rank of science than his experimental work. I was aware that there was some controversy in regard to its soundness; but there have been before mathematical works which proved upon examination to be unsound, yet which incontestably advanced human thought in no small measure. If it be true that Rowland's mathematical work is a total wreck and must be consigned to oblivion, I shall be very sorry as an American and as an admirer of the glories of the Johns Hopkins University. No doubt, Rowland will still remain a physicist of very high importance.

"As to the description of the famous ruling machine, I assumed that this gave the working drawings with explanation. If I had looked more carefully at them, I should have seen that this was not their character. It appears that they are new drawings, executed to scale for the purpose of this publication; and this sufficiently evidences the care that has been bestowed upon it. My epithet 'cheapish' marked my general dissatisfaction; but, with Professor Ames's explanation, it reduces itself to an expression of taste merely."

Notes.

Under the general editorship of Harry Roberts, a series of illustrated handbooks dealing practically with country life, and suitable for pocket or knapsack, will be published by John Lane, beginning with 'The Tramp's Handbook.' The same firm will issue 'New Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle,' edited by Sir James Crichten Browne.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will shortly issue 'How to Build and Furnish a Home,' by William L. Price and W. M. Johnson.

'The Gate Beautiful: Being Principles and Methods in Vital Art Education,' by Prof. John Ward Stimson, is announced by Albert Brandt, Trenton, N. J.

William E. D. Scott, Curator of Ornithology of Princeton University, tells of his "laboratory" of live birds in 'The Story of a Bird Lover,' to be published directly by the *Outlook* Co., together with a volume of 'British Portraits,' by Justin McCarthy.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, will bring out this spring, in addition to a long line of fiction, a one-volume edition of the revised Nuttall's 'Popular Handbook of the Birds of the United States and Canada,' and 'Kennel Diseases,' by "Ashmont" (J. Frank Perry, M.D.).

'Civil War Times,' by Daniel Wait Howe (Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.), consists mainly of the story of the author's experiences as captain of the Seventy-ninth Indiana Infantry, with a preliminary view of a three months' service as private in the West Virginia campaigns about Philippi. As a background for the operations of the regiment in the battles of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Georgia in 1862-3-4, some discussions are given of the notable leaders who passed across the stage, in rapid procession, in command of the armies of the Middle West; discussions which are judicious and temperate, and which aid in presenting to the reader who may not be familiar with more elaborate war histories, a measurably clear and just picture of the methods and faults of the powers at Washington and in the field, which protracted the war and cruelly wasted the national resources and enthusiasm. Some interesting columns of comparative statistics, compiled largely from the volumes of Cols. Fox and Livermore, constitute a chapter of the volume which may be studied with profit.

'The History of the First Tennessee Cav-

alry,' by W. R. Carter (Knoxville), is written in the customary style, popular and eulogistic, of the great throng of regimental memorials issued since the close of the civil war, which have helped to throw valuable light upon the spirit of the "uprising of the American people" and the rapid adaptation of men who, for the most part, were of a purely industrial and mercantile temper, to the exigencies of war. The people of East Tennessee, however, like most Southerners, did not find it hard to fit themselves to be soldiers, and, according to this historian, showed the extraordinary record of more than thirty-five thousand enlistments in the Union service out of a population, in 1861, of forty-five thousand adult males; to which should be added the volunteers for the Confederate army, leaving at home scarcely an able-bodied man. This regiment was raised by Robert Johnson, a son of President (then Senator) Andrew Johnson, who soon surrendered his leadership to James P. Brownlow, a son of the then famous "Parson" Brownlow, of perfervid Southern rhetoric in his newspaper, which bore a distinguished part at the outset of the war in keeping his mountain country loyal to the Union. Much of the regiment's activity was on its own native soil, first under Morgan in seizing Cumberland Gap at a time when small victories fired the national heart, and later under Burnside in resisting Longstreet. It was also an honorable participant in the campaigns of middle Tennessee and Georgia, including Stone River, Chickamauga, the Atlanta campaign, and the destruction of Hood's army at Nashville.

'A Virginia Girl in the Civil War' (D. Appleton & Co.), edited by Myrta Lockett Avary, consists of some dramatic experiences of the girlish wife of a Confederate cavalry officer, mostly in and around Richmond. The story has many characteristic Southern superlatives, and here and there it would appear that accuracy had not been permitted to spoil a good story or an effective situation. But, altogether, the volume is a readable contribution to war history, and, moreover, is in an entirely "reconstructed" temper. This wife at seventeen years was compelled, from the outset of her married life, to share the terrors of war alike in the active participation of her husband in the campaigns of the Army of Virginia and in her own residence in the midst of siege and hospital. Her home at Petersburg received some of the first bolts of the besieging cannonade of 1864, and, with her non-combatant neighbors, she fled from house to house out of gunshot until driven to Richmond. Several times she visited her husband at the front and helped keep up the amenities of civilization, in winter quarters, for a group of cavalry generals, among them Stuart and W. H. F. Lee. She ran the blockade as far as Baltimore by crossing the river at Berlin on the Potomac, and returned after sundry hair-breadth escapes, in which gallant and kind-hearted Union officers, upon whom she lavishes praise, helped to smooth the difficulties; and the additional supplies thus smuggled into the poverty-stricken Confederacy were not of the sort to accuse these soft-hearted helpers of undue assistance in supplying the enemy, for the most valuable of her Northern purchases was a uniform for her ragged husband, which she and her companion had had made up into petticoats.

A new, enlarged, and (probably) final edition of Conan Doyle's 'The Great Boer War' (McClure, Phillips & Co.) adds eight chapters to the narrative which was reviewed in these columns two years ago. The size of the page and of the maps has been increased, and the details of the guerilla operations which followed the escape of President Kruger to Europe and the return to England of Lord Roberts in the autumn of 1900, have been described with as much of the spirit of the earlier history as can be put into an account of operations so fragmentary and so hopeless of changing the result as were the guerilla actions of the next year. Our former favorable estimate of the book is confirmed in the light of the many volumes which have been printed upon these campaigns before and since this work. It always endeavors to be fair, its criticisms are well put, its proportioning of praise and blame to both antagonists is as judicial as could be expected from the inevitable bias of an author who is speaking for his countrymen, and it derives a vigorous and picturesque style from the well-known literary art of the novelist.

The first of two volumes of the correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island, 1723-1775, published by the National Society of the Colonial Dames of America in the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, edited by Gertrude Selwyn Kimball, has appeared from the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The material is taken principally from manuscripts in the Rhode Island archives; a few of the originals are in the John Carter Brown Library, and a few in the Rhode Island Historical Society Library. With rare exceptions, the letters (both to and from the Governors, together with enclosed documents) are now published for the first time. The spelling and punctuation of the originals have been followed. The first volume of 434 pages, which brings the correspondence down to 1746, contains some 250 letters and documents. About one-half of them deal wholly or mainly with military matters; about fifty with boundary disputes; about forty with currency legislation; about twenty with the Sugar Act and the customs. Other matters touched on are the negative, salary, elections, manufactures, the Draper outrage, colonial laws, impressment, and the Albany conference of 1744. The arrangement is chronological. The notes, which are comparatively few and to the point, together with the introduction of forty pages, give precisely the sort of supplementary aid one would most wish to have. Five illustrations accompany the text. The work was worth doing, and has been well done. It is to be hoped that the concluding volume will contain a careful topical index.

'Side-Lights on the Georgian Period,' by George Paston (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a collection of magazine articles that have previously appeared in the *Monthly Review*. The first, "A Burney Friendship," contains some hitherto unpublished letters of Fanny Burney's written before and after her marriage—letters that show her in no very amiable light. "London through French Eyeglasses" is an account of the experiences of a French tourist in the London of the middle of the 18th century. In his description of the gaming clubs, M. Grosley writes: "A Minister of State had recently passed twenty-four hours at a gaming-table, so absorbed in play that during the whole time he took no sustenance, except a bit of beef between two slices of toasted bread. This dish grew highly in vogue during my stay in London; it was called by the name of the Minister who invented it." Thus may one date the appearance of the sandwich. "An American in England" is a series of extracts from George Ticknor's account of his English experiences, and contains nothing that is new to his readers on this side of the Atlantic. In the article on "The Ideal Woman," Sydney Smith's saying is quoted that no woman would desert her infant for a quadratic section. There is no such thing as a quadratic section, so it would indeed be unlikely. For "section" read "equation" (p. 97). A less important slip is the spelling of Jack Sheppard's name on page 115, where it is given as "Shepherd." The book as a whole is hardly worth its excellent get-up. Written for a magazine, the articles have the magazine stamp, and might have remained in the seclusion of back numbers.

Sudermann's "Es lebe das Leben," which Mrs. Campbell has made familiar to our theatre audiences under the name of "The Joy of Living," has been brought out, under the same title, in a remarkably good translation by Edith Wharton (Scribners). The cleverness of construction, the raciness of dialogue, the up-to-dateness of thought, which distinguish this latest production of Sudermann's, come out perhaps more strongly still in its book form than on the stage; and so do its utter artificiality and lack of genuine feeling.

There is something pathetic in the earnestness displayed by Judge Max Eberhardt of Chicago in the attempt to maintain German sentiment, if not sentimentality, in the midst of practical, hustling American life. His 'Gedichte' (Chicago: Koelling & Klappenbach) reveal a kindly, sincere, high-minded type of character. From the point of view of technique, they are clearly amateurish.

Of the great Colonial Atlas, published by the German Government and edited by Paul Sprigarde and Max Moisel, the first number, on the Cameroons, appeared a year ago, and a second part has now been sent out covering all the German possessions in the Pacific Ocean and in China. This part contains six sheets, two covering German Guinea, on the scale of 1:2,000,000, and the others the remaining German territory on the scale of 1:3,000,000. The mechanical work has been done by the Reimer Chartographic Institute, in a model manner. The progress in our knowledge of these lands can best be seen by a comparison of the new charts with the Langhans Colonial Atlas. The third and concluding part of the Atlas is promised for the coming spring. The price of each part is only 3 marks.

The latest part issued of the 'Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ' is the ninth. It is announced that this great work has 1600 subscribers, scattered over the whole civilized world. It is appearing somewhat more slowly than was expected, but both its contents and form reflect honor on the sponsors of the undertaking, the German and the Vienna Academies of Sciences, and on its editor, Professor Vollmer of Munich, as also on the Teubner publication house. Of

the first volume, which is to contain the letter A down to *an* (exclusive), 1,184 columns of 84 lines each have been printed, bringing it down to the unfinished article *affectuosus*. Of the second volume, beginning with *an*, 960 columns have appeared, closing at present with *asstringo*. The preposition *ad* extends from column 472 to 559, and will probably yet be surpassed by the article *in*.

On January 23 the Munich *Fliegende Blätter*, founded in 1843 by Kaspar Braun and Friedrich Schneider, and still published by their heirs, issued its three-thousandth number. This weekly journal not only is an exceedingly original organ of wit and humor, but also has a certain historical character, inasmuch as it affords an interesting survey of the evolution of the arts of design in Germany, and especially in Bavaria, during the last sixty years. With it are associated for more than two generations the names of celebrated painters, from Moritz von Schwind and Karl Spitzweg to E. Harburger, H. Stockmann, and Franz Simm, all three of whom furnish capital drawings for the festive number. Not less illustrious are the poets who have contributed to the text, and of whom we may mention Emanuel Geibel, Karl Stieler, Friedrich Bodenstedt, Wilhelm Hertz, Rosegger, Martin Greif, and Hermann Ling. It is no wonder that from such artistic and literary sources the stream should always flow fresh and full in the columns of the *Fliegende Blätter*, and its contents be distinguished for their charm and endless variety.

The nearly six hundred pages of the sixth volume of the Publications of the Mississippi Historical Society (Oxford, Miss.) testify to the new activity of this organization. The principal article in point of bulk is that on Suffrage and Reconstruction in the State, by the Hon. Frank Johnston, who fills one hundred pages. Next in measure comes the first annual report of the Director of Archives and History. It includes the nominations by popular vote of candidates for the Hall of Fame with which the new State Capitol is to be provided for portraits and statuary. As was to be expected, Jefferson Davis (14,452) leads the list, followed, however, closely by L. Q. C. Lamar, and two others whose admirers exceeded 14,000. Next after these (13,008) ranges S. S. Prentiss, which is a little surprising, and near him "Hangman" Foote. There is a decided slump with William Barksdale, Albert G. Brown; the Mexican war hero, Quitman; Robert J. Walker, etc. Portraits of many of these are in readiness for the hall, as well as of some not remembered by the voters.

The "John Brown letters" are continued in the January number of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, and scarcely rise above the level of what has previously been published. There is much good anti-slavery sentiment printed for the first time and "exclusively" in a once slave State. Some of it is naturally endorsed "Improper." The lists of Brown's associates "as furnished me [Andrew Hunter] by Brown and Stephens" is defective; again naturally, in view of those who had escaped. A United States Marshal in Cleveland expresses his fear lest Brown's praise of his jailer's humanity cover a design of jail-breaking. Those in charge of the Harper's Ferry prisoners should be "proof against flattery and as true as steel." There is a facsimile of two autographs by an early Governor of Virginia, Sir George Yeardley, accompanying some particulars about him and transcripts of letters among the Ferrar Papers at Magdalene College, Cambridge. A searching review of Curtis's 'True Thomas Jefferson' concludes the issue.

For the same number, Mr. Edward Wilson James transcribes a list of slave owners in Westmoreland County, Va., in 1782, showing an average of about eleven slaves to each owner. "S. indicates slaves, and W. wheels of vehicles," reads the legend. In his own periodical, the *Lower Norfolk County (Va.) Antiquary*, Mr. James has a similar list for Princess Anne County in 1780, in which slaves and riding chairs are conjoined, the average number of slaves being four; another for 1860, when the average was about seven, but the record is mutilated. As late as 1859 there was a census of watches, which seem to have been mysteriously abundant.

The Canadian Boundary is the timely subject of the opening article, by Mr. John W. Foster, in the March number of the *National Geographic Magazine*. It is a brief historical review of the three courses of action, treaty adjustment, joint and equal commissions, and arbitration, by which the line has been adjusted and marked. From this it appears that "we have suffered less, in loss of territory claimed, by the action of joint commissions and by arbitration than by treaty settlement." Other articles are on the mountains of Unimak Island, Alaska, and on the development of Alaskan transportation facilities, both of which are illustrated. In view of the fact that the extension of a quarry in Genoa, Italy, necessitates the removal from his grave of the body of James Smithson, the eminently fitting suggestion is made that a permanent resting-place for his remains should be provided in the grounds of the Institution which he founded.

The progress of India under English rule is indicated by a report on its railways by our Consul-General at Calcutta, published in Consular Reports for February. There are now in operation about 26,000 miles of roads, and the revenue from them in 1901 amounted in round numbers to one hundred million dollars. As there was a surplus over running expenses of more than three million dollars, they may now be regarded as having ceased to be a burden to the state. Our consul at Harput tells of the introduction of a reaper in his district by a graduate of an American agricultural college, and the opposition which it caused among the laboring population. "His garden of American vegetables was destroyed, his fruit trees were cut down, shots were fired at his house during the night time, and his workmen were induced to desert him. In spite of all these discouragements, the experiment was pluckily continued to the close of the season. Another year will see the more widespread use of the reaper and the introduction of the thrashing machine." The German briquette industry is described by Consul-General Mason in an illustrated report, in which he states that a "Syndicate of Briquette Machinery Manufacturers" has been formed "to meet promptly and efficiently the American demand for machinery and working methods."

After repeated and vexatious delays, caused largely by a learned squabble among Italian historians, the great International Historical Congress has been called to meet in Easter week in Rome. The Government announces that for the period of two months, between March 1 and May 1, the members of the Congress, by merely presenting their membership cards, will be permitted to work at pleasure in any of the Italian state archives and libraries. King Victor Emmanuel has accepted the position of Honorary President of the Congress.

It has been practically decided that the great International Archæological Congress, which had been called to meet in Athens some time during the present year, will be postponed for at least twelve months. The Greek Archæological Society, which has the whole matter in charge, has come to the conclusion that the preparations for the convention will require more time, as these include such important undertakings as the restoration of the temple at Phigalia, of the Lion of Chæronea, of the Erechtheum, as also the renovation of the temple district of the Olympian Jupiter in Athens, and the completion of the diggings begun in Samos and several other localities. Some of these projects may consume even two years, and the president-elect of the Congress, Crown Prince Constantine, is to decide upon the exact date of the meeting.

—Quite the most significant paper in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March is that of Professor Hollis on Football. We shall say little more of it than that its weight comes from his moderation in censure; but we ask any reader of it to sum up the items of his "when all is said against football," and ask whether it is offset by his "much in its favor." Are not the moral evils as he presents them—"just enough of the prize fight in it to lay it open to suspicion," "the absence of chivalrous conduct," "it is customary to weaken an opponent by bruises or otherwise," dishonest selection of teams—visible and ponderable, while the teaching of "some of the manly virtues admirably," and exercising a moral restraint against drifting into dissipation, are in comparison imponderable? So they must seem to any one who takes into account also the gambling on the issue of the game, the usual rowdyism of the victors, the excesses encouraged by great crowds of youth being transported to strange cities beyond surveillance. Moreover, the evils acknowledged by Professor Hollis are sustained by a corrupt public opinion in the student body and are contagious—the public opinion, to speak plainly, of the mob of men of unformed principle. The dissipation of non-athletic days had, no doubt, its victims by contagion, but it never was condoned by the moral sentiment of the good; it never became respectable, or the thing. If, then, there has been an actual lowering of tone in the college world, can it be that the manly virtues have been strengthened in the mass? Some light is thrown on this inquiry by the discussion of "Seminars" in the same number of the magazine.

—Two volumes of the Ecclesiastical Records of the State of New York (pp. 1,442) have been published by the State at Albany, reproducing in English what has generally been known as "The Amsterdam Correspondence," from 1621 to 1701. They

comprise letters from clergymen and other Dutch gentlemen, and various persons in New Netherland, who wrote back to the old country concerning things ecclesiastical, political, economic, and social in the New World. The translations are printed in chronological order, with notes and explanations by the Rev. E. T. Corwin, D.D., the historian of the Reformed Church in America, with additions and comments by Mr. Hugh Hastings, State Historian. The existence and value of these documents have long been known to students of the Dutch origin of American history, but it is only within the past decade, through the liberality of some gentlemen in New York, that Dr. Corwin was sent to Holland, spending many months there in making critical examination and collation, and securing transcripts. The translation had been largely made by the late Dr. Daniel Van Pelt, whose lamented death by drowning was a sad loss to American scholarship in Dutch, in knowledge of which language most of our historiographers are disgracefully deficient. It is now being continued under Dr. Corwin's supervision by the Rev. Henry Utterwick.

—It is difficult to realize the great work done by the Classis of Amsterdam in the settling of the Middle States with industrious and intelligent people of good moral character. This association of ministers of the Reformed Church in the Netherlands had charge not only of the cosmopolitan community that had gathered in the Dutch republic, where conscience was free, and thence emigrated, but also over nearly all colonists from the Continent to America. Coming down the rivers Maas and Rhine from the heart of Europe, they took ship at Rotterdam or Amsterdam, and had often to be assisted with money, food, and clothing. Until early in the past century, both the Germans and the Dutch of the Reformed Communion in America were under the direction of the Classis of Amsterdam. Thus, in the present publication and the two volumes to come, we have records of general public interest. One who reads these documents (especially if he ignores the annotation and comment of twentieth-century Americans) with knowledge of the background of Dutch history out of which they grew, gets an idea of New Netherland curiously different from either the Washington-Irving sort, or the after-dinner speeches at the Holland Society gatherings. One sees that, beside the rough sailors and traders from many lands gathered in a cosmopolitan seaport, the snarling and incompetent officials dressed in a little brief authority, and clergymen more anxious for orthodoxy and personal comfort than for close imitation of their Master, there was, in the valleys of the Hudson, Mohawk, and Raritan, a solid core of diligent, God-fearing, and moral people. These latter, for the most part, remained after the floating elements of the population returned to Holland on account of the English conquest of 1664. The learning and culture of the university-bred dominie are evident. Though others may make a similar claim, yet the facts seem to show that the first ordination of a Protestant clergyman in North America was that (on October 9, 1679) of the Rev. Petrus Tesschenmacker, who, in 1690, when pastor at Schenectady, was killed in the massacre by the French and Indians. The event gave rise to much correspondence, not only for political reasons, New York being then under the English Governor Andros, but because the candidate was a follower of Voet, the conservative, while the three examining ministers were of the school of Coccejus, since recognized as "the father" of biblical or modern theology. Very practical is the recommendation in 1701 that ministers living among the Indians should have, "besides other qualifications, a little skill also in physick and chirurgery." Evidences of the intense jealousy and vigilance of the Dutch clergy and people in resisting the attempted encroachments of the Anglican state church, and in maintenance of their freedom of conscience and the forms of the Reformed Church, are found on many pages. It is hard to see how any one professing to write on the early history of the Empire State can ignore these volumes.

—The sixth volume, last but one, of the Variorum Edition of the Writings of Edward FitzGerald (Doubleday, Page & Co.) contains the 'Œdipus,' the 'Bird-Parliament,' and the 'Suffolk Sea-Phrases' with related communications to *East Anglian* and *Notes and Queries*. These etymological diversions form part of the distinction of Mr. Bentham's collection, and it is a pity that he is debarred from joining with them the Letters, which are "now and again" (to use a Suffolk phrase) illuminated by similar glosses. The same humor vivifies both. Here is the chapter on "*Complain:* A ship or boat begins to *complain* when her nails, seams, or timbers begin to give way. Almost as good a phrase," adds FitzGerald with a wink, "as 'beginning to show symptoms of deterioration,' etc." And again: "*Burn:* 'How the sea burn!' what you now hear children talk of as 'being in a state of phosphorescence.' Which is best?" Of "*Poker Beer:* Beer heated with a red-hot poker; about a pint to a poker, I am told. There are worse things, and, as Lamb said, better." Here one comes upon another definition of *smell the ground*, so often recurring in the Letters of FitzGerald's later years. And here is his "Michael-Angelo-made fellow," "Posh," who ranks in the Letters beside Thackeray and Tennyson for greatness, but who had a seaman's distrust of hoofed animals, assuring his partner in the lugger *Meum and Tuum* that "he didn't mind a cow, but 'wasn't by no means *wrapt up* in a bullock.'" As in previous volumes, we have MS. interlineations and corrections upon the printed copy; for instance, on page 9, where, by the way—and hardly by the way in such beautiful letterpress—would not FitzGerald with some impatience have applied his pencil to this mammocking of his preface to the 'Œdipus' in line two—"banishment will be sufficient accomplished by the Oracle" (read, "accomplishment of")?

—The first two volumes of the handsome reunion of Mr. Aldis Wright's several editions of Edward FitzGerald's Writings (Macmillan) were ornamented with portraits of the author. Towards the close of the second volume, the letters to Fanny Kemble began to make their appearance, and the third volume appropriately has her portrait for frontispiece, after Sully's painting. We again get nothing but the Letters in the text, in that period when failing eyesight and other symptoms of the end still considerably deferred led the recluse to put his literary house in order, look over his old letters, and place in good hands such as had historic value—doubtless also to destroy much. His literary executor in his turn had to spare the feelings of the living, and many blanks reveal Mr. Wright's forbearance in this regard. Occasionally they may denote simple repetition which was not worth while; but then, again, repetition abounds in the treatment of the same topic for different correspondents, and such is the variety of angle thus afforded that the visual effect is truly stereoscopic. Herein is revealed the immense gain of the chronological order. We could wish that the editor had been willing to bestow a little more pains in reordering the footnotes. That on page 40 was to be looked for on page 38; that about Carlyle's niece on page 193 on page 191; so, that about Pasta on page 130 comes late. This care was merited by a body of letters which must ever rank among the highest. Always chary in his praise of female genius, FitzGerald singles out Mrs. Trench's letters as excellent—"so far as I can see and judge, next best to Walpole and Cowper in our Language." And it is noticeable what delight he took at the last in Mme. de Sévigné's, read between Scott and Cervantes.

—Prof. Chauvin's treatment of the 'Arabian Nights,' in his 'Bibliographie des Ouvrages Arabes,' is extending beyond ordinary bibliographical limits, and is becoming a thesaurus of folk-lore of primary importance. The first part, previously noticed, contains the strict bibliographical element; the second and third parts contain résumés, often very full, of the tales embodied in the different recensions—MSS., original texts, translations—or in the companion and related collections. At least another part will be needed to complete the work. The résumés are arranged in the alphabetical order of some leading word in the title; each is preceded by a statement of the MSS. in which the tale occurs, of the printed texts, of the translations, and of the parallel tales existing elsewhere and not borrowed from the 'Nights.' After each comes a bibliography—wonderfully full—of references to that tale, literary use of it in Europe, and, above all, to its place in folk-lore. This last is, perhaps, the outstanding feature of the book, and is especially rich on the Oriental side. The width and accuracy of Prof. Chauvin's reading cannot be too highly praised; he is doing more towards the elucidation of the 'Nights' than any one since Zotenberg's epoch-marking book.

—The following corrections and additions suggest themselves: In Part ii., page 67, the relation of "Aladdin" to the German *Volksbuch*, "Das Schloss in der Höhle Xa Xa," should be examined more carefully; it is very close, by no means *éloigné*, and suggests that the story reached Germany through Italy. Page 201, Prof. Chauvin apparently has not noticed that the story of the third Calender is complete in the Calcutta text; we are not thrown back upon Galland for it. Page 220 ("The Money-changer of Baghdad"), there should have been a reference to the article on Ibn al-Ahnaf and his fortunate verses by Prof. C. C. Torrey, in the *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, volume xvi.;

it is a very significant study of the origin of a minor tale. Page 231, "Ed. Poë" will hardly suggest Edgar Allan Poe. Page 256, the story of the fate of the Queen of Serpents, and of the use made of her body, is very remarkably paralleled in J. G. Campbell's 'Superstitions of the Highlands of Scotland' (p. 224). Part iii., page 48, it is rather singular, seeing that Prof. Chauvin has made some studies in Muslim theology and jurisprudence, that he should question the extent to which tales of the Jinn were believed in the days of Harun ar-Rashid. Harun would have been an unbeliever in Islam itself if he had doubted the existence of these beings and the possibility of intercourse between them and mankind. Books of law to this day take account of their rights and duties. Page 68, story 234 touches the European legend of the ring of Venus and the midnight procession of Pluto. An Arabic parallel which Prof. Chauvin has missed is in ad-Damiri's "Hayat al-haywan" (i., pp. 185 f. of the edition of Cairo, 1313). There the great Sufi saint Abd al-Qadir al-Jilani acts as the magician, and gives to a father, whose daughter has been mysteriously carried off, a letter to the Sultan of the Jinn. The father waits for the procession from nightfall on among the mounds in the ruined part of the quarter of Baghdad called al-Karkh; at dawn the Sultan of the Jinn passes. Again J. G. Campbell, in his 'Witchcraft and Second Sight' (p. 200), gives a curious parallel from the West Highlands of Scotland with Michael Scott as magician. Page 91, on the story of the treasure of Toledo, Prof. Chauvin does not mention what is probably its most important echo in European literature, Scott's 'Vision of Don Roderick.' It is to be hoped that the final part of this bibliography will soon appear, and with it full indices and exact references to the books used. "Kunos, Turkish Tales," for example, is very blind; it appears to refer to an English form of the tales published first in Hungarian and then in German in the *Ungarische Revue*, 1888-89. So monumental a work as this deserves to be rounded to full completion.

DRUMMOND'S MARTINEAU.

The Life and Letters of James Martineau, LL.D., S.T.D., etc. By James Drummond, M.A., LL.D. And a Survey of his Philosophical Work, by C. B. Upton, B.A., B.Sc. With portraits. In two volumes. Dodd, Mead & Co.

There is little good or bad in this work of 979 pages but thinking makes it so. We mean by this that even the biographical part, which exhausts the first volume and extends far into the second, is hardly less a study of Martineau's thought than the part (vol. ii., pp. 255-483) which is devoted expressly to an analysis of his intellectual activity. Mr. Jackson's recent 'Study and Biography' of Martineau was blamed for its lack of biographical interest, and it was plain enough that he had a better gift for exhibiting Martineau's ideas than for telling the story of his life; but it is now equally plain that the fault was more in his material than in his presentation. Dr. Drummond's talent for biographical writing is not remarkable, and it is conceivable that another might have done better with the sources at his command, but he has had the same difficulty to contend with that Mr. Jackson had—the defect of Martineau's life on the side of personal interest apart from its intellectual expression. These volumes are, indeed, rich in letters where Mr. Jackson's 'Study' made no attempt to furnish any, but it must be confessed that these letters do not make us much better or more pleasantly acquainted with the man than do his various books. Even when most personal, they tend to become sermons or essays, not only in their manner, but in their length. Martineau wrote a great many letters, and there is something beautiful and touching in the conscientiousness of his discharge of his epistolary obligations; but, for letter-writing as a peculiar literary species having many excellent varieties, he had as little faculty as Tennyson, whose weakness at this point was as conspicuous as FitzGerald's strength. Long letters may be good letters, but Martineau's are not merely long: they are elaborate disquisitions, devoid of humor, ease, and playfulness, and of those unconsidered trifles which go far to make one's letters live when the writer has forever laid aside his pen. Even those written to persons in deep sorrow, to which Dr. Drummond has a noticeable gravitation, are as much too labored as they are too long. A hand-clasp in ten words would have better served his end.

Martineau's life, as presented in these pages, impresses us as never before with its intensive quality. A corresponding extensive quality he did not possess. Where he was most at home, his range was less remarkable than his penetration; the absence of Hegel from his 'Types of Ethical Theory' being a notable case in point. It is significant that in 1878, when FitzGerald's translation was a matter of twenty years' standing and several editions, Martineau writes to Dr. Furness, answering his enthusiastic commendation of Omar Khayyám, that he has no knowledge of him. The same letter proves that if he was less ignorant than Spencer of Indian philosophy, he was not less indifferent to it. "The study of it," he says, "is mere taskwork to me." These instances are typical. He might be indifferent to Indian philosophy, but his was the absorption of an Indian yogi in his favorite studies and his chosen line of philosophical and religious exposition. His affections were not literary, except as they required of him a manner of writing which was more remarkable for its brilliancy than for its luminosity, and which often has a vertiginous effect upon the reader who should be at his best to follow his teacher through those mazes where he leads the way. Because of this limitation on the literary side, we have here no wealth of allusion to all sorts and conditions of books and authors. For another lack, we are quite sure that the biographer is more to blame than Martineau himself—the lack of vital apprehension on Martineau's part of the social and political interests of his time. We are very certain that we have here defective representation, and also that the turbid stream of general theological controversy must have left more silt upon the surface of his mind than is here made apparent.

With so little to vary the even tenor of Martineau's course of life, we are in danger of making too much of the little that was episodical, and especially of the unfortunate rupture in the affectionate relations which for a long time existed between Martineau and his sister Harriet. There is loyal defence of their mother from the aspersions of a certain biographer of Harriet (Mrs. Fenwick Miller), which were much sharper than her own; and, indeed, it is out of Harriet's own mouth that her biographer is sufficiently condemned. But we cannot imagine why Dr. Drummond did not print entire Martineau's letter to the *Daily News* in 1885 touching this matter and that of the unhappy estrangement of the brother and sister. Of this estrangement we have Martineau's own account and Dr. Drummond's comment, which, wherever it touches the relations of James Martineau and Harriet, is as considerate as possible, yet not without some lack of apprehension and of representation. It is made plain that the estrangement originated in circumstances far back of Martineau's review of the Atkinson 'Letters,' in his refusal to return to Harriet letters that she had written him through the course of many years. He told her that if he "must choose between unknown future communications and the inestimable treasures of the past, his decision must be to keep what he had," etc. Dr. Drummond's appreciation of the quality of this decision, as well as Martineau's, appears to us to be greatly wanting. It was certainly a strange resolve of brotherly affection that preferred a future of non-intercourse (Harriet's terms) to the surrender of a package of old letters. As for Martineau's review of the Atkinson book, Dr Drummond's condonation of it is far more sensitive to its shortcomings than Martineau's. He calls it scathing, and says: "No impartial reader can wonder that Miss Martineau was pained." Martineau wrote, "In one sentence only is my sister mentioned." But he resembled his sister strongly in having a memory that played him tricks. (He had a vivid recollection of Theodore Parker's preaching, which he had never heard!) Dr. Drummond explains that there were four references to Harriet in the review, but the one which Martineau remembered was quite enough—a lion with the sharpest claws; and Dr. Drummond should have given it for the assistance of the judgment of the less informed. Moreover, Martineau's account of the circumstances which led to his undertaking the review was not confirmed by that of the other editors, and certainly he should not have permitted any urgency on their part to force him into the assumption of a task so manifestly ungracious and so sure to carry painful consequences in its train.

Another episode, which assumes greater prominence because of the general level of uneventfulness from which it springs, is that relating to Martineau's election to his professorship in Manchester New College in spite of violent opposition. Martineau's later prominence was so much that of a defender of certain traditional conceptions in religion against the radicalism of science, that it is rather difficult for a younger generation to appreciate the fact that, midway of the century, he was regarded by his Unitarian brethren for the most part as a very dangerous heretic. It was in this character that his election to the professorship of Manchester New College, a Unitarian theological seminary, was op-

posed. It is interesting to notice that when, much further on, he was an unsuccessful candidate for a philosophical chair in London University, the opposition came from those who had arrived at philosophical constructions more radical than his own, Grote the historian heading it; and even John Stuart Mill, who at once recognized Martineau's ability and was friendly to his person, "could not miss the opportunity of planting a disciple of his own school in a place of influence." The Archbishop of York objected that Martineau did not believe in the doctrine of the Trinity. Martineau wrote, "In this spectacle, of Mr. Mill and the Archbishop moving hand in hand, under the common guidance of a sectarian motive, there is a curious irony."

There was more curious irony in Grote's objection to Martineau as the minister of a religious sect, seeing that Martineau's endeavor to free himself from any sectarian implication was the most persistent endeavor of his life. Lessing said that he should hate truth itself if it could form a sect, and Martineau could heartily concur. It was this aspect of his life that involved him in more misunderstanding than any other, much of which cannot but appear to have been wilful blindness. Much has been said to the effect that he was not a Unitarian, as if this signified a preference for more orthodox ideas. The whole tenor of these volumes, and hundreds of special statements in the course of them, should so set this matter right that only the most stupid need ever doubt again as to his actual position. He was a Unitarian in his personal theology, but he did not believe in any doctrinal test or bond of fellowship whatever. It was not as more orthodox, but as less orthodox, than his Unitarian brethren that he objected to their creed and became to them an object of suspicion. But any creed was to him an impossible basis of religious fellowship. He was curiously sensitive to the technical meaning of the word Unitarian, and insensitive to its historical associations. It was as if his exigency here exhausted all his store, for on other lines he had little difficulty in giving an expansive meaning to old words. He did not, for example, believe that Jesus thought himself to be the Christ, yet he used the word Christ without hesitation, and, with surprising violence to his undogmatic ideal of church fellowship, wrote that he could not find any adequate church fellowship in a religious society which discarded it. For most of us the connotations of a word are so much more vital and important than its mere denotation, that it is hard for us to imagine Martineau preferring the name Presbyterian for his ideal religious organization.

But the events of Martineau's life were his sermons and his essays and his books, and to these, in their due order and progression, Dr. Drummond has attended in a careful and instructive manner, sometimes embarrassed by the consciousness that Dr. Upton is to follow up the biography with a "Survey of Dr. Martineau's Philosophical Work." If there is any defect in this noble and exhaustive presentation, it is that the emphasis rests unduly upon Martineau's writing over and above his Liverpool and London sermons. Dr. Drummond does not seem to share in the impression of R. H. Hutton that Martineau's sermons are the works by which he will be longest named and known. Not that he has for them any hesitating or doubtful commendation, but it was inevitable that the bias of his own professorship should be favorable to Martineau's philosophical preëminence. It is interesting to find Dr. Drummond frankly demurring at Martineau's ideal sermon as a lyrical expression overheard. Martineau could not conceive of the generation of the thoughts and aspirations of a true sermon except in solitude. Dr. Drummond contends that the best thoughts are often kindled by the preacher's contact with his congregation. But it is quite impossible to imagine those subtile nuances which gave to Martineau's sermons their characteristic force and beauty as produced in any mood but that of brooding solitude. The wonder is that he could publicly repeat the thoughts which visited his solemn privacy.

There are many aspects of these volumes which invite attention, but to dwell on them would make this review too long. The characterizations of different men, Carlyle, Jowett, Parker, Emerson, and so on, are clear and fine. Martineau was much troubled by Emerson's lack of continuity. Writing of Thomas Hill Green's "curious type of vague or semi-theism," he uses one of those splendid metaphors into which his thought so easily ran, and which are for some the glory of his style, for others its despair: "It is either the last faint streak of a dissolving nebula, or the first visible undulation of an ethereal medium that must condense into a central sun." Of the various groups of letters, the most interesting are those to R. H. Hutton, who transferred his theological allegiance from Martineau to Maurice; and those to Francis W. Newman, who marvels at Martineau's sympathetic appreciation of John Henry Newman's mind. No difference of opinion could be more trying to Martineau's sensibility than F. W. Newman's, with its impeachment of the moral perfection of Jesus; but the toughness of his friendship bore even this fearful strain. He recognized that he and Newman reverenced the same ideals, and differed only as to whether those ideals were or were not embodied in the character of an historic person.

The American reader whose memory goes back to the great war will regret that Martineau's correspondence falls silent on its threshold. We should have had here his letters to Dr. Furness and Dr. J. H. Allen, with their careful explanations of his lack of sympathy with the North in its great struggle, the more remarkable as he had clearly apprehended the merits of the struggle in its earlier stages. It is interesting to find Dr. Dewey, in 1844, applauding Martineau's refusal to sign the English anti-slavery address to the American Unitarians. But Dr. Dewey's applause was resented:

> "My dear Dewey, what business have you among the ranks of those who have nothing but dollars and doubts to plead against the primary claims of Nature and the Human Soul? . . . Channing began with objecting to the Abolitionists; so did Emerson; so did you. The future age will reckon all three among the most powerful agents of Emancipation—will it not?"

This seems to invite Dr. Dewey to become an Abolitionist, but in a subsequent letter Martineau writes that he never wished him to become one. Was the previous outburst a mere flourish of rhetoric? He cannot, however, see any logic in Dr. Dewey's opposition to the annexation of Texas, together with his denial of responsibility for the existence of slavery in the Southern States.

There are many expressions of Martineau's opinion touching vital matters that must be dismissed without a word. And it is impossible in this space to give any adequate idea of his theological development from a crude supernaturalism to a religion of personal conviction, or of his often disappointed, steadily renewed, endeavor to realize an organization of religion in which the freedom of the spirit should be superior to all dogmatic tests.

Dr. Upton's "Survey of Dr. Martineau's Philosophical Work" is a book by itself deserving separate treatment. To those whose interest in Martineau is mainly philosophical, it will address itself as more important than Dr. Drummond's biography. Remembering some unhandsome English criticisms of Mr. Jackson's 'Study,' it is confirmatory of our good opinion of that book that Dr. Upton frequently refers to it and quotes it in terms of high respect. Than Dr. Upton no one could be better fitted for the task which he has faithfully performed. He was first Dr. Martineau's pupil, then on his teaching staff for ten years, and for twenty years he went annually to spend two or three weeks of his vacation with Martineau in his Highland home, matching sometimes the mountain climb with a more steep ascent of speculative thought. His appreciation of Martineau's system is as perfect as this ample acquaintance with him would lead us to expect. It consists of nine chapters, the first of which deals with Martineau's early adhesion to Hartley on materialistic and necessarian lines. Many have wondered that Martineau's "Priestley," preserved in his 'Essays,' shows so little sign of his early sympathy with Priestley's opinions. Here they may learn that the early study has been changed from time to time to meet the exigencies of Martineau's changing thought, losing in this way its character as representative of Martineau's early mind. The successive chapters treat of Martineau's lectures in Manchester New College, his early reviews, his mature period of study in Germany, his 'Essays, Reviews, and Addresses,' his part in the Metaphysical Society, his 'Types of Ethical Theory,' his 'Study of Religion,' and his 'Study of Spinoza.' Under the last head we have Dr. Upton's criticism of Martineau's treatment of pantheism and determinism.

Dr. Upton's criticism of Martineau's opinions is the more interesting because he now and then parts company with him. He cannot, for instance, accept his ideas of space and matter as "data objective to God." One sometimes hears that Martineau outgrew these conceptions, but Dr. Upton does not confirm the rumor. He finds Martineau more nearly in agreement with Lotze than with any other philosopher, and he clearly indicates their approximations, and forecasts the philosophy of the near future as one that shall blend their systems in a convincing unity. There is something very inspiring in his account of Martineau's system, as there is in Dr. Drummond's story of Martineau's consecration of his life to its elaboration and defence. What it made for was the stable equilibrium of God, Matter, and Man, neith-

er swallowing up the other, in the fashion of pantheism, materialism, or idealism, and above all for the freedom of man's will in opposition to the necessarianism which at first attracted him in Hartley and Priestley, and which later not even the younger Mill's refinement of the doctrine could make satisfactory to him, any more than Sidgwick's refinement of Bentham's utilitarianism could make him a utilitarian once more. Whether his favorite conceptions stand or fall, they will never have more splendid advocacy than he brought to them for fifty earnest and impassioned years.

INORGANIC CHEMISTRY.

A Text-Book of Inorganic Chemistry. By Dr. A. F. Holleman. Rendered into English by Hermon C. Cooper, Ph.D. John Wiley's Sons. 1902. Pp. viii, 458.

The Principles of Inorganic Chemistry. By Wilhelm Ostwald. Translated by Alexander Findlay, Ph.D. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xxvii, 785.

Of the many text-books of inorganic chemistry which have appeared during the past few years, the two whose titles are above given deserve special consideration as the first serious attempts to treat the subject from the standpoint of the new theories of physical chemistry. Although Holleman's work was published in the original Dutch in 1898 and in a German translation in 1900, and Ostwald's in German in 1900, these translations, which bring them to the more immediate attention of English-reading chemists, both bear the imprint of the year just elapsed. And let us remark at the outset that the translations are on the whole very good, and have an added trustworthiness from the fact that in both cases the proof was read by the authors.

Professor Holleman's book may be briefly described as a Chemistry much after the usual type, with dissertations on theory interpolated here and there; the author's plan being to insert these chapters "in suitable places" for subsequent reference. The ten-page account of Van't Hoff's generalization and the methods for finding molecular weights from the depression of the freezing point and the elevation of the boiling point, follows the description of hydrogen peroxide (page 56), whose molecular weight cannot be determined by the vapor density method, but may be found by the depression of the freezing point of a dilute solution; the theory of electrolytic dissociation follows the study of the halogen acids; the phase rule is treated in connection with sulphur; nine pages are devoted to thermochemistry after the oxygen group is disposed of; fifteen pages following the alkali metals deal with the properties of salt solutions and the theory of indicators, while a chapter of similar length after mercury is given to the discussion of electrochemistry. Occasional applications of these theories are made in the descriptive text. The latter is concise, clear, and up to date, but for the most part dry and perfunctory, and unusually barren of illustrative experiments.

Whatever may be thought of the suitableness of the places chosen for the introduction of the chapters on theory, and it is certainly open to criticism, we do not believe that Professor Holleman's scheme is to the advantage of the student. These theoretical discussions, which in themselves form a fair outline of the modern views, are taken up before the necessity for them is likely to be felt or their bearing adequately appreciated; and in the pages on thermodynamics as applied to chemistry, if nowhere else, the treatment is too advanced for the average first-year student in chemistry. In the hands of a judicious teacher, however, who uses the book as an outline of facts and for reference rather than as a text-book, it may do good service.

The method which Professor Ostwald has chosen for the solution of the difficulties attending the introduction of theory into general inorganic chemistry is a very different one from Holleman's. A protagonist of the new physical chemistry and possessing recognized literary skill, Ostwald is eminently qualified for such an undertaking. The present work is the result of long consideration; the first sketch dating back, as he states in his preface, "double the time designated by Horace as necessary for the maturing of a literary work." He has endeavored to retain "as much as possible of the approved forms," and to incorporate the new notions and theories of scientific chemistry in such a way that the subject shall be presented wholly from the modern point of view. The book is written with the needs of the student rather than of the teacher as determinative in the treatment, and the subject is carefully developed in an orderly and logical manner. General discussions are introduced only when pertinent facts have paved the way, and as a consequence the same question is taken up repeatedly when the material displayed on its first introduction is inadequate for full treatment. For instance, osmotic pressure is not mentioned until page 657, where a brief account of Van't Hoff's generalization is given, although the empirical facts in regard to the effect of dissolved substances on vapor pressure. boiling and freezing temperatures, are stated on page 133 in connection with a discussion of water as a solvent, and the application of these facts to the determination of molecular weights is made a little further on. In no place does the discussion of theory go beyond a mere outline in simplest form, the complete and connected treatment being left for the more advanced student.

In this respect Ostwald's book is in marked contrast with Holleman's. Theoretical notions are brought forward only as the phenomena already described demand explanation, and then only in such elementary form as may serve to satisfy the necessities of the student's knowledge of that point. The method is well conceived for the stimulation and maintenance of the student's interest, and one must admire the skill with which the inherent difficulties of the plan have been overcome

The rapid and successful development of the new conceptions of physical chemistry by enthusiastic workers has done much to broaden our views of the chemical behavior of substances and to make chemistry a more exact science. But it is at least doubtful whether it is wise to confront the student with anything like complete statements and discussions of these rather difficult theories at the outset of his course, before a sufficient number of chemical facts and relations have been properly appreciated by class-room and laboratory experience. A few simple theoretical notions are pertinent and indeed indispensable almost from the start; but the time-honored practice of leaving the fuller discussion of theory until the ground has been well prepared by a year or two of study, would seem to be much the more rational plan of instruction.

Ostwald's work is always characterized by independence of tradition, and one expects to find some peculiarities of treatment and of emphasis. This volume does not disappoint the expectation. In the paragraphs on the atomic "hypothesis," stress is laid on the tentative character of this speculation: "One must be always prepared for the fact that sooner or later the reality will be different from that which the picture leads one to expect. Especially, when any other well-founded speculation leads to a variance with the atomic hypothesis, one must not on that account regard the speculation as wrong. The blame can quite well attach to the hypothesis." In spite of the fact that the hypothesis agrees entirely with experiment, and "even at the present day rules almost exclusively in chemistry," being of "great value for purposes of instruction and investigation," the author prefers, in "the interest of the science," to employ its terms "as sparingly as ever the present usage of language will permit." Accordingly, the reader finds no "atomic weights" in the book, but the familiar figures of the atomic-weight tables appear as "combining weights." To guard the student still further from the danger of entangling hypotheses, "molar weight" is substituted for "molecular weight," since the latter "is derived from certain hypothetical notions regarding the constitution of gases, notions which are not essential to the actual facts."

In contrast to this exaggerated caution in regard to such older theories, the hypothesis of electrolytic dissociation is given with no hint of the peril which may attend the student's possible confusion of "picture" and "reality." Ions and "moles" swarm in the pages from which atoms and molecules have been banished. The phenomena of catalysis receive a good deal of attention, and are "explained" by the assumption that all possible chemical reactions go on at all temperatures, though often at such extremely slow rates that they entirely escape detection, and that the catalyser is a substance which accelerates the reaction as fresh oil hastens the movement of wheel-work retarded by friction. The analogy extends to the fact that neither oil nor catalyser is used up in acting.

The work is decidedly the most interesting of recent treatises on inorganic chemistry, and everywhere stimulating and suggestive. It is worthy of remark that in neither of these two books in which theory figures so largely, is much stress laid on the periodic system. Both give an account of it—Holleman has thirteen pages in the middle of the volume, and Ostwald five pages at the end; but in neither is the system formally made the basis for the classification of the material, as is the case in some other recent text-books. Ostwald says of it: "We are here not dealing with a law of nature in the strict sense, but with a prin-

ciple of classification of not very exactly defined things. . . . We know only a certain and in part somewhat arbitrarily cut section of the great organism of chemical facts," and "must not therefore be surprised if in this chance section we cannot gain a view of the laws ruling the whole organism." And Holleman, while recognizing the importance of its discovery, goes on to say: "It is gradually becoming more evident that the system in its present form represents the relations of the elements merely in an approximate way, and is only a crude first attempt at a real system."

RECENT NOVELS.

The Little White Bird; or, Adventures in Kensington Gardens. By J. M. Barrie. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Blue Flower. By Henry Van Dyke. Charles Scribner's Sons.

John Ermine of the Yellowstone. By Frederic Remington. The Macmillan Co.

In the Garden of Charity. By Basil King. Harpers.

The Squireen. By Shan F. Bullock. McClure, Phillips & Co.

According to Mr. Barrie, Kensington Gardens after dark become an actual fairyland. From sunset to sunrise the malls and meadows and waters are alive with nixies and pixies and elfs and goblins, all abandoned to the dance, yet by no means neglecting their serious business of directing mortal destiny. Chief among them is Peter Pan, a delightful sprite, who, being half bird, half boy, is called a "Betwixt and Between." This descriptive epithet may be applied equally to the book in which Peter Pan is celebrated—it is not a real story or a fairy story, not a good book or a bad book—just a Betwixt and Between. Mr. Barrie appears to have written 'The Little White Bird' in a frenzy of baby worship, and he proves beyond any shadow of doubt that woman's passion for the baby, like her other passions, when compared with man's, is as water unto wine. The bachelor Major who directs little David's adventures in Kensington Gardens, dotes more fondly, indeed more shamelessly, than any proud and perfect mother in the land. The Major must have been drawn from Mr. Barrie's inner consciousness. He can have had no opportunity to observe such a major, whose companion warriors (though retired) would have felt it a duty and a point of honor to shoot him rather than let him expose his disordered sensibilities to a scribbling fellow in search of copy. Mr. Barrie gently derides the Major's extravagant sentimentality. Nevertheless, it is plain that he also deeply delights in it, and has no notion that he has written many pages of sad drivel. By way of compensation there are some beautiful chapters revealing the ways of fairies and their affinity with children. With these creatures of the borderland his imagination is at home, and works with rare freedom, purity, and delicacy.

Dr. Van Dyke's tales are avowedly symbolical and allegorical. His theme is the human longing for the ideally perfect, always alluring, always eluding, beautifully symbolized in the 'Blue Flower' of Novalis. Imaginative writers who powerfully stir the lethargic soul, get their effect by a transmission of sensation. Their message is interpreted through feeling more than understanding, and is most inspiring when it is least capable of clear explanation. So profound a symbolist as Maeterlinck relies for comprehension almost entirely on responsive sensation. No one can ever know and explain clearly what he means, but some can feel with great certainty. By far the greater number can neither know nor feel, therefore they jeer; which is easy but not conclusive. Dr. Van Dyke does not get the strongest effect of imaginative symbolism. His work is too cold, too merely intelligent and intelligible, to produce a passionate sensation or haunting impression. It is imaginable that many people read his stories chiefly for the sake of the incident or situation; and, if disturbed at all by the recognition of an inner significance, not specially uplifted or excited thereby. Yet Dr. Van Dyke's popularity is a good sign of the times. There is nothing feeble about his stories. They are strongly imagined and dramatic. They show several sorts of knowledge — knowledge theoretical and knowledge practical, of places and things and life. It may be this conspicuousness of general excellence that forbids the tribute of higher praise.

Mr. Remington is not an accomplished novelist, but he is a very good descriptive writer, and can draw a horse, an Indian, or a cowboy in words almost as vividly as with a pencil. His story 'John Ermine' is therefore more interesting and valuable as fact than as fiction. It is history (probably authentic) of the times when civilization and law were represented in the Far West by scattered army posts, when the buffalo still roamed freely over the plains, and when the whoop of the "Crow Injun" was a frequent menace to the security of the advancing white man. The figure of John Ermine is romantic, and his fate tragic. The girl for whom he died is singularly unworthy of sacrifice, but this fact does not detract from the probability of Ermine's character and conduct, which is excellently sustained throughout.

Mr. Basil King's new book has nothing in common with 'Let Not Man Put Asunder,' on which it is a decided improvement. It is as though Mr. King, having composed an Iliad of feminine caprice and faithlessness, were here atoning by an Odyssey in which all the honors go to the heroine. Charity Byfleet, whose garden with its old English flowers is a rare spot of color on the long, gray, indented shores of the Nova Scotian coast, is the Penelope of the tale. There for eleven years she waits the return of her fickle soldier husband, who had left her for the war three months after her marriage. He meanwhile has been cast ashore during his home-coming and has met with the inevitable Calypso, at Portuguese Point on the coast. The story runs the regular course of the Odyssey, but William Pennland is not a man of many devices, nor does his Calypso prove as amenable as her original. Hagar Levanti, in revenge for his desertion and his threatened return to his wife, rows him out to a small island and leaves him there, without supplies, for a full week. But would a woman as passionately attached to a man as was Hagar Levanti have the strength of mind to live for a week in sight of that island, knowing that the man she loved was dying slowly of starvation? Meanwhile, Charity arrives in time to see her husband die, forgives her rival all, even the murder, and the two women agree to live together and bring up Hagar's child. Apart from the improbabilities, and allowing for a slight overdose of the sentimental, the book is not without interest. The lives of the Nova Scotian fishermen in their cottages on the coast are well described, and there is a considerable display of humor among the minor characters.

Those who know and love Ireland will read Mr. Bullock's tale of pastoral life for the sake of his descriptions rather than for any intrinsic interest in his characters, though they are typical enough. His scene is laid in Ulster, and he dwells on the contrast between Gorteen, "Protestant and fruitful," and the surrounding district, "Catholic and bare." Once you pass the confines and enter the Protestant section,

> "Hedges become trim, lanes and fields orderly, houses neat, offices clean, crops flourishing. You meet fewer stragglers and no beggar men. Pigs keep their styes; goats and donkeys are missed from the wayside. An air of prosperity is abroad, of industry and rude comfort, of independence also, and a more rigid rule of life. The country seems blessed of God, slavery and terror banished from its confines."

After this introduction, one expects Mr. Bullock to develop the illustration of that painful and unavoidable contrast which prevails in Ireland, of Protestant thrift and Catholic mendicancy. But the two families of small proprietors who furnish his characters are both rigid Protestants, of an orthodoxy the more unyielding because of the proximity of "Popery"; "with a Bible on every parlor table and orange lilies in every garden." Mr. Bullock's story illustrates rather that fatal tendency, inherent in so many Irish, to fitful industry and lack of grip on circumstances. It is a painful study of the gradual steps by which a small squire drifts into idleness and debt; gets into the clutches of the local tradesmen, the Shylocks of Irish country life, and loses the home of his fathers and the land that might have supported him in comfort. His father-in-law, with fewer acres, presents the contrast of the hardworking and prosperous farmer, happily by no means so rare in Ireland as is popularly supposed. The characters are well drawn, especially that of Jane Fallon, the Squireen's wife, the typical wife of the spendthrift, on whom the reckoning always falls most heavily. The style of the book is somewhat rhapsodical, but no one to whom Irish scenery is dear could fail to enjoy the atmosphere of 'The Squireen.' It is filled with the sound of the soft fall of rain, with a moist southwest wind, and dim gray skies, with the purple gloom of the heather and the flash of water everywhere. Life in these boglands has its peculiar charm, though the setting seems, of all others, to fit the tragedies of lives that fail. The alienated homestead of the Squireen is before the eyes of every Irish peasant proprietor, for throughout Ireland, Catholic or Protestant, the local spendthrift, losing his grip on the land, is in every district to point a moral.

A History of Siena. By Langton Douglas. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

The Story of Siena and San Gimignano. By Edmund G. Gardner. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

Books upon Italy, her history, her saints, her towns, and, above all, her art, are nowadays so frequent that it is impossible for

the current reviews to keep pace with them. It is true that they are seldom worth serious attention; they are due for the most part simply and solely to the daily increasing facilities for travel, and to the cheapness and excellence of the new methods of reproducing works of art. The text, as a rule, is adequate to explain the illustrations, and to guide the traveller to the chief points of artistic and historic interest in a town. Original thinkers, accurate scholars, interesting writers, are as rare in this as in any subject. Dull, parasitic unscholarly books, here as elsewhere, are the order of the day.

Two recent books, however, do not quite fall under this classification. Dull Mr. Douglas's 'History of Siena' does not, nor does unscholarly Mr. Gardner's 'Story of Siena and San Gimignano.' Neither is remarkable for originality, although Mr. Douglas's pages bristle with pretensions to this quality; neither is really important in any way; but Mr. Douglas, until he touches on art, is very readable, and Mr. Gardner's book is careful and extremely useful.

Except the historical works of original thinkers or agreeable stylists, it would be hard to find a better-told story of a people than Mr. Douglas's account of the rise and fall of Siena. He manages to combine exciting dramatic anecdote with the results of the current historical method, and weaves into one intensely interesting narrative tales of combats, heroism, and romance, as well as solid economic fact and general historical considerations. He makes clear, what Mr. Gardner scarcely touches upon, the determining part which commerce played in the politics of Siena; but he does not make it dull. The defects that are so glaring when he comes to speak of matters which call for a finer æsthetic culture than he seems to possess, or a sincere modesty and unpretentiousness which, in Mr. Gardner's book, take the place of personal appreciation, scarcely make themselves felt in the historical part of Mr. Douglas's work. It is more interesting, deeper, and wider than the parallel section of Mr. Gardner's book.

But the defects of taste to which we have alluded are not wholly absent even here. Where Mr. Gardner is unobtrusively helpful, his companion author is obtrusively boastful. The wide difference in the quality of the two writers is apparent in almost the opening sentences. Mr. Gardner tells us that the books listed at the end of his volume "only represent some of those which his readers will find useful and helpful, or that will supply further information on points too detailed to be dwelt on in a short general history." Mr. Douglas, in the tone of swagger to which we grow accustomed as we read his pages, starts out with saying that the elaborate bibliography he gives is "merely a list of the more important books relating to Siena which the author has used in preparing this work." Wherever he can, Mr. Douglas makes blatant claims to being a scholar, while Mr. Gardner makes claim to nothing except useful, well-considered information. Yet, throughout, Mr. Douglas shows himself merely a journalist—a diligent and interesting one, it must be admitted—but a journalist with much of the jauntiness and self-confidence traditional to that character; while Mr. Gardner, well known as a Dante scholar, shows that he possesses the real student's methods and interests. A comparison of the latter's quiet, solid, sympathetic account of St. Catherine with Mr. Douglas's rhetorical, quasi-medical treatise on her whom he calls "the dyer's daughter of Fontebranda," amply establishes this difference.

It is when treating of art, however, that the contrast between the two volumes becomes most clear. Neither writer is an independent art student; but Mr. Gardner quotes and gives ample credit to his authorities, while Mr. Douglas, although making constant use of their attributions, their historical observations, and their æsthetic standards, quotes them only in a few minor points where he conceives them to have blundered. Mr. Gardner is perhaps a little too catholic in his choice of authorities, but he pretends to no more than approving citation, while Mr. Douglas, of two people writing on a given subject, is significantly apt to quote only the one he disagrees with. Mr. Gardner's admiration for Sodoma may seem to be a sign of a still unpurified taste, but it is at least an accepted tradition, and not so inexcusable as Mr. Douglas's estimate of the provincial and over-elaborate sculptor Marinna as superior in "sense of form" to the great Florentine master of classic form, Luca della Robbia.

Mr. Gardner, in never attempting an independent attribution, is wiser than Mr. Douglas, who seldom departs from the beaten track without going wrong. The fatal touch of art-criticism seems to destroy his power of reading history; the reasons being that the interpretation of pictures as documents requires gifts of quite another order from those shown in Mr. Douglas's diligent ransacking of books. Had his eye for pictures been as expert as his eye for print—and this is necessary, if the critic ventures upon original views in art-history—he would not have found Perugino's influence in every picture with a spacious background, or Sassetta's in an artist so remote from his aims as Bonfigli, nor would he have claimed such purely Umbrian painters as Boccatis and Matteo da Gualdo as adherents of a Sienese master separated from them by at least a century. A sense of quality would assuredly have given him a very different estimate of the important achievements in sculpture and painting of such artists as Vecchietta, Francesco di Giorgio, and the fascinating Neroccio, whom he dismisses in a few contemptuous words. His pretence at discussing the Neo-Byzantine School of Tuscany as the necessary preparation—of course omitted by all other art historians!—for the intelligent enjoyment of the early Sienese masters, is a mere piece of bluff, for his treatment of this theme turns out to consist in repeating, what every one knows, that the Neo-Byzantine artists were miniaturists and workers in mosaic, who had a feeling for color and decoration, and a careful technique. Is it a help to the "intelligent enjoyment" of Duccio to say that he improved on their stiffness and freed himself from their conventionality?

On almost all the much-discussed problems of his subject, Mr. Douglas confines himself to an attitude of mystification. "I cannot fully discuss this interesting question here," "The state of our present knowledge does not entitle me to speak with confidence," are samples of the phrases he uses to evade the difficulties. Although, in the opinion of the present writer, Raphael did not furnish the least scrap of assistance to Pintoricchio in the frescoes of the Cathedral Library, as both Mr. Gardner and Mr. Douglas assume, yet it is interesting to note the form their two statements of the question take. Mr. Gardner (p. 175) says that although Vasari's statement that Raphael furnished the cartoons has been denied by serious historians of Italian Art, yet at present a modified acceptance of Vasari's statement is beginning to gain ground. He then refers the reader to Miss E. March Phillips's monograph on Pintoricchio. Mr. Douglas (p. 394), as usual, says it is impossible for him to discuss the question fully in this place. "I can only express my conviction that Schmarzow's arguments have never been satisfactorily answered. I believe" . . . And under this rubric follows—Miss Phillips's conclusions! She is quoted on the next page, not apropos of this discussion, but of her general estimate of Pintoricchio.

Mr. Douglas's history, his careful account of the architecture of the Cathedral—here more accurate than Mr. Gardner's—his excellent, although disproportionately long, chapter on Sienese pottery, show clearly that he can do good work in subjects where fineness of taste and delicacy of eye are not needed. In conclusion, we may add the practical advice that Mr. Gardner's book, especially when it shall appear in a smaller volume uniform with the Dent series of "Mediæval Towns," is eminently a book to be read on the spot, a most helpful guide, which takes you consecutively through all the streets and churches of Siena and San Gimignano, while Mr. Douglas's large volume, arranged rather by subjects than by places, can be read with comfort only at home.

French Engravers and Draughtsmen of the Eighteenth Century. By Lady Dilke. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. Large 8vo. Pp. 227.

This book is made up of brief biographical notices, and of anecdotes and quotations, with but little discussion of either the engraving or the drawing of the epoch treated. But in this it is true to its title. The eighteenth century did not produce much engraving or drawing of great importance; but such as it did produce has its interest in connection with the general history of the fine arts. An intelligent account of the character of engraving and drawing at this epoch would, therefore, be of value; but fragmentary notices of the lives of comparatively unimportant men, without some illuminating discussion of the state of the art of the time, and of its relation to that of other times, are not what we should most desire. Nevertheless, Lady Dilke has produced a pleasant book, from which, in connection with her other volumes on 'French Painters' and 'French Architects of the Eighteenth Century,' with their numerous illustrations, a reader may gather a fairly just idea of the fine arts in France during this epoch of mediocre achievement.

French engraving had been brought to a high degree of excellence in the preceding century in the hands of men like Edelinck and Nanteuil. In the supreme art of Nanteuil, graver work in pure line on copper

reached its highest perfection. At this time the art was in the transition stage from the style of the primitive masters, who aimed at little more than pure delineation with such simple shading, for expression of solid form, as they could manage, to the modern style, in which every quality of color and texture within the possibilities of the process has been attained. This transition was effected chiefly by the school of Flemish engravers who gathered around the painter Rubens, and who sought under his guidance to render, as far as possible, the qualities of his painting. Much in the way of skill in the use of the engraved line to express color and texture was accomplished by these men, among whom the most important were Vorstermans and Pontius; but none of them approached the skill of Nanteuil, which is consummate in its effective and yet wonderfully simple technique.

Among the engravers of whom Lady Dilke writes, several of the earlier ones continued to work in the style of Nanteuil with admirable success. The portrait engravings of Pierre Drevet (1663-1738), after the works of Rigaud and Largillière, are among the most superb examples of pure burin technique that have ever been produced. Lady Dilke (p. 59) quotes Mariette, the engraver and author, as saying that Drevet received from his father "daily lessons in . . . unwearying patience and conscientious devotion to his exacting art." This discipline is apparent in every work of Drevet's hand, and his splendid technique is made the vehicle of expression to an extent almost equal to that of his illustrious predecessor. Few other engravers of the time show the same brilliant powers. Drevet is said to have been the last representative of the school of pure line, and certainly not many subsequent engravers manifest the same powers and the same conscientious skill, though Doullé (born 1703) and Beauvarlet (born 1733) produced some admirable works with little departure from the pure-line method. But, as Lady Dilke remarks, a certain impatience of the labor involved in such work began to declare itself, and means were sought by which it might be abridged. Gerard Audran (born 1640) had already used the process of etching as a foundation for burin work, and we are told (p. 61) that now it became the aim of some engravers to imitate with the graver the free character of line proper to the etching point. With Doullé and his contemporaries "the pure sincerity of their predecessors was unknown." They resort to makeshifts to save labor, while Wille (born 1717) becomes very artificial, and makes his technique a "witness of skill rather than a means of expression."

It was at this time that the passion for collecting began to take its modern form, and, with the advent of the amateur collector, the modern dealer made his appearance. The dealer at first was himself an engraver, and also a publisher of other men's engravings. Foremost among these early dealers were Mariette and Bassan. Both of these men exercised great authority in matters of taste, and they both had a genuine love for the art; but, of the two, Mariette, we are told (p. 30), engaged in the business of buying and selling prints from an enthusiastic devotion to the art itself, while Bassan foreshadows the more modern dealer, who follows the vocation primarily for the money he can make out of it.

The so-called "gravure d'histoire" was now taking the place of the portrait-engraving that had before prevailed, and the commerce in prints of popular subjects was becoming a thriving industry. In the production of works of this class Laurent Cars (1702-1771) was prolific, and Le Bas (1708-1782), "to whom Diderot assigned the unenviable distinction of having given the death-blow to 'la bonne gravure,' was driven to the employment of expeditious methods in order to deal with the enormous quantity of work that he undertook at a low price." An examination of the plates of Le Bas shows that he made extensive use of the more facile and expeditious process of etching, a practice which soon became general, but his burin handling does not appear to have been otherwise materially changed. The newly established publishers now began to issue prints in extended series, and to engage in the publication of sumptuous illustrated books. The rise of book illustration in the modern sense dates from this time, and we get the "dessinateur et graveur," the forerunner of the modern illustrator. The drawing of these men is commonly mediocre enough, though in some instances it rises to excellence, as in the "Sleeping Child," by Gabriel de Saint-Aubin, reproduced opposite page 139.

In chapter x., Lady Dilke discusses the development of new processes which the growing demand for prints, the commercial spirit of the dealers, and the desire for novelties fostered by the spirit of the time. Engraving was becoming a mechanical industry, and the modern principle of division of labor was applied to it. One man now prepared plates by etching in the subject, while another one finished them with the graver. Engravings "à la manière du crayon," imitations by engraving of the effects of chalk drawings, arose, and the tool called the "roulette," which facilitated this kind of work, was introduced. This soon gave rise to the production of colored prints in imitation of colored chalk drawings; and finally the process "au lavis," an imitation of washed drawings, was perfected. All these matters are touched upon in an interesting manner; but one could wish for a fuller discussion and illustration of them. Very little is said of wood engraving, and the important name of Papillon, who advanced this process considerably in the direction of more elaborate execution, is mentioned but once, and then in a footnote. The closing chapter treats of engravers and the Academy, and recounts the struggles of the engravers to obtain a more equal standing with painters and sculptors than had before been accorded them.

The book is handsomely printed, and the illustrations are of fair quality.

Memoirs of Sir Edward Blount. Edited by Stuart J. Reid. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

These recollections are more interesting than might be anticipated. When a man has never kept a diary, has destroyed all his letters, and waits until his ninety-fourth year before beginning to tell his story, the result is not apt to be very successful. In this case, however, there are certain incidents which leaven the lump. We can dispense with the official letters and documents recording the eminent services of Sir Edward, with the bows and compliments with which he introduces and dismisses the many distinguished men whom he has known, and even with his accounts of the hardships which he underwent during the siege of Paris. But concerning the early history of railway building on the Continent, and especially in France, Sir Edward's reminiscences have a unique value.

Possibly the fact that the Blounts have always been Catholics may have had something to do with Sir Edward's successful career in France. The family was originally of Picardy, but three of its members came over with the Conqueror, two of them remaining. At a tenants' dinner at the seat of the family, in Shropshire, one of them exhibited documentary proofs that his ancestors had been either in the employment of, or tenant farmers under, the Blount family for nearly 800 years.

The author of these memoirs, on leaving school, entered the London office of the Provincial Bank of Ireland, just established as a Catholic institution, in opposition to the National Bank of Ireland, which was of Protestant finance. After a short time he obtained a place in the Home Office, and in 1829 became an attaché of the British Embassy in Paris. In 1831 he left the public service finally, and was for the rest of his life actively employed in Paris as a banker, and as a railway financier and manager.

Seventy years ago the horrors of the custom house were everywhere as frightful as they now are in New York. Passengers, male and female, crossing the Channel, were searched; and at the Belgian frontier Mr. Blount was once deprived of six of his week's supply of seven razors, on the ground that no man could use so many. Some years later he rendered a memorable service to travellers in procuring the abolition of an inveterate nuisance. He was received in his capacity as director of the Austrian Railway, with two of his colleagues, by the Emperor, who pointedly asked what he could do for him. To the disgust of his companions, instead of intimating that decorations would be acceptable, he explained the annoyance to which passengers were subjected by having trains stopped at the frontiers, often in the middle of the night, in order that soldiers might demand passports. Within a fortnight the practice was ended.

In 1836 there were nearly two thousand miles of railway in England, while there were but twenty-five in France. A bill for the construction of seven trunk lines, brought in by the Government in 1838, was rejected by a majority of three to one. Mr. Blount, however, went to M. Dufaure, Minister of Public Works, and asked for leave to build a line from Paris to Rouen with English capital. It was finally arranged that if £600,000 could be raised in England, and a like sum in France, the Government would guarantee an equal amount. The arrangement was carried out in 1840, and in 1843 the road was opened. It was laid out by English engineers, built by English contractors—Brassey and Mackenzie—and operated by English mechanics. Even now the English and not the French rule of

the road is followed on the railways of France.

This road was the precursor of many others, in which Mr. Blount was interested, notably the Western of France Railway. Of this line he was chairman for thirty years, and might still be, but for a violent "Jingo" speech made by him at a time when the relations between England and France were strained. He could have retained his position, but to have done so would have caused the passage of a law requiring all railway directors thereafter elected to have the approval of the Government. This would have meant the exclusion of many worthy men who had been partisans of former régimes—Imperialists, Orleanists, etc.—who could not afford to lose their salaries, and Sir Edward very honorably yielded. From the military point of view it must be said that it was intolerable to have a great French railway managed by a citizen of a country with which war was possible, especially when that citizen had proclaimed himself a Jingo of the Jingoes.

Many incidents of the revolutions of 1830 and of 1848 are here detailed, and make interesting reading. These fields, however, have been well covered by many others, and the author's part, spirited and even heroic as it was, has rather a personal than an historical importance. His tribute to Mr. Brassey is enthusiastic, and brings out the splendid generosity of that great captain of industry. In spite of his colossal enterprises, he told Mr. Blount that his net profit, after deducting all losses, was about 3 per cent. upon all that he had done. Mr. Blount knew well the statesmen of the Second Empire, and his estimates of them deserve attention. His book might have been a great deal better; but it has merit.

A History of the Babylonians and Assyrians. By George Stephen Goodspeed, Ph.D., Professor of Ancient History in the University of Chicago. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. xiii., 422.

This volume continues the Historical Series for Bible Students edited by Professors Kent and Sanders of Yale University, and in general maintains the same high standard represented by Kent's and Riggs's volumes on the history of the Hebrew and Jewish people. It is the best condensed history of Babylonia and Assyria yet published. It is well furnished at the close with a chronological list, bibliography, references, and an index of names and subjects, but of maps there is only one, at the commencement, and that leaves much to be desired. We notice the persistence of a curiously perverse blunder, repeated in map after map of Babylonia since the time of Delitzsch's 'Wo lag das Paradies.' In Delitzsch's map, by some accident, the ancient city of Eridu was placed on the east side of the Euphrates, below the Shatt en-Nil. The site of Eridu is well known. It lies to the west of the Euphrates, a little above the junction of the Shatt en-Nil with that river. The ancient Ur is also misplaced in this map, and canals are thrown in here and there on general principles. In short, it is very unsatisfactory, and not worthy of the excellent little volume to which it is prefixed.

Dr. Goodspeed still holds to the earlier date of Sargon, 3800 B. C., which, of course, throws his whole chronology back a thousand years; but his general treatment of the earlier periods of Babylonian history is noticeably conservative. On the Sumerian question he displays the same cautious attitude: "The facts are not decisive, and the fundamental questions must await final adjudication till a time when either new documents for philological investigation are discovered, or light is obtained from other than linguistic sources" (p. 30).

In accounting for the temporary downfall of the Assyrian empire, immediately after the campaigns of Tiglath Pileser I., 1100 B. C., Dr. Goodspeed states very effectively a fact which we have not seen presented in former histories, namely, that "a series of mighty movements of peoples took place in the world without, which swept away Assyria's authority over her provincial districts, encroached upon her territory, threw Babylonia into civil war, paralyzed all foreign trade, and afforded opportunity for the consolidation of rival powers on the borders of both nations" (pp. 179, 180). He might have added, although it is not necessarily within the scope of his work, that it was this same movement, affecting the whole civilized world of the period, which overturned the Mykenæan civilization in Greece and Crete.

It is probably unavoidable, in writing history, to indulge in speculation. Now the Assyrian and Babylonian documents which have come down to us are in general either dry records of facts, one-sided accounts of the campaigns and other achievements of kings, or commercial documents. Nothing exists to show us with any certainty the inner motives of movements and events. A king or dynasty falls and a successor takes the throne; we know the facts and nothing more. Professor Goodspeed enters into speculations as to the causes of these changes, speculations as to conflicts between royal and priestly power and the like, which are interesting, but rest on no secure basis. His speculations only reveal to us more clearly the limitations of our present knowledge in regard to the inner history of Babylonia and Assyria. He also shows a tendency in not a few instances to reverse the verdict of former writers, rehabilitating sovereigns condemned by them and vice-versa. This is notably the case with Esarhaddon of Assyria and Nebuchadnezzar the Great of Babylon, the latter of whom especially he would fain remove from his present eminence as one of the greatest kings of antiquity. On the other hand, the much-abused Sennacherib meets here with high commendation.

The volume is interestingly written, and, at the same time, Professor Goodspeed has succeeded in condensing a large amount of information in a small space.

Demetrius on Style. With introduction, translation, facsimiles, etc. By W. Rhys Roberts, Litt. D. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

Professor Roberts presents in the volume before us the third part of his chosen task in the elucidation of the most important Greek material on the subject of Rhetoric and Literary Criticism. The three Literary Letters of Dionysius of Halicarnassus appeared a year ago, and the treatise of Longinus on the Sublime in 1899. There is yet to come a critical and annotated edition of the Rhetoric of Aristotle and a general History of Greek Literary Criticism, the former of which might seem scarcely necessary within a generation of the voluminous work of E. M. Cope, edited by Sandys in 1877, and reinforced since that date by a fair supply of periodical literature in various tongues, accessible to most of those who care to make a special study of Aristotle's great work. As to the authorship and date of the work in hand, Mr. Roberts claims no ability to solve the problem which has baffled so many others. The author was certainly not Demetrius of Phalerum, and it is far from certain that he was any one of the many who bore that name. As to date, the probabilities lie within a century of the beginning of the Christian era, before or after. The fact that the treatise is not mentioned by Quintilian might fairly be taken as strengthening the hypothesis of a late date, since the common-sense views presented are such as would naturally have appealed to Quintilian, and the work could hardly have been published much in advance of his time without coming to his attention in the wide reading which preceded and accompanied the composition of the *Institutio Oratoria.* The translation does not, of course, elude all the difficulties which such a subject involves, especially when it comes to dealing with illustrations. For example: "Force of style will also mark a sentence of this kind: 'He turned upside down in his folly and his impiety too, things sacred and things holy too.'" The repetition of the word *too,* and its position, represent the external form of the Greek closely enough, but to call such a form forcible when transferred to the English is manifestly absurd. There are about fifty pages of notes, a good glossary of technical terms, a bibliography, and indices. It is noticeable that the bibliography contains no entries in the English language except two references to articles in the *Classical Review* contributed by Professor Roberts himself in the course of his preparation of this volume.

Saintsbury, in the first volume of his 'History of Criticism,' gives this treatise rather scant and unsatisfactory notice. The best he has to say for it is that the author was "not far from the kingdom." Professor Roberts is justified in calling it a great aid to the study of Greek literature on the more formal side, and in hoping to see it recognized as having a distinct relation to the theory and practice of English composition. If his edition shall further its use toward that end, the labor of preparation will have been well worth while.

A History of German Literature. By John G. Robertson, Lecturer in the University of Strassburg. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902. Pp. 635.

It may be doubted whether manuals of literature, such as Dr. Robertson has compiled in this volume, are of real value either for the scholar or for the general public. To the student they give no new light, and the layman receives no inspiration from them. Their principal use seems to consist in recording from time to time, for the benefit of the librarian and the

bibliographer, the accretions to a given literature, both in scientific investigation and in artistic production. With these qualifications as to its intrinsic value, it should be said that Dr. Robertson's book is worthy of genuine praise. It is the result of most conscientious study and very wide reading; is written without any personal bias, and in a most sympathetic spirit; avoids all fancifulness and flippancy; and strives with remarkable success for completeness of information as to names, dates, synopses of books, and similar detail.

Furthermore, this is probably the first book of its kind (and herein lies its chief interest from the scholarly point of view) which considers German literature in its relation to other European literatures—above all, French and English; and one cannot help wishing that it might have been possible for Dr. Robertson to make this the leading feature of his work. The luminous comparison which, in the introduction, he draws between the fundamental characteristics of what Madame de Staël called "la littérature du nord" and "la littérature du midi," his penetrating analysis of the causes which have made the historical development of German culture so widely different from that of the other nations of Europe, as well as numerous sidelights of a similar sort scattered throughout the book, show that he was admirably equipped for such a task. Let us hope that he has in store for us a treatise which will bring out in clear and strong outline the history of German literature as affected by intellectual and artistic influences emanating from other countries. By writing such a book, he will do a great service to literary history.

Meanwhile, it would be ungrateful not to acknowledge that this manual is a thoroughly trustworthy Baedeker for the familiar routes in German literature, superseding once for all the sorry lot of dilettanteish compilations which have served as guide-books in this domain during the last generation. This in itself is a service not to be underestimated. That, in addition to this, there is a literary flavor to the book, which clearly asserts itself whenever the narrative is not burdened with bibliographical detail, may be gathered from the following passage from the chapter on Gottfried von Strassburg's 'Tristan':

"One of the secrets of Gottfried's mastery as a love-poet is his unrelenting earnestness; indeed, the earnestness that lies over *Tristan* merges almost into melancholy. No gleam of humor relieves the tragedy of the story, no touch of frivolity: *Tristan* is the most serious of all the court epics. We may possibly be doing Gottfried's lost model an injustice in giving the German poet credit for those elements in *Tristan* which entitle it to be regarded as great poetry; but the warmth and the heartfelt sincerity of the German epic are foreign to the French temperament, as far, at least, as that temperament is expressed in French mediæval literature. Gottfried's conception of love is essentially Germanic; it is the love of Romeo and Juliet, the love that inspires Goethe's lyrics and the poetry of German Romanticism."

Modern Practical Joinery: A Treatise on the Practice of Joiner's Work by Hand and Machine for the Use of Apprentices, Workmen and Builders, etc. By George Ellis. With about 1,000 clear and practical illustrations. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xii., 379. $5.00.

Measured Drawings of Old Oak English Furniture; also, of some Remains of Architectural Woodwork, Plasterwork, Metalwork, Glazing, etc. By John Weymouth Hurrell. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. $15.00.

Here are two books which deal with woodwork in building, but of the finer kind, such as we call joinery or cabinet-work, rather than carpentry on a large scale. In a curious way the two books are the complement each of the other. The first-named is as utilitarian as it can be made, the second is devoted exclusively to refinements of design.

The treatise on joinery, by Mr. George Ellis, takes up the subject of woodworking by hand at the very beginning, and deals with the tools employed (chapter ii.), then with the workshop appliances, as work-benches, mitre-blocks, grindstones, and the rest, and with the ordinary practice of the workshop, planing and mortising, dovetailing and wedging, occupying with these subjects chapters iii. and iv. The making of joints is very properly treated at length and with minute particularity, and has a whole chapter devoted to it. Coming, then, to more specified practice, chapter vi. is devoted to doors and gates, chapter vii. to door frames and the like, chapters viii. and ix. to windows, shutters, and blinds; and in this manner the whole field of the finer woodworking for buildings is passed in review. Few items are overlooked, few requirements fail to be stated; a chapter is devoted to foreman's work and another to the fixing or putting into place of joiner's work, as when the trim, as we have it in America, is put up in a house where it belongs; and the two chapters at the end are devoted to timber, with a description of different woods.

In the attempt to cover the whole ground, thirty pages are devoted to stairbuilding; and here more than elsewhere there is an obvious brevity of treatment which may be thought inadequate, for the question of stairbuilding is one to which volumes bigger than this one have been devoted, and without exhausting the subject. However, what is told is the right thing to say. The author has not failed to put down interesting things because he had not much space within which to expatiate. He offers a good and tolerably complete list of the "technical terms used in stairbuilding and handrailing," and gives useful hints among his "general remarks," as where he reminds the builder that "dividing landings by a single step should be avoided, as these prove traps for the unwary." That is a rule which ought to be insisted on in the United States, for it is a common trick with us to divide what Englishmen call generally a halfpace, that is, a platform which crosses two flights of stairs, one arriving and the other departing from it on the upward course, and the two side by side and parallel. Such a landing cut in halves, making of it two square platforms, provides, as indeed our author says, a trap for every one who does not know the staircase intimately and finds it not brilliantly lighted up. If a complete building law were ever to be undertaken, the prohibition of such mischievous devices as that might well form a by-law apart.

As to the book under consideration, no attempt is made to present novel or even modern designs, or to preserve a common style of design, or yet to present designs of intelligence or of artistic merit. The simple British ways of shaping a window-frame with arched head, and a similar frame but with a square head; the obvious and everyday fashion of making a door and building its casing and hanging it by hinges; the century-old plans of building up stairs by means of glued blocks and sprung mouldings, are all accepted as matters of course, without comment and without criticism. The author's business is merely to show the workman how these things are to be done, and he does not abandon this plan of teaching the workshop methods only, except for an occasional comment on matters of convenience and inconvenience, or as to the greater or less strength and durability of a material or of the mechanical process.

The text is abundantly supplied with illustrations, all of them drawn in an intelligent way in plain black lines, and there are a few folding plates provided for the combined display of all the parts of the complicated structure, as a writing table with a multiplicity of drawers, or a "circle sash frame" with all its details. There is a fairly complete index, and a glossary of terms which seems inadequate in that the definitions are so very brief that only a practised mechanic would understand them. Such definitions may serve to settle a dispute between two technicians, but not to instruct an outsider. Such brevity leads also to error, as, for instance, "Gothic Arch. A pointed arch. These were solely used in the architecture of the Middle Ages"; a definition which contains or implies two or three errors. So "Grating. A wood lattice used to protect gutters from snow," as if there were no other gratings in use in Great Britain than in that one connection. The list of terms used in stairbuilding and given in chapter xv. is, however, to be considered with the glossary proper; and the two may be taken as forming in reality one dictionary of terms.

The book is bound or cased in brown buckram of a pleasant color, and this piece of work seems to be strongly done—not at all in the curiously feeble way in which cloth cases are so commonly put upon English books. The volume will stand workshop wear for several years.

Mr. Hurrell's book consists of a hundred and ten plates, with a brief preface, a classified list of the "subjects of the plates," and nothing else whatever. This table or list sets forth that Plates 1 to 13 with 19 and 20 are devoted to Cabinets, while Ironwork has three plates and Brasswork three, Leaded Lights two, and an ornamental Lead Cistern one (Plate 90). There are included among the ceilings, to which subject six pages are devoted, some of plaster, and indeed there are only two of oak. It may be said, then, that three-fourths of the book is devoted to the details of joiner's work with elaborate carving in oak, all of the Elizabethan and Jacobean periods, and that one-fourth is devoted to metalwork, plasterwork, and the rest, of the same period. The Preface states the author's purpose to be the giving of

accurate measurements and careful delineation to scale without the aid of pictorial effect; and its purpose has been kept steadily in view. In fact, exception might be taken to the difficulty one finds in grasping readily the significance of the details which are crowded together upon a given page. Even the practised student may be annoyed somewhat and at least made impatient by the lack of a little freehand drawing in the corner, which would show him the general effect of the armchair or cupboard; for even such a student must take time and thinking to construct a mental image of the completed piece—and after all it is a great help to know in advance what the completed piece is like. No other such deficiency can be urged. The drawings have all the appearance of exactitude, and although it has been impracticable to point out in all cases which mouldings are planted-on and which are carved in the solid, because that cannot be ascertained in every case and because also it does not affect the existing design, yet the modern artist is free to follow the more thorough or the slighter method as he may prefer.

Attention must be called to this fact, that the author has gone, for his examples, to the most interesting buildings and to the most famous collections of old furniture in England. Bramhall and Little Moreton Hall in Cheshire, Chetham's College in Manchester, Plasmawr in Conway in Wales, and an old house which stood at Leek in Staffordshire until it was pulled down in 1897, have furnished much of his material.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anthony, Susan B., and Harper, Ida H. The History of Woman Suffrage. Vol. IV. Rochester: Susan B. Anthony.

Dorman, M. R. P. A History of the British Empire in the Nineteenth Century. Vol. I. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Euripides. Translated into English Rhyming Verse by Gilbert Murray. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.

Hazell's Annual for 1903. Edited by W. Palmer. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. $1.50.

Hewitt, J. F. History and Chronology of the Myth-Making Age. London: James Parker & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $6.

Hulbert, A. B. Braddock's Road, and Three Relative Papers. (Historic Highways of America, vol. iv.). Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.

Jerrold, Walter. The Prose Works of William Makepeace Thackeray; The Irish Sketch Book. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.

Krauch, C. The Testing of Chemical Reagents for Purity. Translated by J. A. Williamson and L. W. Dupré. London: Maclaren & Sons; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.50.

Lane, M. A. L. Triumphs of Science. (Youth's Companion Series.) Boston: Ginn & Co.

Linn, W. A. Horace Greeley. (Appleton's Series of Historic Lives.) D. Appleton & Co. $1.

Maclaren, Ian. Our Neighbors. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Magnus, Laurie. Introduction to Poetry. E. P. Dutton & Co. 60 cents.

McChesney, Dora G. Cornet Strong of Ireton's Horse. John Lane.

Myer, Lucy R. Mary North. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.

Rayner, Emma. Handicapped among the Free. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Segonzac, Mis de. Voyages au Maroc (1899-1901). Paris: Armand Colin. 20 fr.

Social Germany in Luther's Time: Being the Memoirs of Bartholomew Sastrow. Translated by A. D. Vandam. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.

Townsend, Charles. The Mahoney Million. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.25.

Van Middeldyk, R. A. The History of Puerto Rico. Edited by M. G. Brumbaugh. (The Expansion of the Republic Series.) D. Appleton & Co.

Vedder, H. C. The Baptists. (The Story of the Churches.) Baker & Taylor Co. $1.

Walsh, C. M. The Fundamental Problem in Monetary Science. Macmillan. $1.50.

Winthrop, W. Y. A 20th-Century Cinderella. Abbey Press.

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FOUNDED IN 1865.

[*Entered at the New York City Post-Office as second-class mail matter.*

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 26, 1903.

The Week.

Whatever real danger there may be of the Panama Treaty failing in Colombia will arise from disappointment there in the matter of general pecuniary expectations. These were extravagantly and ridiculously high. The $10,000,000 finally agreed upon was as nothing to what the Colombians looked for—and, indeed, demanded at first. At the very least, $30,000,000 was to be had from a rich country with a bursting Treasury which had done the unbusinesslike thing of first telling Colombia that it was going to buy her canal, and then asking her to name her price. To all the remonstrances of Secretary Hay, the one answer was that given by the Brazilian arbitrator at Geneva to the Englishmen who protested against the size of the Alabama award—"Vous êtes riches." Indeed, so high were Colombian hopes pitched that when Minister Silva, being a man of sense, told his Government that it would be impossible to obtain more than $10,000,000, he was recalled in a rage and practically hounded to death after he got home. His goods were sequestrated, he was exiled from the capital, and finally died in what was practically imprisonment. His fate gives one some idea of the way in which popular sentiment was running in Colombia at the time, and, as we say, of the nature of the real perils which the treaty has yet to encounter before final ratification by the Colombian Congress. These may easily prove serious, yet we are confident that they will be surmounted.

Not the least interesting phase of the Panama Canal settlement is the problem of remitting the purchase money. Forty million dollars is a substantial sum to draw in a brief space of time from a given money market. It is true that the Treasury has a surplus fund largely in excess of $200,000,000. But of this sum, $150,800,000 is on deposit with the banks, and therefore employed in the money market, while the ba'ance held in the Treasury's own vaults exceeds by only twenty or twenty-five millions the sum which the Government habitually keeps for its cash exchanges. If, therefore, the purchase money were to be paid to the French owners of the property in cash, a heavy draft on bank reserves would be necessary. Such large international payments, however, are not primarily made in exported coin, but in sterling bills, by use of which the recipient draws on London. As a rule, such bills are on three or six months' time. When, however, they mature, they must be met by the American market. Payment may then be adjusted in one of three ways: by borrowing abroad again, renewing the bills as they mature; by selling to Europe enough of merchandise or securities to offset its claim; or by sending gold. It is impossible to say, at the moment, which of the three expedients will in the present instance be adopted. That is a question largely dependent on the state of the money market and the promise of this season's harvests. The question is interesting chiefly because of the present strain on New York's market, and the low figure at which bank reserves stand.

Even if the Cuban treaty had not been tortured out of its original semblance, it would still lag two years behind our pledges. It was early in 1901 that President McKinley and Secretary Root formally and solemnly promised the Cubans to admit their sugar and tobacco to our markets at a reduction of 20 per cent. from the Dingley rates. We have thus been an unconscionable time keeping our word. Even so, we have made our grudging fulfilment practically valueless by new stipulations. As the treaty stands, it cannot go into effect until after Congress has had one more chance to repudiate a promise. More than that, it has been loaded down with one-sided amendments. Cuba had made large concessions to our trade in order to secure favorable treatment for her products, but the Senate has insisted upon much larger concessions. In an ordinary case, this would be tantamount to killing the treaty, since the party of the other part would not consent to what it would be sure to regard as an unjust demand. Even as the matter rests, there is danger that the treaty may perish. The period within which ratifications were to be exchanged ends with March 31. The Cuban Senate, after ratifying the treaty as it stood, adjourned until April, and had to be reconvened expressly. Its action is uncertain and delay may ensue. The situation can no doubt be saved by a supplementary agreement between the two Governments, but the natural, and perhaps the designed, effect of the Senate's action would be to give the treaty the finishing blow then and there. Our record in the whole affair is most melancholy. It does credit neither to our business shrewdness nor to our sense of national honor.

Neither Gen. Leonard Wood nor the American public should be satisfied with his off-hand denial of the charges made against him by Estes G. Rathbone. With the latter's contention that he has been the victim of gross injustice, we have never had any sympathy. He has, however, put his finger upon some things in Gen. Wood's record which can be cleared up only by an official investigation. This is plainly called for. Ever since Gen. Wood left Havana, rumors have been rife that both he and a member of his family accepted presents from the gambling combine which made enormous profits out of the *jai alai* game. In his recent denial Gen. Wood states that the personal presents he received were gifts from a delegation of Spanish merchants. Just who these "merchants" were is the point at issue. That there were no Cubans among them is due primarily to the General's unpopularity with all classes of the native-born islanders. The public belief was that the "merchants" were those who profited by the gambling allowed by the American authorities, and Gen. Wood owes it to himself and the honor of the army to show beyond doubt that the donors had no connection with so scandalous and disreputable an institution.

Incidentally, Gen. Wood ought to explain why this gaming was tolerated under his administration. It was never permitted by the Spanish Governors, and never obtained a foothold until a year and a half before the end of the American occupation. Gen. Brooke suppressed the Havana lottery and had passed strict anti-gambling laws which were enforced for a time. Under the plea that it was properly licensed and was the "national game," Gen. Wood and his staff lent official sanction to its iniquities by almost daily attendance in search of the strenuous life. It is useless for him to say that it was under the authority of the municipality of Havana, for he frequently interfered with the Havana government and had it completely in his power. He could not have been unaware of the demoralizing effects of the game, because he knew it by daily observation. But if he were blind, he must still have known that the Cuban newspapers denounced *jai alai* as the most demoralizing influence in Havana. "The bill limiting the betting in the *jai alai* establishment has been practically abandoned because the Platt amendment binds the Government to carry out the contracts which were approved by the Military Government." Thus a dispatch from Havana in Tuesday's newspapers, printed side by side with Secretary Root's summary dismissal of the charges against Gen. Wood made by Rathbone. We have heard much about the admirable qualities of the Platt amendment. It was to safeguard Cuba from foreign interference, to protect our interests from any fu-

ture ingratitude on the part of the Cubans, and to give us some choice harbors for our navy. Now it appears that, in addition to all its other virtues, this amendment makes it impossible for Cuba or the city of Havana to purge itself of a betting ring with exclusive privileges bestowed by Leonard Wood, representative of American morality!

The remarks of Gen. Adna R. Chaffee at the Methodist Social Union on Friday evening on the subject of the Filipinos were almost cynical in point of frankness. As reported in the *Tribune*, he was not prepared to say whether the Filipinos were our enemies or not. Then he added: "I am an exploiter, and I believe that if we ever get any good out of the islands we must explore and exploit them." Of all men who have had opportunity to know the feelings which the natives of those islands cherish toward us, Gen. Chaffee has perhaps stood in the best position to learn, and it seems that he is not able to discern the friendship which other Imperialist authorities have frequently affirmed to exist since we succeeded in putting down armed resistance. We may assume, therefore, that the state of peace in the islands is of the familiar kind which exists where there are no means of fighting. Gen. Chaffee's frankness is equally commendable in the other half of the quotation, where he says that if we ever get any good out of the islands we must exploit them. We can imagine that the assembled brethren must have winced a little at the thought that we were in the Philippines in order to make money out of them, or that we never should make anything else out of them worth our trouble. We have been assured so many times that our only purpose from the beginning has been to introduce the blessings of civilization and Christianity, and that our chief reward for all the American blood and treasure spent there would be an approving conscience, that Gen. Chaffee's cold remarks to the contrary seem quite shocking. Somebody at Washington ought to "rebuke" him.

Senator Money of Mississippi was at least frank in declaring on March 18 for negro disfranchisement and for the absolute exclusion of colored men from office. He was asked if the South demanded that, and replied that the South made no "demand," but had a "feeling" that negroes should neither vote nor hold office. This is a distinction which colored men in the South will "feel" to be without a difference. Senator Foraker wanted to know if the Southern people were also willing to have their representation of disfranchised negroes cut down, but Mr. Money answered, with a fine Kipling air, that "that is another question." He will find, however, that it is an essential part of the same question. We must, nevertheless, give the Mississippi Senator credit for a certain generosity. He would not shut colored men out of the army. He is quite willing that they should fight for a flag which will not protect them.

Charleston dispatches report that one hundred white men have applied for appointment under the new negro collector, Dr. Crum. Office is the great leveller, after all. It bids fair to break down even race prejudice—that is, prejudice against the race that has clerkships to bestow. Senator Money informed the Senate that the South had a violent and invincible dislike to "sharing" the responsibilities of government with an "inferior race." That, however, was before one of the inferior race had appointments to dispense. As soon as he had them, white men came forward, a hundred strong, perfectly willing to share the responsibilities of government with him. There is evidently a great difference between Dr. Crum, Collector of the Port, and a mere member of an inferior race whose "enfloons wuz powerful lackin'," as Uncle Remus said of the Mud Tukkle and the Spring Lizzud vs. the Elephent.

By linking together his recess appointment of the colored man, Mr. Crum, and the tainted man, Byrne of Delaware, President Roosevelt appears to imply that a like reason constrains him in both cases. But the two are as different as light and darkness. The Senate Committee on Commerce gave no reason for rejecting Crum except the fact that he is a negro. But that is no reason at all. Granting good education and high character, as is done by everybody in the case of Dr. Crum, to allege his color as a bar to office is so preposterous that the President is fully justified in saying that, as long as the Senate is too cowardly to reject the man outright, he will stand by him. But the Judiciary Committee had the best of reasons for its two adverse reports on the nomination of Byrne. It was able to show that he had a wretched professional record in office, and also that he had sold himself body and soul to the most huge corrupter of the age. Either is a convincing reason, and should have been so to the President. By sticking to Byrne, he has, whether he knows it or not, given encouragement to every briber in the land, and, in particular, brought glee to every scoundrel in Delaware. Theodore Roosevelt will be said to have struck hands with J. Edward Addicks, and the President's best friends will not be able to deny the charge. We know, of course, what is said in defence. Byrne is one of Mr. Roosevelt's "good fellows," who has been "useful to me." But there is no surer way of losing character than to cling to good fellows who drag you with them into the Addicks mire.

An interview with Senator Aldrich informs us that he, as Chairman of the Senate Finance Committee, will soon appoint a sub-committee to sit during the recess and prepare a "comprehensive" financial bill. His object is to have such a measure ready for presentation at the beginning of the next session of Congress. This news is gratifying for two reasons: it assures us not only that the controlling forces of the Senate have awakened from the slumber into which they relapsed after the passage of the so-called gold standard act of 1900, but that they intend to go beyond the limits of the Aldrich bill of the last session, which related to the deposit of public money in the national banks, and adopt a more thoroughgoing measure. It is a fortunate circumstance that a committee of the National Bankers' Association, of which ex-Secretary Fairchild is Chairman, will be laboring on the same problems at the same time. That the latter body can give valuable assistance to the Senate Committee, if asked to do so, is evident. That such help would have been useful in perfecting the details of the Aldrich bill of the last session is known to all who have made a critical examination of it, and would probably be admitted by its very author. Another encouraging sign is the fact that President Roosevelt himself has taken occasion to express the hope that the movement initiated by the Bankers' Association may bear fruit for the coming Congress.

Rhode Island is rousing at last from its apathy over political corruption. For many years the citizens have listened patiently to counsels of despair, and have folded their hands in meek submission to the "all wise and unscrupulous" Providence that has fastened the clutch of Boss Brayton on their throats. To-day, they are beginning to struggle against fate. The publication of the infamy of Rhode Island to the whole country is having its natural effect upon the minds of the residents, and they are asking themselves whether in fact they must lie forever with their necks under Gen. Brayton's heel. The position, though undignified, was tolerable so long as the matter was kept private; but the pillory has been too much. Clearly the time has come for a non-partisan movement against bribery. If Bishop McVickar, if the clergy generally, if the professors of Brown University, if other men of light and leading will unite for action, they can count upon all the help that outsiders can give in such a contest; but if they are not ready to move now, Rhode Island must stew in her own juice for a while longer. Honest Repub-

licans and Democrats can surely sink their differences and join in opposing the open auction of laws and offices to the highest bidder. If, in such a fight, decency cannot ultimately triumph, Rhode Island must confess that the republican form of government is a failure.

Of course, the English Conservatives have a large enough majority in the House to lose seat after seat in bye-elections, yet still remain securely in office, but their succession of electoral reverses is greatly damaging to the prestige of the Ministry. People will say that the country is getting tired of the Government, and that it is going stale. Indeed, signs multiply that such is the fact. All the more importance, therefore, will attach to the Irish Land bill, of which the long-delayed introduction is now momentarily expected. The fate of the Ministry will be wrapped up in it, since a failure there would almost surely force a resignation or a dissolution. Even as it is, the losses at Woolwich and Rye are facers for Mr. Balfour. He wrote a characteristic letter to the Woolwich Conservatives, urging them not to be content with giving merely a "languid support" to their candidate. This, from the eminently languid Balfour, excited some amusement, which was not diminished when the supposedly safe constituency was lost by 3,000 votes.

No one can deny to Premier Combes the courage of his opinions when he induces the Chamber to suppress in a single vote the schools of some fifty teaching orders. Such wholesale treatment of very different cases had already aroused the protest of the moderate press, and M. Combes's substantial vote of confidence must be taken as a distinct sign of a revival of anti-clericalism. The basis of the vote was an elaborate report on the status of fifty-four men's religious associations that had applied for authorization under the Associations Law of 1901. Most of these teaching congregations, it is fair to note, are contumacious. They have stood upon alleged previous authorization and have complied with the new law only under duress. The report of M. Fernand Barbier, which was accepted on March 18, took up these cases one by one, and usually decided that these orders not only are, but for years had been, without warrant of law. While only an expert in French jurisprudence could criticise the report in its legal aspects, in common sense it is obvious that congregations which have for a hundred years maintained a public existence cannot properly be suppressed for irregularities of long standing. All the historical portion of the Barbier report, while doubtless of great value, gives the impression of an anti-clerical tract.

Premier Combes, in defending the report, took the high ground that the teaching in the schools of these orders is anti-republican. He appealed to old hatreds of the priest, and to the people against the aristocracy and bourgeoisie, and his policy of thorough proscription undoubtedly is popular for the moment; but there is an uneasy sense that he has taken Waldeck-Rousseau's programme too literally, and that the Associations Law would be more comfortably enforced by its original promoter. It is probable that M. Waldeck-Rousseau, who is at present occupied with his candidacy for the Academy, is, at heart, of this opinion. It remains to be seen what evasions of the Associations Law are possible and whether Premier Combes, as is probable, will be as persistent in ferreting out nominally secular bodies that will attempt to continue the work of the monastic schools, as he has been successful in rebuking the religious orders themselves.

We should be glad to believe that the great Parisian factory of ancient works of art has been unearthed, and a check administered to the business. It is certain at least that extensive fabrication of modern paintings has been discovered, and that the scandal reaches even to the Louvre, where, among other objects of supposed antiquity, the authenticity of the famous and costly "crown of Semiramis" has been put in question. Forgeries of ancient goldsmiths' work are of a peculiarly insidious character, and it may be recalled that some of the handsomest pieces in our own Metropolitan Museum cause connoisseurs to wag their heads sorrowfully. Such incidents as that at Paris show that the requirement of skill in museum curators must be considerably increased. The forgers can be beaten only by a connoisseurship superior to their own dexterity. The best curators will be deceived at times, but as forgery becomes more and more a fine art and an established industry, only the best will be tolerable. We may call attention also to a request in the current number of *Les Arts* for a museum of registered impostures and fabrications. Such an institution would not lack utility, and every great collection, by a careful weeding process, could easily start such an exhibit on a sufficient scale—from its own store.

Chancellor von Bülow's defence of his recent foreign policy, in the Reichstag on Thursday, will at least add to the gayety of nations, and will do nothing to impair their comity. In the Venezuela matter he insisted that the Government had acted with dignity and wisdom, but he refused to commit the Empire to an identical course in any similar case which might arise. Some very pungent comment on Ambassador Speck von Sternburg's amiable indiscretions, which culminated in the very happy characterization of that nobleman as Germany's "Expiatory Envoy" to the United States, produced the retort that Von Bülow had denied the accuracy of the Sternburg interview in the *North German Gazette*. It is evidently in this semi-official organ that one is purged of folly, and wisdom is justified of her children. Answering captious criticism of Baron Sternburg's choice of an American wife, Von Bülow neither affirmed nor denied the propriety of such a match; but when he quoted Bismarck as saying that, in a previous instance, to refuse permission to a German diplomat to marry an American "would exercise an extremely unfavorable influence upon our relations with the United States," he showed a deficient sense of humor.

Of a more serious character than Von Bülow's genial apology for his official course is the report that Germany and Great Britain will try to prevent any reference of the Venezuela dispute to the Hague Tribunal, and will resume direct negotiations with Venezuela. In any case, their temper is such that Minister Bowen, as plenipotentiary for Venezuela, has had to remind these two great Powers that the preliminary cash payment, due April 1, will not be made until the protocol referring the question of preference to the Hague Tribunal has been signed. Mr. Bowen would hardly have taken so unusual a course without grave reasons. The fact appears to be, first, that Germany is none too friendly to an international arbitration court which is in a sense superior to the Empire; secondly, that a large class of the Venezuelan claims—those of the Disconto-Gesellschaft were ridiculed last week in the Reichstag—would hardly bear the scrutiny of an impartial court. It is probable that some of the German creditors would prefer any kind of cash settlement to a judicial finding. But it would be highly unfortunate if so interesting a question as that of international preferential claims—one that the jurists of the Hague Tribunal are eminently qualified to settle—should fail of an authoritative decision. Aside from this, the attempt to go behind Mr. Bowen's settlement would inevitably create an impression that the claims of England and Germany were doubtful. It may well be questioned if Venezuela will consent to the reopening of the negotiations. Her interest is that of all the smaller nations—to enhance the authority of courts of arbitration. Direct dealing with greatly stronger Powers is always terminable at the will of the stronger, and, as the Venezuelan case itself shows plainly, the dénouement tends to follow the fable of the wolf and the lamb.

THE STRIKE VERDICT.

In weighing the report of the Anthracite Strike Commission, we have to look both at the case it had in hand and the general attitude and demands of organized labor all over the country; both to immediate results and remote effects. And, first, we note with pleasure the emphatic way in which the unanimous Commission arraigns the Mine Workers' Union for acts of intimidation and violence, culminating in murder, denounces the boycott as an illegal and abhorrent weapon, and vindicates the rights of free labor. This is a splendid body of doctrine. It goes to the root of union tyranny. We expected no less from a Commission on which sat such outspoken men as Judge Gray and Bishop Spalding. "A labor or other organization whose purposes can be accomplished only by the violation of law and order of society, has no right to exist." Those are golden words. To have had them thus authoritatively uttered is of itself cause for gratitude to the Commission.

Along with this clear and high denunciation of the Union's methods goes the practical granting of its demands. The men get their 10 per cent. advance in wages. Their hours of labor are, at the same time, cut down. In the matter of checking and "topping" coal, as also of car distribution, the Commission appears to have gone nearly the full length of the miners' demands. They have won what the operators vowed they could not possibly concede. Whether these can yield it now without permanently increasing the price of coal, remains to be seen. The steadiness of the "coalers" in the stock market, in face of the advance in wages for mining which the Commission's report provides for, is pretty good evidence that the operators believe that they can recoup themselves in some way from the sales of coal. In other words, they can take the 10 per cent. increase out of the consumers. This is not at all unlikely. They may even take more. The shortage of last winter has led people to look upon coal at any price as a benefaction. Householders are no longer disposed to higgle over such small differences as twenty-five or fifty cents per ton. Thus the element of personal resistance to an advance in price, which has heretofore been formidable, has largely disappeared. Public opinion is now ready to concede something in this direction. The purely economical side of the case is the question how far anthracite is indispensable—that is, not liable to be superseded by bituminous coal. We may assume that the producers of anthracite will, if they have not already done so, form a combination sufficiently strong to put limits upon competition among themselves. Then it will be a matter of experiment how far the producers of bituminous can penetrate into their territory. The higher the price of anthracite, the wider will be the door for bituminous to come in. At some future time society may have to reckon with a combination between the anthracite and the bituminous interests, but nothing of that kind is possible now. The law of competition will soon decide whether the advance of wages in the anthracite field can be taken out of the consumer or not.

The report intimates that the Union is founded on a bad system, which makes it difficult for the operators to bargain with the leaders. The Commission also discredits the assertions of the miners that conditions of life in the anthracite region were intolerable, and that wages were shockingly low by comparison. The excuses put forward for child labor in the mines are riddled by the report, of which a very significant paragraph is that which concerns the status of minors in a union. The Commission says: "We believe it is unwise and impolitic to permit boys of immature age and judgment to participate in deciding the policy and actions of a labor union. We think no one should have such a voice in the affairs of a union until he has reached his legal majority." In this opinion the Commission virtually condemns the ordering of the late strike. It is notorious that the older miners were against the strike, and that the Hazleton Convention was in the hands of delegates elected by breaker-boys, whose votes made up the majority for the strike. These youthful unionists voted quite as much in the interest of a holiday and a scrimmage as in behalf of the rights of labor. They were throughout the strike a very dangerous element. Their mischief-making readily passed over into rowdyism, and created an atmosphere of disorder in which criminal outrages became possible. A history of the strike which omitted to mention these breaker-boys as an irresponsible element in the union, and as constant fomenters of violence throughout the strike, would be lamentably incomplete. So would the Strike Commission's report have been if it had failed to point out this inherent viciousness in the organization of the United Mine Workers.

We fear that this organization will shed the Commission's rebukes like so much water. "That is all right," they will say, "but we have our increased wages and shortened hours and the practical recognition of the union, just the same." It was in order to secure these results that they created a reign of terror in the coalfields last summer, boycotted men, women, and children, and clubbed and murdered independent laborers. Without violence, without the boycott, they would not have succeeded. The Commission practically admit this. Which, then, are the miners most likely to take to heart—the fact that their plan of terrorism and blood won a victory for them, or the other fact, that they are severely reproved at the moment of triumph? What is likely to be the net effect in Waterbury, or among the New Haven and other labor unions contemplating a strike? To us it seems probable that shrewd labor agitators will see in John Mitchell's success a plain hint to do as he did—that is, publicly deprecate violence while doing nothing to stop it and allowing his locals to have full swing; to draw the boycott tight, and to denounce non-union men as enemies of their class.

Contributory to this we must regard the Commission's visiting with an equal censure the stubbornness of both sides in holding out to so great a pitch of public anxiety and distress. In view of its present findings regarding wages and other relations, those who before held the operators to be exclusively to blame for the coal crisis, will be confirmed in such condemnation. The truth is, however, that these findings have no bearing whatever on the question of the operators' responsibility. The differences between them and the Union were subjects for arbitration undoubtedly; but unless on the assumption that a strike is presumptively just, there can be no escape from the burden of the famine resting upon the shoulders of those who ordered the strike of May last. They created the situation which hourly grew more perilous; and if the peril became a reason for the operators' yielding, then the assailed must be for ever in the wrong, and the assailants need only be persistent enough and heartless enough to persuade the suffering public in the end that the oppression is all on the side of their victims. Nor must it be forgotten that the operators were not unwilling to discuss grievances with their own people, and that the Commission does not condemn them for not recognizing the United Mine Workers.

As for the particular and most difficult arbitration referred to the Commission, the solution arrived at has much to commend it. In the first place, the settlement is to be for three years at least. For that length of time we shall be free from the convulsions and alarms of last autumn. Next, there is provision for a board of conciliation, to hear and determine any disputes which may arise about the interpretation of the award itself, or other controversies between miners and operators. Obviously, there is here the germ at least of a system of permanent arbitration, and the doing away with the old chronic state of warfare in the coal regions. Thanks are due the Commissioners for their patient and truly disinterested labors.

THE ISTHMIAN CANAL TO-DAY.

The vote in the Senate ratifying the Isthmian Canal Treaty assures the world that the work of uniting the At-

lantic and Pacific Oceans by a canal of sufficient dimensions to admit the passage of the largest ships afloat will be accomplished within a measurable time. As no such assurance has ever been given to mankind before, we may fairly point to the Senate's action as an epoch-making event. It may be interesting at this juncture to see what the United States has bought for the $40,000,000 which we are to pay to the French Company for its holdings in the Isthmus of Panama.

The International Technical Commission of 1898 reported that the De Lesseps company received from the sale of its securities $260,000,000, that there had been actually expended on the isthmus the sum of $156,400,000, and that of this sum $88,600,000 had been laid out on the work of excavation and embankment. The difference between the two sums last mentioned represents the purchase of the Panama Railway and other expenditures which, if not really necessary, were inevitable at the inception of so vast an undertaking. Thus was gained a great deal of experience of a costly nature which will not be necessary to acquire a second time, but which may be properly reckoned as a valuable asset to any party buying the property with a view to its completion. It is quite within bounds to say that what we have bought is worth more than we shall pay for it. And if it be true, as some of our foremost engineers believe, that the De Lesseps route is the only practicable one for a canal between the oceans, then our bargain is so much the better. The estimate made by our own commission of the value of the property as it stands was exactly the amount that we are to pay, but, of course, they were bound to make the best possible terms for their own Government.

The extreme length of the canal is forty-six miles, of which nearly one-half will be at sea level. Eighteen miles have been already completed, and the intervening higher lands have been materially cut. It was the opinion of the international commission that two-fifths of the whole work has already been done. The original intention of De Lesseps was to make a sea-level canal, but this plan was abandoned as too costly. A system of lockage was adopted which will be followed in the future progress of the work. According to this plan there will be eight locks between Colon and Panama. The commission reported that there was nothing in the physical conditions of the isthmus to prevent a change from the lockage system to a sea-level canal if the latter should seem desirable in the future.

The only engineering problems of great importance on the Panama route are the Culebra Cut and the floods of the Chagres River. The summit cut at Culebra is nearly eight miles long, and at the highest point the bottom of the canal is 286 feet below the natural surface of the ground. A considerable part of this work was done before the De Lesseps company failed. The material to be excavated consists of an indurated clay. Much difficulty was encountered by the French engineers by reason of the sliding of the hillside as the cut proceeded. It has been ascertained that this was due to the saturation of the ground, and that when it is properly drained it stands firm. As regards the Chagres floods, the report of our commission says that they can be controlled by a dam at Bohio, and that the retained waters will be useful in operating the canal in the dry months.

The cost of completing the canal as estimated by our own commission, of which Rear-Admiral Walker is President, is $144,233,358, and the time necessary to do the work ten years. Assuming that the Colombian Government promptly ratifies the treaty, the work of excavation can be resumed where the French company left it, in about eighteen months.

When the De Lesseps company failed, it was apparent to everybody that the work of piercing the isthmus was too great to be performed as a private enterprise or by any government except a very rich one. M. de Lesseps brought to his company every advantage that a private undertaking could enjoy. As the builder of the Suez Canal, he had acquired a prestige not enjoyed by any other engineer, living or dead. The financial results of that work had been dazzling, and had excited the imagination of the French people in a high degree. Patriotic pride, too, largely entered into the Panama Canal. It was believed that France could do anything that her great engineer should advise, and she could undoubtedly have completed this great work if the French Government had lent its own credit to the undertaking. But it was not within the compass of volunteer effort, and it would probably not be so now, even if the threat of a competing canal were not held over it.

The Nicaragua Canal may now be considered defunct. Whether it was originally begun like the De Lesseps enterprise as a bona-fide attempt to build, by private means, a waterway 183 miles long and large enough for modern steamships, or whether it was intended from the start to sell it to the Government of the United States, it is abandoned by all men and governments. We shall probably see bills introduced in future Congresses to pay the heirs and executors of the Nicaragua Canal for the work they tried to do.

THE CASE OF MAJOR PLIMLEY.

In the saving—yet so as by fire—of the public service from the calamity of having Major William Plimley made Assistant Treasurer, there is matter for reproof and instruction, as well as congratulation. The appointment was one which should never have been made. The nominee was scandalously unfit. His record in other offices in this city was such as to disqualify him absolutely for a position of delicate responsibility, like the Assistant Treasurer's. Not to put too fine a point upon it, Major Plimley was perfectly well known by bankers and others to have used, or to have attempted to use, his public office as a means of private pecuniary gain. Operations that would not bear public scrutiny characterized his career in the Post-office and as Commissioner of Jurors. These facts having been finally made known in high circles at Washington, the shrieking absurdity of Major Plimley's appointment to the Treasurership became apparent, even there.

In this city it was matter of jocose or astonished comment from the first. Business men were complaining that they did not know him. Politicians chuckled over knowing him too well. Plimley has been for years a political rounder and perennial office-seeker. He was long a Platt hack. Latterly he has sunk still lower than that, and become a Quigg hanger-on. The idea of naming such a man, down on his luck, for the important office so long filled by the late Conrad N. Jordan, would seem one that could never have occurred to people out of bedlam. Yet he was not merely appointed, but confirmed by the Senate; and it was only a lucky chance that revealed to the Finance Committee and to the President how grossly they had been deceived. They found out their mistake in time, but how did they ever fall into it originally? Under what sort of political system do we live when a roving political adventurer like Plimley can come so near getting into one of the most important offices in the gift of the President?

Mr. Roosevelt cannot be held blameless in this matter. He was deceived, no doubt, in the character of Plimley, but he had no business to be deceived. He is too old a bird to be caught by Platt's chaff. It was his duty to go behind the recommendations of that veteran debaucher of the public service, and of his dummy Depew, and to inquire who and what manner of man it was they were asking him to appoint. Half a dozen letters to friends in this city would have brought him full assurance of the worthlessness of the nominee. The President set about filling the office of Assistant Treasurer in the correct way. He looked for a man well known in the business world. The position he first offered to Mr. Sheldon, then to Mr. Bacon. Both declined, and then Mr. Roosevelt, apparently in a fit of impatience, turned to Platt. That worthy, of course, had a man up his sleeve, and promptly pulled out Plimley. The Pres-

ident took him, evidently without due investigation, on the theory, as it was explained, that it was "impossible to find a $30,000 man for an $8,000 job." But that was no excuse for taking a thirty-cent man for it.

This notion that every honest and capable man in New York is earning from $20,000 to $30,000 a year is flattering to our pride, but we fear that it would break down on oath and under severe cross-examination. We are acquainted, of course, with the "sacrifice" which lawyers make when they give up their practice to take a judicial salary of $17,500; and yet we are credibly informed that there are some good lawyers in this city who make a few hundreds less than that. Similarly, we are persuaded that if President Roosevelt had persisted in his search, he could have found a trustworthy and able business man willing to assume the duties of Assistant Treasurer. We venture to say that the Clearing House could have given him his choice of a dozen such. Or, if he found it so difficult to obtain the right man outside, why did he not promote some one already in the Treasury service? Mr. Conrad Jordan rose from the ranks in that way, and his efficiency was all the greater from his having been bred to the business. In any case, it would have been better to leave the office forever vacant than to put into it a shady character like Major Plimley.

The work of the Assistant Treasurer at New York is of extreme delicacy and importance. He has to be in touch with banking interests and to have the whole monetary situation at command. As intermediary between New York financial institutions and the Secretary of the Treasury, it is incumbent upon him not only to be above the suspicion of dishonesty, but to be singularly intelligent and informed, to be able to make rapid decisions, and to give sound advice to his chief at Washington. The part which Mr. Jordan played in the crises of 1893 and 1895 in known only to men on the inside, but it was of the greatest value. To pitchfork a ne'er-do-weel like Major Plimley into an office where such vast financial interests daily interpose, would be to make a mock of the public service. As we have said, it is wholly inexcusable in President Roosevelt to have allowed himself to be so easily tricked in that matter. As for Senators Platt and Depew, the incident only furnishes one proof more that they really care not a straw for the best business interests of the city, and would make a party football of an office second only in financial importance to that of the Secretary of the Treasury. Could Senators elected by the people have done worse?

It is worth recording that one gentleman who furnished the *Evening Post* with conclusive proof of Plimley's bad character, is said to have manifested something like abject fear at the thought of its becoming known that he had done so. He would not have it made public for $10,000. It would mean his business ruin. Such alarm is all too common. It accounts for the increasing numbers of those who come secretly to furnish evidence of rascality, and to bid the fearless editor strike and spare not, but who always wind up with the fervent plea, or strict injunction, "For Heaven's sake, don't mention my name!" This terror-stricken state of mind is exactly the thing which a mercenary and unscrupulous political organization like Platt's aims at producing in society, and especially in the business world. It wants to have the impression go forth that no man can oppose it and prosper. To refuse to sign its petitions; to expose its scoundrels; to dare to stand up in public against its nefarious machinations—that, it would have the community understand, spells ruin. Nor is pretence or bluster its only weapon. It has numberless back-door business affiliations. Able to throw "good things" now and then to favored banks, it gets a hold upon their directorates which it uses without mercy. A pronounced anti-Platt man may suddenly find it mysteriously difficult to get his notes discounted. Loans are called. Business is strangely withheld. The thing cannot be traced, but a sort of financial blight falls upon the merchant or the financier who has defied the machine. The few cases of the kind that actually occur are bruited abroad,, and become multiplied and magnified in the excited imagination of business men. Hence their civic cowardice. Hence the growingly arrogant tyranny of the political freebooters who call themselves the party organization.

THE MORTGAGE-TAX BILL.

The Mortgage-Tax bill wnich has been brewing at Albany ever since Gov. Odell's message was presented, was introduced on Thursday. The last Legislature adjourned on the 28th of March. Unless the present session shall be considerably lengthened, the time for considering this measure will be brief, and not at all commensurate with its importance. We presume that the delay in bringing the measure forward was not due to design, but rather to its inherent difficulties, which are formidable enough to warrant even greater procrastination than has already occurred.

The measure provides for the taxation of mortgages on real estate in New York. The tax is to be levied at the place where the land is situated, and if it is not paid the land is to be sold. If there is more than one mortgage on the property, each one must be taxed, and the property must be sold for a default on either. It is immaterial whether the owner of the mortgage is a citizen of New York or not. His residence may be in another State and he may be taxed there for the same mortgage, in which case the paper security would be taxed in one place, the land security in another, and the land itself would be taxed also against the owner of the fee. And here we have triple taxation.

The right of New York to tax all the tangible property situated within its borders, irrespective of the owner's residence, is not questioned; but its right to tax the claim which a citizen of Massachusetts holds against a citizen of New York is more than doubtful. No such right would be asserted or imagined if the claim were not secured by a particular kind of pledge—that is, by a mortgage on land. If the credit of the New York borrower were good without such pledge, or if he should give any other kind of security, New York would not extend her taxing power over the Massachusetts lender. But it is plain that without this absurd and probably unconstitutional stretch of authority the tax on mortgages cannot be made effective; for if those owned in other States were exempt, while those owned here were taxed, there would be an extensive transfer of that class of securities to other jurisdictions. A mere scratch of the pen—that is, an assignment—would be sufficient for this purpose. So it would be impossible to prepare, or to keep in good working order, a list of taxable mortgages for the use of the public authorities.

The difficulties attending the preparation of the list are formidable in any case. The bill provides that the lien of the tax shall take effect on the first day of July in each year, and that notice of the amount of the tax shall be given in September after the lists have been corrected, and the tax shall be payable at the office of the county clerk or register where the mortgage is recorded. Now what is meant by a list and by the correction of a list? There are probably 100,000 live mortgages and 50,000 obsolete ones in this city. They are recorded in books in the register's office. Only a single person can use a book at one time, and these books are constantly in use by lawyers for purposes connected with litigation in the courts. To make out a list for purposes of taxation a schedule must be prepared, showing ten separate entries: (1) the name of the mortgagor; (2) the name of the mortgagee; (3) the original amount of the indebtedness; (4) the present amount of the indebtedness (which can be furnished only by the holder of the bond accompanying the mortgage); (5) the amount of interest overdue, if any; (6) the amount of the tax as calculated by the register; (7) the amount of the tax after deducting payments of principal already made; (8) date of payment of tax; (9) date of appeal to State Tax Commissioners, or to the courts, if appeal is taken; (10) "remarks." All of these requirements were specified in the

schedule accompanying the Mortgage-Tax bill which was before a former Legislature.

The preparation of such a list is obviously a gigantic undertaking, but the correction of it is even greater. The list must be posted up in the register's office and is to be taken as final unless the holders of mortgages come and examine it and point out errors. Then there will be opportunity for argument between the mortgage holder and the register (who is really the collector of the tax) on disputed points, and when the proper corrections are decided upon they must be entered in the proper place on the same list, since the list of any year will form the basis and starting-point of the list for the next year. This would not be a very onerous task if the number of mortgages to be catalogued were very small, but how would it be in the county of New York or any other large county? Think of the crowds of people who would be thronging the approaches to the register's office, and jostling each other, and waiting their turn to get access to the lists and also to the books from which the lists are prepared. Under the terms of the bill, citizens of other States holding mortgages on property in New York must come or send agents to inspect the lists. If there has been a second or a third mortgage on the property, which has become obsolete by payment, but has not been cancelled, it will be taxed, and then, perhaps, nobody will have any interest to look for such a lien. In such a case the land would be sold for non-payment of the tax just the same. Obsolete mortgages arising from sales under foreclosure are almost infinite in number, but the fact of foreclosure is not shown on the register's books.

These are only a few of the complications certain to arise under the Mortgage-Tax bill. If passed it will introduce endless confusion in the ordinary business of the community, and will probably be found in the end unworkable. When we reflect that it is founded upon a wrong principle, and is condemned, on both fiscal and moral grounds, by the highest authorities on taxation, and has been repeatedly rejected by former Legislatures, we can only wonder whether the present Legislature expects to "jam it through" in the short time which presumably remains of the present session.

CITANIA.

[SALAMANCA, June, 1902.]

In the northwestern part of Portugal lies a district called "Entre Douro e Minho" from its position between those two historic rivers; it is not only one of the most interesting regions of the country, but in many ways the most beautiful. Between the natural richness of its soil and the industry of its thrifty peasant population, the valleys and small plains are literally gardens of greenery in early summer, with a perfect shelter and background of heavily wooded hill-slopes, dotted with towns, churches, and often shrines. Unfortunately, railway communications are slow and uncomfortable—even for Portugal; but the inns, which have the double quality of goodness and cheapness, might well induce a traveller with energies still unexhausted by the conventional, yet undesirably greater, attractions of Alcobaça, Batalha, and Thomar (all lying far to the south), to pause before rushing at Pampilhosa into the "Sud Express" for Paris with the conviction, defensible it is true, that the sights of the country have been done.

This comparative remoteness preserves to Northern Portugal its singularly unspoiled characteristic peasant life, full of color and movement, the only approach to which in Western Europe is possibly to be found in Sardinia. To the archæologist and student of bygone civilizations the whole region offers, moreover, a very peculiar interest deriving directly from the above-mentioned union of fertile stretches with hilly fastnesses, of which the early Celt-Iberian inhabitants availed themselves in the construction of towns, now entirely ruined, but still perfectly traceable on several summits of no great elevation. The most important as well as best known of these goes by the generic name of *Citania;* and as many readers of the *Nation* are probably unfamiliar with Mr. Oswald Crawfurd's 'Portugal, Old and New,' or with Mr. Émile Cartailhac's authoritative work,'Les Âges Préhistoriques en Espagne'—the only commonly accessible books on the subject—I feel some warrant in presenting an account of a recent visit to those vestiges of an ancient people unmentioned in most books of Portuguese travel, and disposed of by the invaluable Baedeker in a short paragraph of small print. Moreover, the latest investigations have rendered details of interest not contained in either of the above special works.

The ruins of Citania, and its immediate neighbor, Sabroso, are situated about midway between the two important towns of Braga and Guimaraes, these last two connected by a truly superb highroad in excellent repair, and for the most part so embowered in vine-swathed trees that the way suggests an avenue in a noble park decked out for some festal occasion. Of the many lovely drives in this district, or indeed in Portugal, none appeared comparable to this for sustained, finished, quiet beauty. The short day's excursion is accomplished in a roomy two-horse landau or travelling carriage for the very moderate price of six thousand reis, which, in the present depreciated condition of Portuguese money, may stand for about five dollars and a half. Add to this the sight of Braga and Guimaraes, quaint with curving streets and balconied domestic architecture so different from the tamely successive white walls and red tiles of the south, and one is more than repaid for the exasperating experience of the crawling *Bummelzug.*

The midway halt of Caldas das Taipas, a local health resort, embedded in luscious foliage, is the starting-point for Citania, at the neighborhood of which one arrives by a fair country road leading to the hamlet of Briteiros, commanded by the small dome-shaped eminence on which the ruins stand. At Caldas, the travelling-carriage is very likely to be encircled by a ring of spectators, interested and even sympathetic. There is, by the way, no more striking contrast between the two countries that compose the Iberian Peninsula than in the very general practical helpfulness one meets with in Portugal as against the indifferent aloofness of bystanders across the nearest border. A proof of this I found in the unusual "traveller's luck" that befell me here. In the midst of a debate as to the wisdom of engaging a local guide and saddle-horse for the side-trip, a stranger came forward with an offer of his services for a thorough visit in return for a lift to the next town. His credentials were beyond criticism, for this *cavalheiro* turned out to be a local land-agent, whose knowledge of Citania had come through several years' service as steward on the large estates of the late Francisco Martins Sarmento, the accomplished local antiquary who, after discovering the ruins, made them known to the scientific world in 1874. A trifle of persistence, with a working knowledge of uncouth Portuguese, thus placed me under obligation to a most efficient guide, whose modesty forbids either mention of his name or ample recognition of the fashion in which he interprets the traditional hospitality of his country.

From the tiny hamlet of Briteiros at the foot of the hill that bulks steadily larger as we spin along the country road from Caldas, bordered with thatched stone cottages and well-tilled fields, two approaches lead to the top. The easier, circuitous path, preferable on all accounts, discloses the intelligent purpose that guided the selection of the site and the construction of the massive fortifications guarding the approach from the less defensible quarter, for after a comparatively easy ascent of twenty-five minutes along the roughish footpath, a sudden turn brings one face to face with the remains of a tolerably preserved guard-wall constructed on the very spot where a *coup de main* from the valley below might have carried the whole eminence. Here, the hill shows rather as a promontory than a detached height, its weakest point blocked by the aforementioned wall, about a yard in thickness and probably between twelve and fifteen feet high in its original state. Like the other constructions of the town, this is composed of smooth-faced blocks of stone of unequal sizes, so fitted together, without cement, as to present the appearance of carefully built masonry; the cleavage of the strata is so clean that stonecutters must have had little more than finishing to do. From about this point the whole crest of the hill is traversed in its length by a narrow paved street, long protected by the rubbish only recently cleared away, for its paving-stones show some signs of wear, but only such as might have been made by human feet, not by beasts of burden. On either side of this narrow roadway are remains of low walls, of the usual construction of the locality, the original height of which can be only guessed at because of the devastation which has left but their stumps standing; one or two courses alone remain. Stepping over these, we find scattered about the plateau clusters of foundations of buildings, some circular, some oblong, in shape, which it requires no great effort to recognize as having once served the purposes of the early inhabitants

either as dwellings or as storehouses; to the question of their designation I shall presently return.

Close to the middle of the hilltop stands what my guide indicated as the mouth of the public fountain of the settlement, a rough opening of the same sort of primitive masonry, several of the stones of which show signs of much rubbing. On examining them, there came into my mind the well-curb at S. Gimignano, worn into gutters by the friction of bucket ropes of many successive generations. Near by, a fairly regular ridge of the same closely fitted stonework carries all along its upper surface for many yards a carefully grooved runlet, which cannot have been anything else than the tiny aqueduct supplying the wants of the settlement. But much the most curious, as well as significant, discovery since the publication of the authorities mentioned above is that of an opening which in the plains would probably be passed carelessly by as that of an old well. Taken into account, however, with the existence of another aperture eight or nine hundred feet below, and a full half-mile away on the bank of the little river Este, it suggests, as my guide said, one of those strangely laborious tunnels through which the primitive inhabitants of hill-cities used to guard against the cutting-off of their water-supply in a state of siege. One can only wish for time and means to make a thorough exploration, though I understand arrangements are already made for following up the passage from the river end, which is clear for some little distance. The importance of this point in deciding the nature and purpose of the ruins, it is hardly possible to overestimate.

Another interesting feature, before we pass to the ruins proper, is the presence, in somewhat striking abundance at irregular intervals over the top of the hill, of conical stones ranging in height from one to about three feet. No one can fail to observe them, but what they were meant for is a strange puzzle. As Mr. Crawfurd says, if they occurred in the Far East, there would be no doubt as to the part they played in religious worship; but these cartridge-shaped objects among primitive Celt-Iberians can hardly be supposed to have fulfilled such functions. Besides, their great numbers weaken any such conjecture, for they are scattered all about, intact or broken, and must have been originally abundant enough to furnish at least one specimen for every building in the place. It must also be noted that no single structure on the hill gives ground for the supposition of a temple or place of worship. The hypothesis of the "totem" seems either not to have occurred to any of the European investigators, or to have been dismissed with silent contempt.

Much the most important point remains yet to be examined, namely, the real nature of the buildings themselves. So far as guesswork can help us, there is reason to believe that their original height did not, as a rule, exceed eight or nine feet; and through the labors of Sarmento two of them were some years ago reconstructed in accordance with that belief near the edge of the steep face of the hill commanding all the lower valley. Most of these buildings are, as was said, circular, with an average diameter of, perhaps, twelve feet; none that I found the opportunity of measuring came within near approach of Mr. Crawfurd's "twenty-one feet in diameter." The oblong ones are comparatively few in number. The thatch, which, according to some authorities, originally formed the roof, might easily have been supplied from the fields below, and the continued use of the same substance for the farm-houses of the neighborhood certainly gives color to this conjecture; yet the fragments of tiles which, till within a few years ago, were found in quantities strewn about among the ruins, would seem to point to a different kind of covering. Within recent times, the cleaning processes of archæologists have removed all these broken shards in part to private collections, but also in sufficient amount to the local museum of Guimaraes to give one all the data desirable for inference. When I saw the place, most of the interesting parts were as clean-swept as a well-kept private yard. From the spot where the remains are thickest, the descent is extremely abrupt, a short ten minutes being sufficient to bring one to Briteiros once more.

That these singular ruins were placed for safety at the summit of this precipitous hill, guarded on the accessible side by the stout defensive wall, cannot be doubted for a moment:

> "In yon straight path a thousand
> Might well be stopped by three."

But it seems to myself extremely improbable that the buildings, circular or oblong, could have been (as some authorities hold) nothing more than storehouses for grain or other valuable produce. The selection of secure heights for constant dwelling purposes is one of the most natural of primitive dispositions among people almost daily exposed to the risk of hostile raids. That the buildings, crowded together in irregular array, were unsuitable as houses, can hardly give pause to any one who observes how little the state of domestic promiscuity affects the huddled populations of the humbler type, whether within or without the pale of civilization. Nay, that very form of social compression serves as a convenient means of prompt communication when danger threatens. And the comparatively recent discovery of the fountain-mouth, the small aqueduct, and the subterranean passage would give marked support to the opinion that Citania was properly a town.

But this hill is by no means the only one on which such remains may be found. A few furlongs away is another, on the summit of which there may still be seen the vestiges of a settlement to which is given the name of Sabroso. A chance acquaintance, professedly familiar with the greater part of the Minho province, assured me that during sporting expeditions he had in several places come across fragments indicative of similar occupation which are only waiting for the explorer. All of these bear the same general characters, but it is evident that they do not all belong to one period, for the quality of the masonry is found to differ here and there, while the much less ancient date of some of them can, as in the case of Sabroso, be established through the unmistakable signs of Roman influence on the objects found among the ruins. The small local museum at Guimaraes makes this clear at the most casual glance.

As to the state of civilization attained by the inhabitants, it is sufficiently attested by the various articles of glass (such as beads), pottery, and iron implements, which, in the case of Citania at least, have all been removed, classified, and ticketed. The arts of ornamentation, too, were not neglected. There may be found at various points well-cut large stones bearing on their edges a carved moulding, the pattern of which resembles an ordinary woven rope, the strands being imitated very fairly indeed; this is reproduced by clever Portuguese stonecutters in the pedestal of the monument now in process of construction to the memory of Sarmento. Also, rude stone images exist, such as representations of domestic animals much like the attempts of ambitious schoolboys; so that in one case there is some doubt as to whether the design was meant for a nondescript dog or an abnormally lanky pig. One elaborately carved stone, of huge dimensions, has had the unusual fortune of serving as a crux for archæologists and of migrating in a totally unprecedented manner. This is the celebrated *Pedra Formosa*. It is a great slab of dark red stone, about nine feet by five, and more than one foot in thickness, of which the upper, tolerably smooth surface is cut into curious patterns of long parallel grooves radiating from holes bored through or nearly through the whole mass, the under surface being left in the rough. From the positions of these holes and grooves it has been somewhat hastily conjectured that the Pedra Formosa in its original situation was placed horizontally and served as a sacrificial altar for human victims; according to this hypothesis, the holes were resting-places for various parts of the wretch's frame, while the grooves were gutters for collecting the flow from veins or arteries opened at various points on the body. It does not seem to have occurred to the authors of this explanation that a more accurate correspondence in these designs with the average proportions of the human frame might lend support to their conceptions. What this stone was meant for, in short, nobody has any real knowledge. Its changes of habitat have certainly been exceptional. For centuries it lay on the top of the hill, as old Portuguese authorities, ignorant of the other ruins, testify, until an enterprising parish priest, some generations ago, induced his flock to transport it to the porch of the small chapel of Saint Stephen, near the bottom of the hill, where it again remained undisturbed for some time. Sarmento, however, with true archæological zeal, had it again taken up the hill at enormous expense, and placed in one of the reconstructed buildings; but the constant chippings of natives and tourists induced the final removal to the museum at Guimaraes, where any one may examine and theorize over it under the eye of a stern custodian.

Much the most interesting problem that offers itself for solution when one is among these ruins,

> "Sitting at the doorways of a day of long ago,"

is their antiquity, and the cognate question of the race of the builders. On both these points archæologists, Portuguese or other, have written abundantly, with the usual amount of more or less temperate criticism of divergent views. The first formal notice of the discovery, communicated to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Lisbon by the

Marquis de Souza Holstein, in 1876, is by no means decisive, for at that time investigation had not yet disclosed the variety of manufactured objects sufficient to furnish sound ethnological inductions. In the following year a somewhat discursive pamphlet by Simão Rodr. Ferreira, Oporto, sought to prove the Celt-Iberian origin of these remains—a conclusion virtually accepted by all the leading authorities today. It is worthy of note that at a famous gathering in Citania, which in 1880 brought together such men as Virchow, Henri Martin, and Quatrefages, the testimonials to Sarmento as discoverer discreetly avoided stirring up the dust of controversy, and confined themselves to those forms of elaborate compliment with which scientific men are wont to cheer one another's labors. But iron tools, glassware, pottery, and carved stonework, combined with an entire absence of flints of any sort, will be considered amply indicative that the builders belonged to no extremely remote antiquity. Nothing yet discovered (so we read) discloses any sign of Christian influences; but in the carefully sifted object-records of Sabroso several investigators have agreed in recognizing contact with the early Roman occupation of Northern Iberia. It seems, therefore, reasonable to suppose that these primitive inhabitants may have continued to occupy their fastnesses, with but little molestation, until the crowding in of more warlike populations brought about the gradual decay of an altogether peculiar set of local customs, partly by forcible conquest, partly by the assimilation with their conquerors of a population mainly agricultural and hence peaceful.

To-day, the site of the ancient town still commands a lovely view, probably little changed in its main features since, centuries ago, the unknown people looked down on the cheerful valley and across the ribbon of the river to the higher mountains beyond. Of their inheritance, the Portuguese peasants of the north know nothing, though traditions and legends concerning the vanished race might yet be found by the student of confused folklore. It would be a pleasing task to trace back through all those ages the persistence of a racial trait of the Minho province in the prevailing cheerful spirit of industry and thrift. P. T. L.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION GONE MAD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Austrian Reichsrath for some time has been considering, and by this time probably has passed, a measure so hedging about and so restricting peddling, and making the penalty in case of non-compliance so exorbitantly high, that the 16,000 peddlers of Austria and its provinces are practically deprived of every means of earning a livelihood. For, of course, most of the peddlers are past the age in which a new trade can be learned, and, besides, there are such obstacles around the learning of trades, the "civilized world" over, that the peddlers could not learn any trade if they wanted to do so. This bill is a provision for the protection of the storekeepers, and was introduced at their instance by Deputies anxious for reëlection.

One would think this the "ultima Thule" of protection, the last possible limit to which the highway robbery gently termed "economic fallacy" can be extended. But not so; there is one more step. It was reserved for the Austrian Reichsrath to achieve it in another bill—at the present writing a duly enacted law—making it unlawful for sempstresses and embroiderers of white goods to sew for customers in any place other than a factory. Sempstresses are forbidden under penalty to work in their own homes, or in the homes of their private customers.

The first bill protects the storekeeper against his *fellow-countrymen;* the second, a law, still further narrows the "protective idea," protecting the manufacturer of white goods against his *fellow-townspeople.* The class of people hit by this second bill consists almost entirely of widows and orphans. But then, whither are "people's representatives" drawn by their hearts if the choice is between widows and orphans on the one side and "infant capital" on the other?

While penning these lines I hear that the national organization of the journeymen tailors of the United States tries to compel the Toledo union of journeymen tailors to work in back shops. The circumstance that the national organization tries to impose the will of the local minority, desiring back shops, upon the local majority of journeymen tailors opposing back shops, is in itself remarkable, and an instructive sample of the brand of liberty to be expected from labor unions. But this case has another very puzzling aspect. The national organization of journeymen tailors intends to forbid all unions of journeymen tailors to work in their homes, and wants to compel them to work in the back shops attached to merchant-tailoring establishments. And, save a few exceptions, the unions are submitting to this order. Now, although there are some circumstances that do in a slight measure soften the contrast between what is a desideratum to a Viennese sempstress and an American journeyman tailor or tailoress, yet what a paradox! American tailors trying to bring about conditions that the Viennese sempstresses are straining every nerve to avert! Joseph Dick.

Toledo, March, 1903.

BOOKER WASHINGTON IN RUSSIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the following paragraphs taken from the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 15, the writer draws a comparison between the Russian serfs and our Southern slaves, and points hopefully to a common line of advance.

"Par la suite aussi, les seigneurs développèrent chez leurs serfs l'adresse des doigts en leur faisant apprendre tel ou tel métier. Beaucoup de maîtres agissaient de même en Amérique à l'égard des esclaves pour leur donner plus de valeur. Des deux côtés, l'esclavage se trouva donc être une initiation à l'industrie. Et à ce propos je mentionnerai la très intéressante lettre d'une dame russe qui, après la publication dans la *Revue* d'une étude sur Booker Washington, me pria de la mettre en rapport avec le promoteur nègre des études industrielles; 'Je voudrais lui dire,' m'écrivait-elle, 'combien me frappent les traits de ressemblance entre son peuple et le mien; l'esclavage sans doute en est la cause; je voudrais lui faire remarquer que l'apparition des mêmes idées et de la même manière de traiter les mêmes questions aux deux extrémités du globe est la preuve incontestable de la conformité de ces idées, de leur justesse, et le garant de leur réalisation future. Les idées sont comme des épidémies; elles gagnent le monde insensiblement et apparaissent tout d'un coup, sans indices, sans annonces quelconques, dans des lieux différens; elles donnent à penser que c'est la marche historique des choses qui les fait naître et qui nous amène à croire en elles.'

"N'est-il pas curieux de voir une propriétaire russe envier pour son pays l'Institut nègre de Tuskegee (Alabama), et une correspondance s'établir sur des questions de pédagogie très spéciale entre deux personnes dont la race et l'origine n'ont rien de commun? Peut-être, si les moujiks savaient lire, n'en seraient-ils pas très flattés." C. E. W.

Buffalo, N. Y., March 20, 1903.

ABOUT CULTURE AND COMMONNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is because of too great a preoccupation with the merely useful that our age is hastening toward mediocrity. In this country there are many factors making for commonness, and few, in comparison, making for culture. Let us examine the situation and see if this be not the case. Is education, as understood by most, and as it is used in common parlance, synonymous with culture? According to Matthew Arnold, it is not, and Matthew Arnold has given us a very satisfactory definition of culture. Let us draw a comparison. Architecture is called by some a fine art, but that does not make it a fine art. Rather it is the materialization of fine art. Fine art is devoid of utility. In architecture there is utility. Now we can see how education can be likened to architecture, while culture can be likened to fine art.

In the smaller colleges the aim of the student is education for utility's sake. In the universities the greater number are seeking utility. The graduates are to be professional men or journalists or engineers, and are aiming at financial success. This is education as Americans understand it, as they worship it. "The disinterested pursuit of perfection" is for the few, and is so undemocratic, so opposed to the utilitarian standards, that "education" almost taboos it.

Matthew Arnold divided the English people into three classes—barbarians, philistines, populace. We should not go so far wrong as to be misunderstood if we were to divide the American people in like manner and use the same titles. Our upper class, or barbarians, do not count for culture; they count for utility attained and used ostentatiously. Our philistines, instead of engaging in the disinterested pursuit of perfection, are very interestedly pursuing philistinism. Our populace, separated by no impassable barrier from philistinism, are reaching toward it, and may attain it. Gladstone once said the English people had made a kind of religion of inequality. We have made a religion of utility, and this is why we have much commonness and little culture.

Let it not be understood that I am belittling our colleges and universities. They are doing a great work, but they have a great work to do—a Herculean task. They are our only safeguard against the vulgarity of an ever-increasing populace. If the result is commonness, let us remember that commonness is superior to vulgarity. Cul-

ture we have, and, upon the whole, much of it, but it is so diluted with what we cannot call culture that the result is commonness. J. A. BARTHOLOMEW.

NAPLES, N. Y., March 20, 1903.

THE CERTIFICATE SYSTEM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On Friday and Saturday, March 6 and 7, a large number of teachers in preparatory schools came together at Brown University to discuss with the faculty certain aspects of college entrance requirements—in especial, the certificate system—and to form a "Brown Teachers' Association." Several papers were presented by members of the college faculty and by preparatory teachers, a more or less desultory debate followed, and the association was formed. The precise nature of the work it will do is still a little vague. But that it can be widely and variously useful to both the college and the schools is undoubted.

While its precise lines of action are yet vague, it may not be out of place to suggest that the most important task before it is not the holding of more or less acrimonious debates, but the inculcation of a somewhat different attitude on the part of the school teachers towards the university and its requirements. For the present conference but seems to confirm a fact often noted before—that teachers, in many cases, do not come to these conferences to hear what the colleges wish them to do, but to protest against the standards and the methods of the colleges. Sometimes the protest is outspoken; oftener it forms an easily discernible undercurrent of bitterness. In the present instance, it was noteworthy that the only one of the prepared speeches made by school teachers which took the attitude that the university was the final arbiter in the matter of the entrance requirements, received but slight applause, while a speech which contained a hardly veiled threat was loudly clapped.

In substance, this threat was as follows: If the colleges do not recognize that the key to the situation is in the hands of the schools, the schools can—and the speaker's tone implied *will*—cut off the supply of students. To support the right of the schools to join in settling the nature of the college entrance requirements, this speaker, in company with others, dwelt on the fact that the public-school curriculum is not constructed solely for future college students, and that the colleges cannot expect changes in the public schools to suit the college requirements. Rather, the colleges must change their requirements to suit the schools! One may well query whether, if the exigencies of the public schools are to settle what the colleges are to require for entrance, the colleges should not construct their curricula solely on the basis of the training these schools afford. Shall we then see Chemistry I. in X College eliminated because it does not follow coherently the kind of chemical training thought best in the Y High School?

The fatal misconception of the relation of the colleges to the schools which underlies such a view is evident. Here in the East at least, our colleges are not the last steps in a vast public-school system, but private institutions, admission to which is to be regarded, not as a right, but as a privilege, and a privilege which must be carefully guarded by the authorities of the colleges. If the course in a given school does not meet the demands set by a given college, the school may, of course, hope for changes in the requirements, but it cannot confidently demand changes unless it can show the requirements to be wrong in themselves. To many teachers, both in the schools and in the colleges, it seems axiomatic that if the certificate system is to endure, it can only be by means of an eager desire on the part of teachers to learn just what the colleges which grant the certificate privilege desire, and to meet those requirements. Any attempt to force the colleges into accepting whatever the schools desire to present must, sooner or later, result in disaster for the certificate system.

The question of the permanency of the certificate system was designedly excluded from the present meeting, and the teachers who came from one of the largest and best preparatory schools of New England to speak in favor of entrance by examination found their ground cut from under them. Yet there are signs, not the least of which is the formation of an association of colleges to control the schools that give certificates, that the certificate system is not working entirely well, and that the school mind is querying as to the future of the system. In the meantime, many college professors, rightly or wrongly, will interpret about as follows: "You school teachers admit examinations to be good, for you say you do not grant certificates to pupils who fail to pass your school examinations; but you object to preparing pupils for an examiner who doesn't know just what you've said and done." This is not an unnatural attitude. Most professors would hardly desire to submit their students to their colleagues for examination. Yet it is surely within the bounds of possibility that many college courses would be better taught if that were the rule. And here, after all, is the root of the matter. It is not very important that this or that faculty should feel that its dignity has been injured by sharp comments, or that this or that teacher should be unhappy because his pupils have failed to pass tests set by a college examiner; but it is of vital importance to know whether the certificate system has improved the preparation for college.

I say "improved," because, while its opponents assert it to be a mere crutch for the lame and the lazy, its supporters assert its superiority to any other conceivable method. In discussing this point, we have heard, *ad nauseam*, from both teachers and professors. Why not consult the only other persons concerned—the students? The testimony of a boy in a preparatory school will inevitably be that it is a fine thing to get out of the examinations. The same boy in college often sings a different tune. So far as I have heard the college student speak on this point, he usually says: "The certificate system is well enough for the good student. But he could pass the examinations and get in anyway. For the man of shaky preparation or abilities, it's a poor thing, because he often comes to college at great expense, struggles for three months or more with courses he isn't fit for, and then is sent away." Whether this statement is entirely frank or sound I do not pretend to say. I wish merely to point out that, the certificate system not being yet a finality, we ought to gather all the evidence, and that a large body of evidence has not yet been used. X.

PROVIDENCE, March 13, 1903.

CHAIRS OF CHINESE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just received the *Nation* for December 25, 1902, and beg to ask you whether, on page 501, column i., in speaking of chairs of Chinese in the United States, you refer to the chair in Columbia or to that in the University of California. The latter was endowed by Regent Tompkins some twenty years ago, but the land which he gave for the purpose was not sold till 1898, when it became salable for $50,000, the amount which Mr. Tompkins judged necessary. Since 1898 the chair has been filled in the person of Professor John Fryer, who for thirty years was in the service of the Chinese Government as translator and compiler, and who is probably one of the most accomplished Chinese scholars now living in America. His chair is known as "The Agassiz Professorship of Oriental Languages," but his work is chiefly in Chinese, with some attention to Japanese.

I am, very sincerely yours,

EDWARD B. CLAPP,

Professor of Greek in the University of California.

BERLIN, March 12, 1903.

FROM SUIDAS TO BLAKE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to the volume of 150 "Sonnets" published in Boston by the Rev. James Vilas Blake of Chicago and briefly reviewed in your issue of March 12, under "Recent American Poetry," I venture to express the hope that the sonnet quoted in your article is not a fair specimen either of the poetic qualities or of the originality of the remaining 149. You will find the little story, with the identical details as told in the sonnet, in the second book of Lessing's Fables, being number 28; but Lessing was—well, let us say—old-fashioned enough to give credit to Suidas, from whom he took the story.—Very respectfully,

A. B.

CHICAGO, March 16, 1903.

INDEXES THAT DO NOT INDEX.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A good example of this sort, in a book much more widely used than the one lately discussed, is the "revised and enlarged" edition of Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury,' Macmillan, 1898. The "Index of Writers," pp. 371-3, has not in any item any relation to the text. F. M.

Notes.

Hitherto unannounced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are 'The Correspondence between Ralph Waldo Emerson and Herman Grimm,' edited by Frederick W. Holls; 'Ruskin's Comments on Dante,' with an introduction by Charles Eliot Norton; 'Trent's Trust,' by Bret Harte; 'The Confiscation of John

Chandler's Estate,' by Andrew M. Davis; 'Of Education,' by R. R. Bowker; and 'Alice Freeman Palmer,' a report of a memorial service.

Prof. James A. Harrison returns to his latest study in a 'Life and Letters of Edgar Allan Poe,' in two volumes, to be published by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

In April, Harper & Bros. will publish in connection with Chapman & Hall a *de luxe* edition of the Poems of Charles Dickens, compiled and annotated by Frederic George Kitton.

Another popular edition of the works of Charles Dickens is announced by Chapman & Hall and Henry Frowde, the joint publishers of the "Oxford India Paper Dickens." They are coöperating in the production of a new, complete, and fully illustrated edition, to be known as "The Fireside Dickens." There will be twenty-two volumes in all, printed in large type on good opaque paper with decent margins, and published at a low price. The first three volumes are on the point of being issued.

'A Prairie Winter' is announced by the *Outlook* Co.

Richard G. Badger, Boston, will bring out the verse of the late Mary M. Adams, wife of the late President Charles Kendall Adams, under the title, 'The Song at Midnight.'

'How Paris Amuses Itself,' by F. Berkeley Smith, and 'Washington, its Sights and Insights,' by Mrs. Harriet E. Monroe, are in the press of Funk & Wagnalls Co.

A new Life of Andrew Jackson, by Arthur St. Clair Colyar, Nashville, was announced by the author in the third number of the *Gulf States Historical Magazine*, in terms not quite convincing of the capacity of this defender of Jackson against "two books that are largely defamation," viz., Parton's and Sumner's. The extract from his introduction is accompanied by a copy of an original oil portrait of Jackson by Earle—more like Harvard's LL.D. than like Old Hickory.

The Dictionary of National Biography, besides its supplementary three volumes already published, and a fourth contemplated, consisting wholly of corrections, is to be provided with 'An Index and Epitome' in one volume of 1,464 pages, as a brief guide to the contents of the great work. There has been a general scaling down of one-fourteenth, under Mr. Lee's editorship. Each summary will have an indication of the place of the original article. The publishers are Smith, Elder & Co. (New York: Macmillan).

The firm of Cotta, in Stuttgart, in order to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of its becoming Goethe's publishers (1806-1906), is taking time by the forelock, and has already brought out the first and twelfth volumes of its jubilee edition of Goethe's works. These are respectively the Poems and "Iphegenie," "Tasso," and "Die Natürliche Tochter." Publication will proceed at a rate to arrive abreast of the century ending 1906.

Baedeker's 'Southern Italy' in the fourteenth edition is imported by the Scribners. This indispensable assistant to the traveller whose pocket and German are both too small for "Gzell-Fell," has been thoroughly revised and brought up to date. Former loiterers about the cliffs and mountains southwards from Naples may easily verify the truth of the general principle asserted in the preface—that "charges . . . have a constant tendency to rise."

A vade-mecum of a more formidable sort is Mr. Ernest A. Baker's 'A Descriptive Guide to the Best Fiction, British and American.' This stout volume comprises some 4,500 titles, the chief translations of foreign novels, a list of historical romances arranged chronologically, and a subject-index. Since the authors are introduced alphabetically by periods, it is very easy to consult the lists. This differs from the ordinary bibliography in giving a brief hint of the plot of each book and occasionally a characterization. Obviously, Mr. Baker cannot have read all of the 4,500 "best" novels, and such a statement as that "Sidney's 'Arcadia' is . . . Gothic in manner" has not only a second-hand but an eighteenth-century tang. For all the early period of English literature the book is inadequate, but the full notes on editions and prices in the later period will save many a weary hunt through the publishers' catalogues. Mr. Baker makes frank confession that his book contains more than the usual number of errata, a few of which he enumerates. A complete list of corrections would have been more grateful amends.

'Hazell's Annual' for 1903 (New York: Scribners) has been purposely delayed in order to make a finish of 1902, and this is perhaps to be the rule hereafter. Among the year's topics are the consummation of transatlantic wireless telegraphy; the Rhodes bequests; the coronation of King Edward; consumption sanatoria, etc. Handy for reference is the survey of the world's newspapers, with leading examples. There is the usual number of new maps, with the obituary of the year, and all the statistical and biographic matter which makes this work a most valuable "cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day."

In the elegant reprints to which the Burrowes Brothers Co., Cleveland, has devoted itself, timely is Lionel Wafer's 'A New Voyage and Description of the Isthmus of America' (1681), published in 1699. The very competent editor, Mr. George Parker Winship, librarian of the John Carter Brown Library, has supplemented the text of the narrative (which was translated into many languages and reproduced in volume three of the 'Voyages' of his fellow-adventurer, Dampier) with notes drawn from the buccaneer literature of the time; besides furnishing a summary introduction. The original illustrations are given in facsimile, together with the British Admiralty map of the Darien country. The account of the aborigines lends especial interest to this relation.

There is some very happy designing in color and in black and white, by E. Mars and M. H. Squire, in Rand, McNally & Co.'s edition of Stevenson's 'Child's Garden of Verses.' The only blot on the decoration is the invariably unsuccessful attempt to improve on plain print in the cases where the verse is enclosed within an ornamental border. Some of the head and tail-pieces are noticeably dainty.

The last addition to the "Stories of the Nations," 'Mediæval India under Mohammedan Rule,' by Stanley Lane-Poole (Putnams), is a continuous and solemn warning against any dream of conquest of that, or indeed of any, Oriental people. The Muslim invasions are rehearsed, beginning with that first abortive attempt in 712 which led to nothing but a partial occupation of the valley of the Indus. Then there is a long silence until the end of the tenth century, when Mahmud of Ghazna, Mahmud the Idol-breaker, began his sixteen raids which swept the plains from the Indus to the Ganges. With him Islam arrives in India, and is the dominant force there through the Turkish kingdom of Delhi and the Moghul empire till the latter crumbled and fell in the eighteenth century, and the East India Company took its place. But, first and last, India absorbed and overcame its conquerors. They vanished or became Indian. India is still a unity, though Islam ruled it for over six centuries and a sixth of its population is now Muslim. Conquests and empires have effected nothing; the permanent is the leaven working silently in the lump. So now, when Islam no longer comes with power, fifty-thousand Hindus annually embrace it. The moral is easy to draw. The graphic accuracy of Professor Lane-Poole's delineation is above praise. Mahmud the founder, Babar of the Memoirs, Akbar in his search for a reasonable faith; Jahangir, the candid, with his oddities as we know them through Hawkins and Sir Thomas Roe; Aurangzib the Puritan; the Portuguese, the Dutch and the English in India, are all living here. In details we have noticed only one slip. On page 30, al-Farabi, the philosopher, is made part of the circle of Mahmud at Ghazna. But he died in 950, and Mahmud in 1030. Further, he would never have risked his head with Mahmud. Like his patron Sayf ad-Dawla the Hamdanid, he was a devoted Fatimite, while Mahmud was of the straitest Sunnite sect, an anthropomorphic Karramite. At Mahmud's court, al-Beruni wrote an exposure of the claims of the Fatimids to descent from the Prophet.

The monumental "Storia Letteraria d'Italia, scritta da una Società di Professori," which was undertaken by the publisher Vallardi of Milan six or seven years ago, arrives at virtual completion by the publication of Professor Francesco Flamini's 'Il Cinquecento,' a large and closely printed octavo in which Italian scholarship is seen at its best. The various literary forms of the sixteenth century, both prose and verse, receive exhaustive treatment in separate chapters, but no strain of Renaissance culture which affected literature is neglected, and the chapters on art, politics, and social ideals are among the most illuminating in the volume. Professor Flamini's erudition is remarkable, but the pages devoted to Ariosto, Castiglione, Michelangelo, Machiavelli, Tasso, indicate that critical insight and historical perspective have not suffered in the accumulation of the vast materials of research. The generation of Carducci, D'Ancona, and Pio Rajna is passing away, but the traditions of Italian scholarship in the North are safe in the hands of Professor Flamini, just as, in the South, the mantle of Francesco de Sanctis has fallen upon Benedetto Croce. An excellent bibliographical appendix completes the work.

The annual volume of the American Philological Association shows an encouraging gain in membership and a treasury balance of over $700, notwithstanding a contribution of £40 to the Platonic Lexicon in course of preparation under the editorship of Professor Campbell. This, by the way,

is to be an annual contribution for three years. The proceedings of the Pacific branch, established four years ago, show quite a different trend from that of the parent society. While the latter devotes itself almost exclusively to subjects drawn from the language and literature of Greece and Rome, the subjects considered by the Pacific branch are almost wholly mediæval or modern. On the surface it would appear that the classical interests of the Pacific Coast are not strong enough to maintain an organization of their own, or even to save themselves from being swamped by the students of mediæval and modern philology with whom they have associated themselves. The bibliographical record for the past year shows quite a heavy increase in publications by members of the Association as compared with the year before. The membership list betrays some unfortunate instances of carelessness in proof-reading.

It is of good omen that the Massachusetts State Federation of Women's Clubs has put forth a 'Syllabus for the Study of the History of Civil Service Reform,' compiled by Prof. Lucy Maynard Salmon of Vassar, with the acknowledged aid of three alumnæ. The survey is divided into eleven sections, from "Civil Service in the Colonies" to "Civil Service in State and Municipal Philanthropic Institutions," and even a twelfth, "What Remains to be Done." References to sources and authorities are given under each heading, and the titles are repeated in full at the end. We should like to see this syllabus distributed on every college athletic field. Meantime it may be had gratis of Miss Perkins, Concord, Mass.

One hundred and thirty-two words incorporated into American English, and to some extent as firmly in the speech of the mother country—in one case, *totem*, in universal scientific nomenclature—are marshalled and commented on in the October-December number of the *Journal of American Folk-lore* by Prof. Alexander F. Chamberlain of Clark University. He remarks of the word *cantico* that it was used by the Dutch and early English colonists from Massachusetts to Virginia. It is possible, then, that we may recognize it in the name of Pocantico River and Hills in Westchester County, N. Y., with its mingling of aboriginal, Dutch, and English inhabitants.

The twenty-eighth annual report of the Minister of State for Education in Japan (1900-1901) has just been received, and its text is in excellent English. Besides being rich in valuable information well digested and arranged, it has along with its chapters and tabulations three folding sheets which reveal at a glance the relative condition of popular education in the Empire. Six of the forty-eight districts show that between 90 and 95 per cent. of the school population is under instruction, and it is interesting to note that these are old centres of learning. Ten others show a percentage of between 85 and 90, and these also have been characterized by intellectual activity. Other districts, for the most part bordering on the sea, which have been noted for commerce and manufactures rather than literary products, have from 80 to 85 per cent. The lower percentages in other districts are explained by the sparseness of the population, or the existence of large spaces of untilled land, as, for example, the extreme northern provinces and Yezo. The map shows no percentages lower than 50, though Formosa is not yet included in the educational scheme, now over thirty years old. The growth, from 1896 to 1901, of from fifteen to eighty thousand pupils in the higher female, the technical and the middle schools, is shown in other diagrams. In the industrial schools—for agriculture, commerce, seamanship, etc.—the pupils taking a commercial training make one-half, and those in the agricultural schools one-fourth, of the total in attendance. Figures and diagrams show very clearly how rapidly Japan is becoming a trading nation, with ambitions for commerce rather than for war, and demonstrate also the fact that her people must increasingly colonize and find food supplies abroad. The financial diagram showing the income and expenditure of public schools for ten years —from two to thirty-six million yen— proves that the Japanese believe heartily in "the cheap defence of nations." Among the wonderful variety of subjects are chapters treating of libraries, and of the Tokio Academy, "composed of members selected from among old and venerable men of learning," to which foreigners of equal dignity "who have meritoriously labored in the interests of this empire may be admitted as associate members."

Gustav Storm, who died on February 23, was born in Norway, June 18, 1845. For a number of years he was professor at the University of Christiania. His publications, which include a large number of articles published in German and Scandinavian journals, deal with early Norwegian and Icelandic culture, with special reference to history and travels. In 1887, Storm published a pamphlet on the voyages to Vineland, which two years later appeared in English. Between 1886 and 1889 was issued his translation into Dano-Norwegian of the Heimskringla, or the Kings' Sagas, as he preferred to call it, and in 1900 the Norwegian Parliament appropriated twenty thousand kroner as a subsidy for a popular edition of the work. At the time of his death Storm was engaged on an edition of King Sverre's Saga.

—The fourth volume of the 'History of Woman Suffrage' (Rochester, N. Y.: Susan B. Anthony) carries the chronicle down to the end of the last century (1883-1900). In bulk it equals its several predecessors, and, like them, it can be read for instruction only, not for pleasure. Like them, again, it is indispensable for reference, and not merely does it summarize the proceedings of the several National Suffrage Conventions, but it exhibits under each State the present statutory condition of woman, whether for the franchise or for property rights and protection against the seducer. As before, many portraits of leading suffragists are given, including the two editors, Miss Anthony and her associate of the laboring oar, Mrs. Ida Husted Harper. The periscope embraces the progress of the cause in Great Britain, also, and her colonies, and there are appendices of testimonials in praise of the working of female suffrage in the States of the Union where it has obtained, and lists of prominent advocates of it, legislators and officeholders, very significant of the change of tone within the memory of men in middle life. Miss Anthony's devotion of means and strength to this publication from first to last has seldom been surpassed in the annals of philanthropy, as one may read in the preface. Perhaps the most interesting section is that which relates to the growth of the suffrage or anti-disabilities movement at the South, which of course was impossible before slavery was abolished, and is now impeded by the same causes (including the color line) that made and make public opinion so hard to create and concentrate in that quarter. Almost nothing could have been done, apart from the Border States, without an alliance with the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Except in Missouri, every organization has been effected since the date with which this volume opens, yet the editors can say of Kentucky that it was "the first State in the Union to grant any form of suffrage to women by special statute," viz., in its School Law of 1838 enabling widows to vote for trustees. In 1898, the Constitution of Louisiana granted suffrage, even by proxy, to all taxpaying women on all questions of taxation.

—A history of Egypt which extends to eight volumes and contains about 1,800 pages, with 135 additional pages of double-column index, might be supposed to be a very formidable aggregate. Such is the series put forth by Dr. Wallis Budge, keeper of Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities in the British Museum, and published by the Oxford University Press (New York: Henry Frowde). The whole range is indicated by the general title, "A History of Egypt from the End of the Neolithic Period to the Death of Cleopatra VII., B. C. 30." The first volume, dealing with the neolithic and archaic periods, was recently noticed in these columns. The facts presented in that volume indicated the results of excavations made within a decade and a half, and the book is a report of progress to date. It is a brief résumé, by a competent hand, of what the excavators themselves have written. It is not the final book, but it is to be welcomed for what it is. The following volumes present the historical sequence of known facts in regard to the dynasties, the rulers, and, to some small extent, to the people. There is little scope for originality, but plenty of room for picturesque presentation of the story in popular language with a view to general instruction and entertainment. Dr. Budge has made good use of this opportunity. The employment of hieroglyphic characters for the spelling of proper and official names in the midst of the text has a very learned look, but no reader need be terrified by the appearance, for this practice does not interfere with the reading of the book or the comprehension of the story in the least. And the story is one of no mean interest, particularly as two valuable expedients in illustration have been resorted to. The pages are adorned with very many woodcuts and half-tones, which give the successive steps in the growth and variation of Egyptian art, particularly that of the sculptor. Translations of a great many texts are also introduced, throwing a contemporary light upon the situation. Some of these texts, like the "Israel stela," were discovered comparatively recently; the Tell el-Amarna tablets come in for discussion for the remarkable light they throw upon the internal and external policy of the Pharaohs in the New Kingdom. The attempt is made to utilize all the discoveries

that have been made, and thus to bring the story down to date. Good judgment is shown in regard to original documents, and Dr. Budge has not burdened his pages with abstruse and weighty discussions which have no interest for the ordinary reader, and serve only to distract attention without giving valuable instruction. While these volumes constitute the most complete history of Egypt that we now have in English, the scholarly inclined will hope that Petrie will soon complete his volumes covering the later dynasties, and that he will revise his first volume, already out of date. Though Egypt's history is the oldest known, its earliest periods now need to be written almost bulletin-wise.

—J. B. Firth's 'Augustus Cæsar and the Organization of the Empire of Rome' is the latest addition to Putnam's non-juvenile series of "Heroes of the Nations." The prescribed limits of the series, of course, forbade full and minute details of a life so long and busy, but nothing really essential seems to have been omitted. Perhaps the most questionable feature in the treatment is the assignment of about one-half the volume to the period previous to the battle of Actium, since a great deal of this earlier matter has been covered, and well covered, by the lives of Cæsar and Cicero, in the same series. Mr. Firth seems more or less open to the charge of vacillation in his general estimate of Augustus, but one must admit the difficulty of arriving at any consistent evaluation of so Sphinx-like a character. He accepts the present-day theory that it was a dyarchy rather than a monarchy which Augustus established, but is ready to admit a pretty rapid throttling of the power which the Senate is supposed at first to have retained. We can hardly agree that Augustus was by temperament not a radical at all, but really a disciple of Cato. His real spirit is to be sought, not in his policy of retaining old forms and names, but in the radical alterations concealed under cover of the old terminology. The reader is constantly reminded of the bitter words of Tacitus concerning the successor of Augustus: "Proprium id Tiberio fuit, scelera nuper reperta priscis verbis obtegere." We may agree with Mr. Firth that the net result of this crafty revolution under the disguise of the old terminology was a distinctly more orderly government, so far as ordinary matters of administration were concerned, than the mismanaged republic of the preceding epoch had been able to secure; but when it comes to striking the balance between tyranny and order on the one hand and liberty and disorder on the other, opinions will differ. Nor is one compelled by any unavoidable logical process to accept the assertion that the Roman Empire as it actually developed under Augustus and his successors, was the only humanly possible outcome of the previous disorder. Many a Latinist will object vigorously to the dictum that there is hardly a trace of real moral earnestness in Horace. The famous group of odes at the beginning of Book III. is a sufficient answer to that. But, aside from points of that kind, Mr. Firth has produced a volume of very solid worth, and, as it is the only biography of Augustus in the English language, its position will no doubt be secure.

—Last October we noticed the work called 'L'Habitation Byzantine,' a handsome volume by General L. de Beylié, published at Grenoble and Paris. We have now from the same publishers (Librairie Dauphinoise) a supplement containing eleven plates, with each two, and in one case four, separate photographic views, and twenty pages of text in which are interspersed a dozen illustrations in line. The motive of this new publication has been the discovery of some, and the further examination of other, Byzantine houses in Constantinople proper and two of its suburbs—that is to say, in Stamboul, Phanar, and Galata. The author, with that frankness which distinguishes all his work, expresses doubt, conjecture, uncertainty, on every page. He thinks that four or five of these old houses are of a date before the Moslem conquest, in 1453, but that the others are probably later, and it is for the reader to decide from the photographs how much of the old spirit remains in them. There is one peculiarity which, as it seems, is shared by many, perhaps most, of the eighty houses which are characterized as Byzantine, and are exemplified by the twenty described and illustrated, and that is the use in the upper stories of overhanging walls of solid masonry supported on cut-stone corbels. In several cases there are two such corbel-courses, and two stories carried in projection, one beyond the other. In some cases the overhang is very considerable; there is one which must be of five feet, but in this case the wall is not heavy. A peculiarity still more marked and unexpected is this—the overhangs are arranged *en crémaillère;* that is to say, the upper story presents an outer wall whose plan is like the teeth of a saw, one sloping side long, and the other very short—not one-fifth of the former: this upper story projecting above a smooth-walled, right-angled ground story. What purposes, as of defence, are hinted at by this curious disposition it is hard now to conceive. The little book would be of absorbing interest but for the unsatisfactory character of the collotypes. These are of that vexatious sort which present absolutely opaque shadows, profound blackness, in which all details are lost.

—Prof. Eugène Hubert, of the University of Liège, has utilized his exhaustive researches in the archives of Belgium and Holland in a memoir on the Barrier Treaties, which, as extracted from the publications of the Royal Belgian Academy, forms a quarto volume of 400 pages (Brussels: J. Lebègue & Cie). The subject, now well-nigh forgotten, is well worth the labor which the industrious professor has devoted to it. As early as 1673, the United Provinces of Holland formulated the project of converting the Austrian Flemish possessions into a buffer state to protect them from the ambition of France, and to this they tenaciously adhered during the vicissitudes of the endless wars of Louis XIV. With the support of England, almost equally interested in curbing French aggression, this became a recognized feature of European policy at the Peace of Utrecht in 1715, when the Barrier Treaty surrendered Flanders to the United Provinces, to be restored to Austria subject to stipulations under which the Dutch were to garrison Namur, Tournai, Menin, Furnes, Warneton, Ypres, and Knokke, while Termonde was to receive a garrison composed of the forces of the two Powers. This army of occupation was to consist, in times of peace, of 35,000 men, and its cost was to be defrayed by the unfortunate territory occupied.

—Under any circumstances, harmony was not to be expected between the native population and the armed strangers thus imposed upon them, but the inevitable sources of trouble were greatly multiplied by the question of religion. The Dutch were resolute Protestants; in Flanders Catholicism was the religion of the state. By the provisions of the treaty the strangers were entitled to the free exercise of their faith and to places in which to worship. Religious differences were still in a stage too acute to render practical toleration such as this easy to carry into effect. The Flemings protested violently, and the project of a Sicilian Vespers, in which the occupying troops should be cut off in a single night, was openly advocated. There was ample cause for trouble besides the local squabbles which were continually arising. Such Protestants as there were in Flanders naturally sought to share the privileges of the garrisons, and converts from Catholicism were protected. Faults were plenty on both sides, and clamorous complaints were incessant which not infrequently threatened sanguinary breaches of the peace. Former writers have diligently examined the political and diplomatic history of the Barrier Treaties, but M. Hubert is the first to investigate thoroughly what may be called the domestic aspects of the question and its influence on the population, by utilizing the fugitive literature of the period as well as the national archives and those of the municipalities. From these abundant sources he has been able to present a curious and instructive picture of the internal life of Flanders under these exceptional influences.

NOVA SOLYMA.

Nova Solyma, the Ideal City; or, Jerusalem Regained: An anonymous romance written in the time of Charles I., now first drawn from obscurity and attributed to the illustrious John Milton, with introduction, translation, literary essays, and a bibliography, by the Rev. Walter Begley. 2 vols., 8vo. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

For a generation which every year witnesses literally hundreds of additions to the already immense volume of fiction, it is difficult to realize a time like the first half of the seventeenth century when three romances, as the editor of the above volumes would have us believe, was the production of a nation during a period of fifty years. Perhaps, if the shade of one of these romancers of the earlier ages of fiction were confronted with the ridicule of his nimbler and more prolific modern brethren, he might reply in somewhat the same words of scorn as Edmund Burke to the lawyers who criticised his tardiness in the preparation of the case against Warren Hastings, namely, that a rabbit which was accustomed to breed some six times a year could naturally know nothing of the time required for the gestation of an elephant. The modern devotee to the kind of fiction which we usually as-

sociate with the circulating libraries would certainly not be disposed to dispute one term of this comparison, but the serious student of literature, we hope, would interpret the answer in a less malicious sense.

'Nova Solyma,' indeed, is very far from corresponding to our present conceptions of a romance. It belongs in essentials rather to the class of works of which More's 'Utopia' is the most famous example, in which the author chooses the form of fiction to set forth his views on questions of education, government, or even religion. In the present work, however, the element of romance is not totally excluded in the press of didactic matter. Nevertheless, the didactic aim dominates here also throughout, as will be evident from the following brief outline of the contents of the book.

Two youthful Englishmen, Politian and Eugenius, who have had an opportunity of befriending a young man of Jewish race, named Joseph, recently the victim of a robbery, accompany him home to his father's house in the city of Nova Solyma—which, if it has any local existence, we may suppose to be situated on the site of the ancient Jerusalem. They arrive just as the inhabitants of the city are celebrating a great spring festival, in which the most conspicuous figure is a sister of Joseph, who appears in the pageant as the Daughter of Zion sitting in the shade of the symbolical Vine. The young strangers, who are smitten with love of her at first sight, are now brought to the house of Joseph's father, Jacob—a sort of House Beautiful, the abode of goodness and wisdom. The visitors have not been here long before the process of their instruction begins. The appearance of the two little brothers of Joseph, quaintly named Auximus and Augentius, affords an opportunity for a discourse from Jacob on the training of children according to an ideal system which is in force in Nova Solyma. This discourse is supplemented by an alleged dream, of allegorical import, which the matron who is charged with the care of the boys recounts as a warning against the temptations of pleasure. "What a happy thought," exclaims Politian, naïvely, "to turn mere idle tales to such profit!"

There next follows in the romance an episode with no directly didactic purpose. Alcimus, the son of Joseph's tutor, turns up repentant, and gives an exciting account of his adventures as a member of the band of robbers to which Joseph had fallen a victim. The author soon returns from this episode, however, to more edifying matter, and we have discourses now from Joseph on such subjects as the relation of art to nature, the origin and constitution of the universe—discourses which it would be impossible to make one's way through but for a certain genuine religious fervor which animates them. Omitting some intervening material, of which a story of witchcraft is perhaps the most curious, we come to the part of the book by which the author probably set the greatest store—namely, the description of the colleges of Nova Solyma. We have here the sketch of an idealized English university with a system of affiliated schools, such as it has been left for some of the universities of our own time and country to approach most closely in practice. In this division of his work the author develops very fully his ideas of education, the main object of which should be, as he declares, the training of good citizens rather than scholars. In setting forth his conception of the proper material of study, the author is led on to a discourse on poetry, and then, by way of illustration, he presents as a composition of his hero, Joseph, a poem in the epic style on the expedition of the Spanish Armada. In connection with the description of the ideal university we have specimens of both classroom and public lectures —the first of which, on the Christian Cosmology, is of a character to empty in a few minutes any modern lecture room, at least. These avowed *ex-cathedra* discourses do not differ materially, however, from others which in the course of conversation are delivered by Joseph, his father, and his tutor. All have a certain interest as reflecting the strong devotional feeling of a generation which, in the moral strength derived from religious faith, is not likely to be soon equalled again. There is particularly a crescendo of religious enthusiasm towards the conclusion of the book which is not without impressiveness.

These discourses constitute much the larger portion of the second volume, yet, as in the first, we have here also threads of adventure interwoven with the more serious matter—a pirate story, for instance, which seems to have been taken from a contemporary pamphlet; then the episode, involving even humorous situations, of a girl who, in adopting masculine disguise to follow her lover, becomes herself the object of mistaken passion on the part of one of her own sex. The editor identifies the source of this last story with that of "The Two Gentlemen of Verona"—namely, the second book of Montemayor's 'Diana.' In the midst of all these lectures and romantic episodes the two young Englishmen, Politian and Eugenius, have been almost brought to blows by the jealousy which has sprung up between them over Anna, the sister of their friend, and the chief figure in the festival with which the book opens. The author, however, introduces now a twin-sister identical in appearance with Anna—a device which has the double advantage of solving the difficulty that has arisen with reference to the two lovers, and of showing at the same time that love rests on a mere delusion. The romance closes with the marriage of these two couples, and a bridal song of Heavenly Love suggested by the Song of Solomon.

In view of the dearth of fiction from the period in which it was composed, Mr. Begley has unquestionably performed a service to scholarship in unearthing 'Nova Solyma.' It is of at least equal interest with the very similar 'Argenis' by Barclay, which, perhaps owing to Coleridge's exaggerated commendation, still receives considerable attention in histories of English fiction. The contrast, however, between the different fates of the two books is not a little remarkable. Whilst 'Argenis' was translated into all the chief languages of Europe, 'Nova Solyma' seems to have fallen still-born from the press. The book, which, as the author tells us, was written many years before, in his youth, appeared, to be sure, at a time which was anything but favorable to purely literary successes—namely, in the year of tension and excitement which preceded the execution of Charles I. It is possible, moreover, that, in the interval which had followed the publication of 'Argenis' (1621), the diffusion of the novels of D'Urfé and La Calprenède in England had given readers a taste for a new kind of fiction. As far as the attitude of the reading public of our own day is concerned, it is safe to say that nothing in so obsolete a style would have attracted the slightest attention outside of the limited circle of specialists in the history of fiction, had not the editor made bold to connect the work with the most illustrious name of the period to which it belongs. We do not believe, however, that the judgment of criticism will sustain this ascription.

In the first place, there is not a particle of external evidence to support the theory of Miltonic authorship; and, in view of the bulk of the book and the place it must have occupied for a considerable time in the thought and life of its author, this would surely be singular, were the romance really the work of Milton. On the other hand, the arguments from internal evidence which the editor adduces are of much too general a nature to carry conviction. Indeed, on first reading the preface in which he has marshalled most of these arguments, one can hardly suppress the feeling at times that he really is not serious. The impression, to be sure, is due in a measure to his rambling and would-be-facetious style; and only after sifting down the matter of these preliminary pages, and the notes which with a liberal hand he has scattered in season and out of season up and down these volumes, does the reader observe that the parallelisms which he cites here and there have a certain cumulative value, so that one can perhaps reconstruct for one's self some show of argument in favor of the view which he has advanced. But, after all, what is one to make of arguments for identity of such vague import as that the author of the romance, like Milton, was appreciative of music, was a praiser of abstinence, was interested in theories of education, and so on? Dealing with such propositions in a question of individual authorship is like beating the wind. The most that these things show is what probably readers of the book will very generally admit—namely, that the author was a Puritan of the most highly educated class. There are no special, telling circumstances, however, as far as we have observed, which identify him satisfactorily with the most distinguished member of that class. The similarity between the plan of education in the present work and that in Milton's famous tractate is too general to have weight. Furthermore, we would say that the Arianism of 'Nova Solyma' is not apparent to us; but in any event, we have no reason to believe that Milton had already developed views of that tenor in his youth—the period of his life to which this work would have to be assigned. After all, however, the diffuseness of the work and the absence from it of any passages of the highest imaginative quality, such as we cannot believe that any work of the imagination of this length from the pen of John Milton would have been altogether devoid of, tell most heavily against the supposition of Miltonic authorship. None of the abundant verse in the volumes seems

to us to rise to the level of the best of the Latin elegies of Milton's youth.

But, apart from the question of quality, there is nothing in the known work of Milton that suggests the tremendous facility with which, to say nothing of the prose portions, the author of this work pours out epigrams, odes, an epic of no inconsiderable length, etc. One recalls, moreover, that, apart from translations, practically nine-tenths of the recognized verse of Milton's early life—especially is this the case with his Latin poems—relates to something personal, some incident in his life, his relations with his friends and similar subjects; whereas we have here a body of verse rivalling in bulk all that has been hitherto acknowledged as his for the period preceding his moving to Horton, yet dealing entirely with abstract themes and in no way giving expression to the author's personal feeling or experiences. Space forbids our taking up features of style in these poems which differentiate them from Milton's—such, for example, as the very sparing use of mythological allusions—a matter which has far more weight than Mr. Begley will allow. The most that can be conceded with regard to this claim of Miltonic authorship for 'Nova Solyma' is that the question deserves to be treated with a more exact critical method than has been employed by the editor. Such a treatment, of course, would have to be based on the Latin original of which Mr. Begley has here merely given us extracts in an appendix to his translation. To the question of sources which also calls for investigation, the editor has already made contributions of value.

In conclusion, it only remains to be said that the translation is well done. The stiffness which it is so difficult to avoid in turning Latin prose into English is seldom noticeable in these volumes to any disagreeable extent, and the metrical renderings are good. One may question the taste of employing terms like "rough-riders" and "syndicates" (in the modern commercial sense) in a translation of a seventeenth-century work; but in general the translator has preserved in his version the impression of mingled grace and austerity which we commonly associate with Puritanism in its higher manifestations—a union of qualities which stamps the work before us, whatever may be its faults, as the product of a noble age.

PEEL'S 'ENEMIES OF ENGLAND.'

The Enemies of England. By the Hon. George Peel. London: Edward Arnold. 1902.

Mr. Peel would have found it difficult to select a wider or more timely subject. "The meek shall inherit the earth" is not a text which fully accounts for the place occupied by Great Britain in modern politics; and where success has accompanied the lack of meekness, we need not wonder that hostile adjectives should rise to the superlative. Nearly ten years before the outbreak of the Boer war, Sir Charles Dilke candidly stated in Parliament that England had more enemies than any other country but China. The lapse of time has not reduced their number or qualified the heat of their resentment. Here, then, is a phenomenon which the enlightened Briton is bound to notice and, in his own mind at least, to analyze. When we consider the gravity of the question and the daily output of newspaper retort, it seems strange that no historical philosopher should have written a book about England and her enemies before.

In the first place, Mr. Peel's tone is exemplary. He might have been amusingly rude in any one of a hundred ways, for no vein of humor is easier to work than that which springs from the shortcomings of our national antagonists. English amenities in the days of the Dreyfus case must have incensed many a Frenchman to whom the name of General Mercier was hateful, and Mr. Peel, in turn, if he keeps a scrapbook, must have many a pleasant score to pay off. Were we to cast aside all canons of politeness and good feeling, any one of us might have a daily orgy of enjoyment in composing squibs against foreigners. However, these things do not help to bring back the age of Saturn, and when a writer in Mr. Peel's place shows a capacity for civil speech, the lovers of peace should applaud. The whole book is an argument, but one in which the writer does not rely for his effect upon smartness of repartee.

History has its secrets, kept under lock among the archives of religious orders and foreign offices. It also has its open secrets which are free to all the world—or would be, if the rarest talent were not required for interpretation. Why, for example, should England be disliked, or rather hated, by millions of people throughout the civilized world? Obviously, no document hidden away in Paris, St. Petersburg, or Berlin can give the clue, nor is it easy to believe that one simple theory of political progress will disclose the true cause of such antagonism. Mr. Peel presents us with a neat formula at a juncture where, according to our *à priori* notions, any formula must be an object of suspicion and most of all a neat one. Let us examine the nature of his proposition.

The decks are first cleared for action by a dismissal of the reasons which the Englishman usually assigns in private conversation as the grounds of this hostility. It is not a question of race, for racial sentiment has not sufficed to check the rancor of the Germans. It is not a question of religion, for the English and French hated each other in the fourteenth century, when both belonged to the same church. Neither are British tourists responsible for the mischief, as most people suppose, for Italy is their chief resort, and England is no more unpopular there than elsewhere. The man of business points to commercial rivalry, and Mr. Peel admits that the war of trade has played its part, though the main issues between England and the Papacy in their long strife have not related to money matters. Feelings of jealousy are allowed some weight, but it is pointed out that Philip II. was not jealous of Elizabeth, "who ruled over half an island only, and was seated on a shaking throne." Finally, we are told that some mysterious natural law forces nations into antagonism beyond their will. To refute this view, Mr. Peel cites passages from Pitt and Disraeli.

Such a survey and rebuttal of leading theories brings us to a single contention, of which the whole book is a defence:

"If, therefore, neither race, nor religion, nor manners, nor trade, nor envy, nor nature, satisfactorily accounts for this antagonism, the true cause is as follows. . . . Throughout the period from the eleventh century until now, several great powers have arisen in a consecutive series towards the domination of Europe, in imitation, conscious or unconscious, of Rome. But the success of any in that project would be death to ourselves. Accordingly, as the liberties of Europe coincide with our own, each power in turn, at a certain stage in its progress towards ascendency, has encountered the strenuous opposition of England. . . . Though we have thwarted or helped to thwart each aspirant, we have destroyed none; and thus, in course of time, animosities, bred from the broken ambitions of each, have slowly accumulated against us."

Dr. Fitchett has written a work on the wars of the revolutionary and Napoleonic era (four volumes bound in red), which he styles 'How England Saved Europe.' Mr. Peel's one volume is bound in blue, but there is no real reason why it also should not have been called 'How England Saved Europe, 1066-1902.'

Before making any comments of our own upon Mr. Peel's thesis, we shall briefly describe the way in which he develops it. He does not for a moment deny that these pushful European states which have sought to wear the mantle of Rome deserved the reward of greatness. Each in turn rendered some service to humanity and gained thereby a legitimate prominence. Unfortunately, however, the love of leadership degenerated into the lust of tyranny. Thus, with the Hapsburgs, *primus inter pares* was not a sufficient motto, but Frederick III. must put forth the challenge, *Austriæ est imperare orbi universo.* Had the Hapsburgs been content with guarding the eastern frontier of Christendom, all might have been well, but in their pride they conspired against the balance of power and brought upon themselves the enmity of England.

One by one the states of Europe have had their imperial or their colonial aspirations. Mr. Peel, after defining and illustrating his general principle, takes up the sequence of ambition in successive chapters. The long series of England's enemies is made to begin with the Papacy and end with Germany, by which we simply mean that Germany leads the pack at the present day. We give the list, and leave the reader to supply in most cases the obvious chronology. The Papacy (from first to last, beginning with the Norman Conquest); France (in the Hundred Years' War); Spain, Holland, the Bourbons, the French Revolution, including Napoleon; Russia, Germany. The book closes with a notice of the proposal which has been made by Treitschke and Prince Uchtomsky, namely, that Germany and Russia should combine against England. Is it likely, asks Mr. Peel, that the Dual and Triple Alliance will join hands that they may crush the island state? We shall not describe at large the obstacles which he places in the way of such a league, but the last of them is worth quoting from its particular reference to America: "Besides, the relatives of England across the sea might insist upon an inquest; if she died intestate, they might claim her inheritance, so that her decease would be the signal for a contest indefinitely prolonged."

In offering a few words of criticism, we may begin with the remark that Mr. Peel's essay seems academic rather than practical. It makes an entertaining book for the historian, and, just as it stands, it was well

worth writing; but in our judgment its chief virtues are of an incidental nature, and do not spring from the merits of the main argument. While we should be the last to depreciate the value of the historical method, we doubt whether the causes of modern hostility towards England antedate the outbreak of the Seven Years' War. A truly practical book on this subject should begin, we think, not earlier than the time of the elder Pitt, and devote itself to the analysis of modern tendencies. The merest glance at the state of Europe in the middle years of the eighteenth century will show that the general feeling towards England was very different from the animosity which prevails to-day. Even during the war of the Austrian Succession, English was a fashionable language in Paris, and the spread of English ideas is always allowed some weight among the causes of the French Revolution. We need not dwell upon the fondness of the French liberals for England at this period, although they formed the élite of the nation, but we may recall the politeness of the officers towards each other during the Seven Years' War. When we reach the days of Nelson and Napoleon, the spirit has manifestly changed, and both nations are deeply embittered. France may be taken as an example, as she was the leading state of the Continent in 1750, and the most consistent opponent of England. Prussia, the rising power of central Europe, was, of course, an ally of England during the Seven Years' War.

When Mr. Peel asks us to plunge with him into the "dark backward and abysm of time," he gives us indeed some interesting facts about the relations of England with the Continent, but much of his pleading is beside the point. The line of argument which he follows out to prove that England has incurred the general enmity by opposing each of the greater states in turn, might with equal force be applied to France. Since the eleventh century no other state in Europe has passed through so many international complications as France or been so frequently embroiled. Every great state has stood in the way of every other great state, and helped, by pulling down its threatening neighbor, to preserve the balance of power. If England, protected by the sea, has often taken a notable part in these quarrels, she has, on the other hand, been implicated less often and less seriously than France. Nor can it be well contended that any strong antagonism between the Continental states as a unit and England sprang up before the Seven Years' War.

Speaking positively rather than negatively, we should be inclined to term the general enmity of the Continent towards England a modern sentiment, and one which is mainly due to the spectacle of an unwonted success. This view sounds commonplace, and we therefore advance it with a certain amount of shame. Still, there is one broad fact to which appeal can be made. States are seldom hated while they remain insignificant, and it would be hard to prove that England was generally hated before she achieved territory by the Seven Years' War, prestige by her part in the struggle against Napoleon, and wealth by the industrial revolution. The ways in which Englishmen show their consciousness of success may have added somewhat to the intensity of prejudice, but the root of the existing condition is not to be sought in a rich legacy of mediæval grudge, or in mere jealousy, but in the clash of modern rivalry. Were Great Britain "taken down a peg," we should hear much less about her from the press of Germany, France, and Russia.

A Canadian botanist spending a winter at Bonn was gravely informed in university circles that the Canadian contingents were driven by compulsion to serve in South Africa, and went thither with great reluctance. No doubt the growth of imperialism is disquieting to the Continent, and adds fuel to the flame. A larger item in the count against England is the prosperity of the United States, which, whether at peace or at war with the mother country, is none the less a state of English origin, and still remains actuated by many of the promptings which the English share in all parts of the globe. Continental *Schadenfreude* has grounds enough and to spare when it contemplates the spread and encroachments of the Saxon race. The idea that the grudges of to-day have been slowly accumulating since the eleventh century and are the fruit of ambitions successively thwarted, is much too archaic. The opportunism of politicians and of nations would be a sufficient bar to hatred of such long inheritance. England is hated not because she has thwarted the powerful, but because she is powerful herself.

This is our chief stricture upon Mr. Peel's book, which otherwise is the work of a scholarly and agreeable writer.

Kotto: Being Japanese Curios, with Sundry Cobwebs. By Lafcadio Hearn. New York: The Macmillan Co.

While Mr. Genjiro Yeto furnishes drawings in the body of the text and many a full-page picture, the frontispiece of this latest of Mr. Hearn's works is a photograph. It represents a graveyard, with the stone railing that simulates carpentry, and the Sanskrit monograms that lend literary glamour and holy mystery to the ignorant. Here we see the shaft capped with the image of Buddha in Nirvana on the lotus, the inscribed boulder, the symbolic monuments, including that which, by its various shapes, representing earth, air, water, fire, and ether, typifies the five elements of which man's body is composed, and, last but not least, the ever-fresh blooming flowers placed by loving hands *in memoriam.* All these fitly set forth the general character of the author's reveries, and in composite represent the one dominant thought underlying his score of sketches. Exquisite in fancy and rich in literary graces which clothe his thoughts, these seem for the most part to be as the exhalations of the graveyard. The dominant tone of all is not that of hope or cheer, nor is the outlook towards the future. It is rather that of melancholy, even of gloom. The main argument, contended for again and again, repeated almost with weariness, in Mr. Hearn's books, is that of involuntary memory, the organic memory of the race, the transmitted power that comes out of the great storehouse of ages of things remembered. This he finds not only in man and beast; even matter remembers. The dreamer thus (p. 169) confesses: "I cannot rid myself of the notion that Matter in some blind infallible way remembers." Later on the same page, this artist in words, who never loses his dogmatism even when most steeped in the spirit of beauty, utters further his creed: "In every unit of living substance, there slumber infinite potentialities simply because to every ultimate atom belongs the infinite and indestructible experience of billions of billions of vanished universes."

Armed with such a creed, Mr. Hearn revels in the delights that come from studying, in the land of little things, the minutiæ of Japanese poetic conceits, folklore, dreams, and reveries. Yet, lest the spectre of the brain should become too foul and disturbing, he happily, according to Japanese fashion, provides us at the end, in both text and picture, with Baku, or the eater of dreams. This creature, not least in the mythical zoölogy of Japan, has a double deck of eyes in his head and a triple array of eyes on either flank. The invisible brute is guaranteed to devour all nightmares and other creatures of darkness and evil digestion.

One would almost argue from Mr. Hearn's literary career in Japan that his intellect is taking on Japanese limitations. If we judge by the literature of Dai Nippon as the result of a thousand years of thinking, the delight of the natives is in little things. Works of sustained ability and noble proportions are few, though colossal mass, formidable continuity, and vast abundance of the fragmentary and ejaculatory, in numbers, chronicle, drama, fiction, and scripture, are not wanting. So in this latest of Mr. Hearn's volumes, daintily clothed as it is, we have only bits and chips—"curios and cobwebs." Nine little tales from old books illustrate strange beliefs. Some are ghost stories, others show how largely the islanders have made superstition the teacher of etiquette, appealing to fear, not only to deter from impropriety, but to hold immune and intact their system of social taboo, which shrinks with horror at the too much. This is notably illustrated in the case of a samurai who, instead of properly drinking tea out of a tiny cup, gulped it out of a large water cup. Seeing a face mirrored in the tea, he defiantly and repeatedly drank, ghost and all, only to suffer grief later. In the case of the hunter, expert with bow and arrow, on the one hand, and the priest seeing Buddhist visions on the other, common sense prevails over pious fancy. It is amusing to see how even the poor insects are saddled with superstitions and prejudices. The house fly, pestering the forgetful or dishonest man, is the unquiet spirit of the dead girl whose savings he did not invest, according to her request, in masses for her deceased mother. The youth, susceptible to his dream of a genuine Japanese Marjorie Daw, finds that she exists only in the breath of a frog. Even the crabs bear the image of the Heiké warriors who, after the great naval battle of extermination, were drowned off Shimonoséki over eight centuries ago. Most of the bugs of various sorts are associated with unlucky human beings or their wraiths, so that one can trace the outlines of history in popular entomology. The chapter on fireflies is an exquisite study of poetry, literature, folk lore, and science. The Japanese have always sung the praises of this living electric light, and have many dainty conceits concerning it. In these later days of the spectrum and photometer, Japanese university

graduates have with the last refinements of experimental skill studied its powers, finding it a "miracle of nature's machinery." By the firefly's infinitesimal dynamo, a pure cold light is produced at "one four-hundreth part of the cost of the energy expended in a candle flame."

Between the condensed stories from native sources and the author's own studies, comes another picture of a graveyard which is unusually rich in wooden text boards and stone Buddhas. The translation of a woman's diary, touching in its simple pathos and simplicity, and showing the real woman's life as it is lived by thousands of poor folk in Tokio, pictures reality better than any foreigner could possibly do it. It is the story of a shy and gentle woman suddenly becoming, by parental dictation, the wife of a total stranger, and bravely resolving to win affection by docility and by faultless performance of duty. The traits revealed are typical of the moral character of a woman of the people. Four or five other papers, as light in texture as the spider lines across the lens of a telescope, but as exactly true and as effective for correct measurement of things which to the Occidental mind are as far off and mysterious as the planets, close a book which is rich in manifold elements of fascination.

The Lightning Conductor: The Strange Adventures of a Motor-Car. Edited by C. N. and A. M. Williamson. Henry Holt & Co. 1902.

The ship, the saddle-horse, the four-in-hand, the railway, have all been amply celebrated in print—even the bicycle has had, these late years, no small share of attention; and now it is the turn of the automobile. 'The Lightning Conductor' is a travel-sketch threaded upon so much of a plot of love-making that it may almost be spoken of as a novel. At any given point the travelling preponderates, so that the hero and heroine may be spoken of as tourists that fall in love rather than lovers that make a tour. Molly Randolph is a rich and handsome American girl, with a doting papa—at home—an unlimited letter of credit, and, to play the proprieties, an entirely complacent Aunt Mary. She was intending some sort of pleasure journey on the Continent when an impressive-looking acquaintance they met in an English village induced her to make it in a motor-car, for the purpose of getting rid of one that he wanted to dispose of. It proved to be "a German monstrosity driven by a jockey-pulley, an apparatus fiendishly contrived for breaking belts quickly." The lesson inculcated is that one should have a gear-driven instead of a belt-driven machine, and preferably something like the "beautifully planned Napier" of the hero, who opportunely comes to the rescue.

Almost everything disagreeable happens to the "jockey-pulley" machine that could happen: belts, chains, and exhaust-valve springs snap, crank heads grow overheated, and finally the chauffeur absconds with a sum of money. At this moment arrives a distinguished young Englishman, John Winston, travelling in his own auto; he is smitten with the charms of Beauty in Distress—and the descriptions of her high-bred type of looks and personality make this fully intelligible—and, on a sudden inspiration, manages to pass himself off upon her as a chauffeur by profession and get taken into her service. His place is no sinecure: he is seen, in the throes of repairing, even lying down on his back under the car, while green oil drips into his hair, and occasionally he has to dine at the servants' table; but he carries it all off in knightly fashion, and, after the canons of good literature with regard to the hero, nothing really degrading to his dignity is allowed to happen to him. The odious car, too, burns up, and he contrives to have the party go on in his own, which he ingeniously affects to charter. He, of course, is the Lightning Conductor.

The story is told under the form of letters—not quite the best mode of telling; one series from Miss Randolph to her father, and another from Mr. Churchill to his friend, Lord Lane. The necessary amount of trouble for a complication is supplied chiefly by a blundering young Anglomaniac and amateur Sherlock Holmes, one Jimmy Payne. The plot, as has been implied, is slender, but we are not dependent upon plot in the case; we are only too well satisfied to go on with such delightful people, and especially through such delightful scenes, on any terms. If the leisurely, the luxurious, classes of society are really producing types like these to any great extent, they don't deserve the abuse they so often get; and, if not, here are pages to which they might turn for emulation with profit. Churchill, the pretended chauffeur, is a most gentlemanly fellow; there is nothing of the "Barnes of New York" about him, starving the girl into docility; he is uncommonly delicate in avoiding any abuse of the opportunities open to him, and no equivocal situation whatever arises. If he only were not always quite so successful, if he would occasionally make a mess of it, he would be a little nearer to real life.

The line of travel is among the châteaux of the Loire, to Bordeaux, a corner of Spain, Toulouse, Carcassonne, Marseilles, the French Riviera, the Italian Riviera, Pisa, Rome, Naples, Capri, and finally Taormina. This is old ground, but the unusual method of locomotion and a fresh touch give it a new and living interest. It is difficult to cover so much ground in a narrative and escape mere cataloguing, yet this is capitally done here, with a light, graceful, accurate mention devoted to some places and very satisfactory fulness to others. The book will foment the automobile movement; Miss Randolph is as enthusiastic about it now as we all were about the bicycle once. It should be a good practical guide, too, to those about to go over the same course, while its charming descriptions of travel afford an ample new fund of pleasure, tinged with envy here and there, to the stay-at-homes.

London before the Conquest. By W. R. Lethaby. The Macmillan Co. 1903. Pp. 217.

In a happy phrase, Mr. Lethaby speaks of London as "a great palimpsest." The older writings have been destroyed by time or are now hidden by the accumulations of ages of débris and rubbish. Roman pavements lie twenty feet below the present surface, and over them is piled the waste of centuries. The deep excavations for modern buildings now and again bring to light a word of the original manuscript, but it is at best only a little fragment here and there laid bare for a moment. Of pre-Roman London we know nothing. We do not know the limits of Roman London. After the Romans comes a great blank; then, gradually, we get glimpses, increasing in number and definiteness from the Conquest onwards till at the end of the sixteenth century we have Stow's monumental 'Survey,' and the wonderful view-map in Braun and Hagenberg's collection of views of the greatest cities of the world. It is, of course, the darkest period of London history and topography that Mr. Lethaby has undertaken to illustrate. The materials are scanty, uncertain, hard to read. "Antiquities," said Lord Bacon, "or remnants of history, are, as was said, 'tanquam tabula naufragii,' when industrious persons, by an exact and scrupulous diligence and observation, out of monuments, names, words, proverbs, traditions, private records and evidences, fragments of stories, passages of books that concern not story, and the like, do save and recover somewhat from the deluge of time."

Where our knowledge is so scant and broken there is naturally room for great divergence of opinion. Take, for instance, the following from Mr. Lethaby: "In the 'Conquest of England,' Mr. Green stated the view that Saxon London 'grew up on ground from which the Roman city had practically disappeared.' . . . My view of Alfred's London is that the Roman city to a large degree continued to exist." Research has, it is clear, left sufficient room for play of imagination. The intrepid explorer is not to be denied. He may draw courage from the assertion of Sir Thomas Browne that "what song the Sirens sang, or what name Achilles assumed when he hid himself among women, though puzzling questions, are not beyond all conjecture." Of a truth we hardly know which task would prove the more difficult—the recovery of the Sirens' song or the determination of the topography of Saxon London. We are not quite sure that all has been done that might be done towards coördinating our knowledge of, say, Roman London, by carefully mapping the sites of relics discovered at different times. London lore is scattered in endless books and transactions of various societies. Some day, perhaps, the man will arise who will weld our scraps of knowledge into some sort of a whole.

Mr. Lethaby's knowledge of his subject is great; he has studied documents at first hand; he is possessed by enthusiasm for old London. To the outside public, Billingsgate is a mere fishmarket, known, indeed, throughout the English-speaking world for its vocabulary, more vigorous than elegant. Mr. Lethaby tells us: "For me the old British solar God lights up the squalor of Billingsgate." "London," he says, "is rich in romantic lore. In her cathedral, Arthur was crowned and drew the sword from the stone. Here Iseult attended the council called by King Mark. From the quay, Ursula and her virgins embarked; Launcelot swam his horse over the river at Westminster, and from it Guinevere went a-maying." Mr. Lethaby's industry deserves our gratitude. But the impression left by his book is confused. In the several chapters on the Rivers, the Roads, and the Bridge, the Walls, Gates, and Quays, and others, we are hurried back-

wards and forwards till the brain reels. Only in the last chapter do we come to Roman London. But, though we could have wished for method, a better arrangement of matter, and the help of an index, we welcome Mr. Lethaby's contribution to an inexhaustible subject. There are many good illustrations of British, Roman, and Saxon antiquities.

In an appendix, Mr. Lethaby makes some remarks on the map to which we have referred, that in Braun and Hagenberg's 'Civitates Orbis Terrarum.' Its great value is fully recognized by Mr. Lethaby. He questions the contention that, as it shows the spire of St. Paul's (which was destroyed by lightning in 1561), the map (or, to be exact, the drawing from which the map was made) must be earlier than the date of that work (1572-3). He himself would date the map "about 1570." Examination of the names of houses shows, we think, that the map was drawn between 1553 and 1557. Nor can we accept what appears to be Mr. Lethaby's view that Braun's map is original. A publisher of that time would, no doubt, just as he would to-day, collect the best maps available, and reëngrave them. Mr. Lethaby is, perhaps, not aware that this was actually done in the case of one English map in the collection, that of Norwich. This was reëngraved with great exactness from the map given in William Cuningham's 'Cosmographical Glass,' published in 1559, the map itself bearing the date of the previous year. The detail of the map of London is so extraordinarily minute that it appears probable that the original map was on a scale considerably larger. Even as it is, the engraver has had to reduce the map to the required size by giving the Thames a severe bend at Charing Cross. The map is, in other respects, so accurately drawn that this seems the only reasonable explanation of the exaggerated bend.

The Primrose and Darwinism. By a Field Naturalist, M.A. (Cambridge). London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton. 1902.

Every note of this work is struck in the wrong key. In the first place, the recorder of observations in themselves interesting has chosen to conceal his identity under a pseudonym, whereas he should have put it in the power of every inquirer to place himself in communication with him for further information, if need be. In the second place, the author has forgotten that his notes, as notes, so far as they contribute anything to the knowledge of the subject, would have pleased Mr. Darwin, an investigator who was always ready to check his observations by those of others. But, instead of making these notes a kindly commentary upon Mr. Darwin's study of the Primrose, the anonymous author forces them to do service in ungenerous polemic. Even this contentious tone would perhaps be pardonable if the author showed at any point in his work that he is familiar with modern methods of research. But there is no internal evidence that the author has prosecuted his studies under competent guidance since the days, long ago, when, as he says, he was a pupil of the lamented J. S. Henslow at Cambridge. Almost every modern teacher of repute would have urged the author to seek for "the calm and catholic judgment" which Huxley justly ascribed to Professor Henslow. At all events, the exercise of a calm and catholic judgment would have rendered these pages pleasanter reading, and would have lessened the unavoidable feeling of antagonism which they excite. Under the influence of calm and catholic judgment, the author would realize that even his imperfect observations and his comments upon them would have been welcomed by no one with more kindly interest than Mr. Darwin himself. But instead of taking this judicial attitude, the author places each alleged fact as a chip on the shoulder, and defies the reader to knock it off. Such is not the attitude of dignity or conciliation.

The main contention of the author appears to be that Mr. Darwin was an unskilled experimenter, and was not justified in drawing certain conclusions from his observations on the Primrose. The story is now very familiar, but it may bear repeating.

The common English primrose has two sorts of flowers, namely, those with a long style which brings the receptive stigma close to the top of the tube of the blossom, and a second kind in which the style is short, reaching about half-way up the tube. The first blossoms, with the long style, carry their anthers, the little sacs of fertilizing pollen, only half-way up the tube, while the short-styled blossoms bear their anthers at the very brim of the tube; or, in other words, just at the level of the stigma on the long style. There is, thus, a correspondence between the two sorts of flowers; they seem to have reciprocal relations. By long observation, and by what has been hitherto regarded as most careful experimenting, Mr. Darwin showed that these apparent reciprocal relations are truly reciprocal, and that the pollen of the long-styled blossom is more potent on the stigmas of the flowers of the short-styled sort, and vice-versa. Many other plants besides the primroses have this double reciprocity, and all such are collectively known as dimorphic. There are certain other plants which have a trimorphic character, and a few are polymorphic. Insects play a very important part in conveying the pollen from one form in a given species to the other form or forms of the same species; thus, from the short-styled, pollen is carried to the stigmas of the long-styled, and conversely. Upon these plants Mr. Darwin experimented.

In the experiments under review, Mr. Darwin excluded by means of fine gauze all insects which might have conveyed pollen from and to the plants. The author claims that the employment of such a net over the blossoms introduced unnatural conditions. These conditions are said by him to be, in part, (1) the diminution of the influence of the solar rays, in passing through a close-meshed net; (2) the prevention of radiation, and the consequent lessening of the amount of dew received by the flowers; (3) absence of wind, which might shake the blossoms and scatter pollen. These objections should be shown to be valid, and they can be so shown only by long-continued control experiments. Careful perusal of these pages fails to show that the author has made or reported such experiments. We have his assertion that these objections are valid, but nothing else to prove that they are valid. To claim at this stage in the development of the science of botany that it is disadvantageous to blossoms to deprive them of dew, or diminish its quantity, requires a good deal of nerve on the part of the claimant. To assert that the absence of wind, with its aid in shaking the blossoms, was a fatal element in Mr. Darwin's experiments, indicates that the author has not read Mr. Darwin's account with sufficient care. The anatomical features pointed out by Mr. Darwin are apparently not appreciated by this Field Naturalist, and they are too lightly passed over to justify us in thinking that the author is judicial in his treatment of the matter.

The position which our author takes with respect to experimentation is amusing and pathetic. It is hard to think that any observer or investigator should willingly cut himself off from the aid of one of the most trustworthy handmaids in research, namely, experiment. And yet, incredible as it may seem, the author gravely writes this:

"We consider that it was most unfortunate for Natural Science that Darwin relied almost so exclusively on artificial observation, or, in other terms, on experiment, for the investigation and interpretation of natural laws in facts connected with the fertilization of flowers." (Preface p. vii.)

"Darwin's use of the net and his method of investigation not only misled Darwin himself as to facts of Nature, but his conclusions drawn from such methods of investigation have misled for an entire generation those of his ablest followers, who without questioning accepted his method and conclusions." (P. 226.)

The author's definition of experimentation as artificial observation, and his strictures upon it because it is artificial, are interesting. His prediction as to the ultimate result of the use of experimenting is likewise interesting, not to say, entertaining:

"In this field of research we cannot suppose it possible that Darwin's conclusions from his net experiments, and his numerous theories founded upon them, will be abiding. In fact, it involves a decision between results obtained under a net, with sun, wind, and atmospheric influences generally minimized, and the results as seen in the fields; *i. e.* a decision between Net-ism and Naturalism. It needs very little prophetic insight to foretell that the results obtained by the former method will, in the course of another generation, be discarded in favor of the latter." (P. 226-227.)

Probably the author would say that he does not object to experimenting, as such, but only to Mr. Darwin's experiments. Since, however, no experimental proof is offered that Mr. Darwin did not experiment properly, we must look a little farther to see whether the author's objections do not lie against conclusions rather than against methods. On page 226, we read:

"If, however, Darwin's conclusions as to dimorphic and trimorphic flowers are unsubstantiated, and his experiments invalid on account of the invalidity of his method of experimenting, the boundary-line between species and varieties still remains unmoved."

Now, no one can doubt that changes are going on relative to some of Mr. Darwin's conclusions respecting the scope of cross and close-fertilization, but these changes have not as yet much disturbed any of the primary questions. Least of all do these slight changes make it easier to go back to the time, say sixty years since, when the author studied under Henslow of

Cambridge, when species were fixities and varieties never invaded their domain, to stay.

First-Hand Bits of Stable Lore. By Francis M. Ware. Little, Brown & Co. 1903.

In this little volume the author covers a wide range of subjects, from buying a horse to four-in-hand driving and the management of a pack of hounds. He starts out by crediting horsedealers with being reputable business men. This seems at first blush unnecessary, yet, upon further consideration, how seldom does one meet a friend who has the intention of investing in a horse without hearing him express a fear that he may be deceived. The author is quite right in advising that in such matters you put yourself in the hands of a reputable dealer unless you know what you want and are entirely able to select for yourself. Even with the price, quality, and general character agreed upon, a horse may or may not fit a rider. This may not count for much for an occasional ride, but for the habitual horseman a fit is essential to comfort. The advice that a horse once bought should be constantly used cannot be too often repeated. Many serious accidents have happened through allowing horses to stand without exercise, particularly when the weather is first turning cold. When one considers the careless disregard which obtains in this matter, it is a wonder that more accidents do not occur. A horse should never be regarded as perfectly safe unless you are entirely certain that nothing unexpected is going to happen in his vicinity.

The chapter on soundness, coming as it does from one of so great experience, deserves serious attention. It is true, as the author states, that many veterinarians are not "horsemen"; he might go further and say that very few veterinarians are good horsemen. This accounts to some extent for their frequent inability to judge just what allowance should be made in case of defects. The sharp criticism on governmental requirements is justified by the fact that, notwithstanding the careful specifications and scrupulous inspections, the service frequently finds itself possessed of numerous undesirable animals. It should be remembered, however, that the Government buys cavalry horses at from four to eight years of age, a period during which an animal is apt to develop most of the defects to which he is liable. The Government should devote more attention to educating inspectors in order that they may be depended upon to waive immaterial defects, for one seldom finds a perfect horse without blemish or disqualification of some kind. It is true that many horses which have developed unsoundness continue for many years to render good service; nevertheless, the enormous weight carried on cavalry horses, averaging more than 250 pounds, demands serviceable soundness and conformation.

The chapter on stables and stable management contains many valuable hints. Ventilation without draughts; cleanliness without the odor of disinfectants; clean food given at frequent intervals, comprise the basis of advice along these lines. Of all the ills to which the young horse is subject none is more exasperating than influenza, which is induced by change from country pastures to city stables. The disease is known under many names, and seems to extend with great rapidity among young horses in the same stable. It often leaves the horse in a very weak state for a prolonged period, and not infrequently ends in pneumonia. It requires the utmost care in nursing and feeding to put the colt on the road to recovery and keep him mending. All this seriously interferes with the horse's education, which should be commenced as soon as purchased. During the recent war with Spain the disease created much havoc in the large volunteer camp at Chickamauga Park, where nearly 50,000 men, including a considerable proportion of cavalry, were assembled at one time.

The author indulges in some very pointed remarks concerning the relative value of the gaited saddler and the walk-trot-canter animal more commonly used in the East and North. In the South and many parts of the West the single-foot or rack is regarded with much favor, and is considered as the most comfortable gait for the rider. That it is not so for the horse, is made evident by the constant tendency of the animal to change his gait unless ridden up to the bit. Some animals descended through several generations of saddle horses perform at a single-foot much more easily than others, and are quite generally spoken of in the South as "born saddle-horses" in contradistinction to animals which always show the artificial nature of their gaits, particularly "the rack." Nevertheless, gaited saddlers continue to bring remunerative prices in country districts, although they are no longer salable in Eastern cities or for army use. There is nothing more exasperating in a cavalry command than an officer or sergeant leading a column at a single-foot or rack, for the animals trotting in the ranks can never properly regulate their gaits under such leadership. The best physical results from horseback riding are undoubtedly obtained at a trot, although some animals are entirely too rough for pleasant riding.

On the hunter and the steeple-chasers the author has some very practical hints. The discussion of the relative merits of the "flying" jump and the deliberate or bucking-over style of taking a fence is of more than ordinary interest. Owing to the big, lumbering character of many hunters, the flying jump is not so common as might be the case if lighter and smaller horses were used. If no accident occurs, it is easier to retain a close seat on the fast flying jumper, but rushing at obstacles is not the safest thing in the world. The picture of a "good form" jump opposite page 160 is pleasing to the eye at first glance, but is one more proof of the seeming impossibility of obtaining just the photograph desired for illustrating a book on the horse. The position of the heel of the rider is such that a spur, if worn, would rip the side of the horse in a cruel manner. The rider appears to be supporting himself by the curb reins in a way which does not accord with the author's advice.

Four-in-hand driving and coaching are treated of in two chapters in a manner to give the amateur the correct impression that if he wishes to be accomplished in either he must take to the box and "do things." Many books and essays have been published which convey the idea that one's appointments are the real thing, but as a matter of fact it is the coolness, experience, and ability to really drive four horses in a mix-up that make the lasting reputation.

Chapters on showing horses and the management of a pack of hounds close this interesting volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baedeker, Karl. Southern Italy. Leipzig: Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $1.80.
Bailey, H. C. Karl of Erbach. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Baker, E. A. A Descriptive Guide to the Best Fiction, British and American. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Balch, T. W. The Alaskan Frontier. Philadelphia: Allen, Lane & Scott. $2.
Baring, Maurice. The Black Prince, and Other Poems. John Lane.
Barry, Alfred. The Position of the Laity in the Church. (The Church's Outlook.) E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Beddard, A. P., Edkins, J. S., Hill, Leonard, Macleod, J. J. R., and Pembrey, M. S. Practical Physiology. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $5.20.
Bignell, Effie. My Woodland Intimates. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Blair, Emma, Robertson, J. A., and Bourne, E. G. The Philippine Islands, 1493-1903, Vol. i. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
Brady, C. T. The Southerners. Scribners. $1.50.
Brugière, Sarah V. and Brady, Adeline. The Major's Niece. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Carryl, G. W. The Lieutenant-Governor. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Chadwick, J. W. William Ellery Channing, Minister of Religion. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Clark, J. B. Leavening the Nation: The Story of American Home Missions. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Cohen, Ernst. Physical Chemistry for Physicians and Biologists. Translated by M. H. Fisher. H. Holt & Co. $1.75.
Colton, Arthur. Tioba, and Other Tales. H. Holt & Co. $1.25.
Cooke, G. W. The Poets of Transcendentalism: An Anthology. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Dewey, D. R. Financial History of the United States. (American Citizen Series.) Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Dudeney, Mrs. Henry. Robin Brilliant. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Edwards, J. H. God and Music. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Finley, H. T. Where the Needle Points. Abbey Press.
Flower, Elliott. The Spoilsmen. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Ford, Sewell. Horses Nine: Stories of Harness and Saddle. $1.25.
Fulton, E. A Selection of the Shorter Poems of Wordsworth. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Gray, Maxwell. Richard Rosny. D. Appleton & Co.
Green, Anna K. The Filigree Ball. Indianapolis. The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Harben, W. N. The Substitute. Harpers.
Henderson, C. H. John Percyfield: The Anatomy of Cheerfulness. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Hill, G. F. Illustrations of School Classics. Macmillan. $2.50.
Hope, Graham. The Triumph of Count Osterman. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.
Isham, F. S. Under the Rose. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
King, Charles. A Daughter of the Sioux. The Hobart Co.
Kinkaid, Mary H. Walda. Harpers.
Kutner, Arnold. Commercial German. American Book Co. $1.
Laughlin, J. L. The Principles of Money. Scribners. $3.
Letters of Mlle. Julie de Lespinasse. Translated by Katharine P. Wormeley. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co. $1.25.
Macdonald, D. B. Development of Muslim Theology, Jurisprudence, and Constitutional Theory. (The Semitic Series.) Scribners. $1.25.
MacManus, Seumas. A Lad of the O'Friels. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Millin, G. F. The Village Problem. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.
Nason, F. L. The Blue Goose. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Norris, W. E. Lord Leonard and Luckless. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.
One Hundred and Twenty-eight Books and Manuscripts, formerly in the Cabinets of Royal Bibliophiles during the XVIth., XVIIth., XVIIIth, and XIXth Centuries. London: J. Pearson & Co.
Oppenheim, E. P. The Traitors. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Pemberton, Max. The Gold Wolf. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Pugh, Edwin. The Stumbling Block. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Scott, H. S. The Journal of Sir Roger Wilbraham. London: The Royal Historical Society.
Taylor, M. I. The Rebellion of the Princess. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Thompson, C. L. The Presbyterians. (The Story of the Churches.) Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Vernon, H. M. Variation in Animals and Plants. H. Holt & Co. $1.75.
White, S. E. Conjuror's House: A Romance of the Free Forest. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Wiley, Edwin. The Old and the New Renaissance. Nashville: M. E. Church. $1.25.
Woolsey, Mrs. Republics Versus Woman. Grafton Press.
Zagel, Frederick. Schilling's Spanish Grammar. H. Holt & Co. $1.10.

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The Week.

The *Evening Post* prints, from a trustworthy correspondent in Manila, an account of the brutalities practised upon Filipinos by a regular army officer, Capt. R. L. Howze. In this case the protests have come, not from any Anti-Imperialists or "calumniators of the army," but from army officers themselves, who are unwilling that the service shall bear the disgrace of Capt. Howze's acts without some effort to punish him. Graduates of West Point and veterans of many years have preferred the charges, and to Gen. Miles is due the credit for the careful probing of the matter. So far, the War Department has taken no action in the matter, and Capt. Howze still holds advanced rank in the Porto Rico Regiment, just as he received the grade of brigadier-general of volunteers for his alleged "brilliant services" in the Philippines. His case and others have been treated at length in Gen. Miles's report of his trip to the Philippines. But this report is the very one the War Department has suppressed, on the ground that it partakes of the nature of an inspection and is, therefore, confidential. Neither the public nor the service is thus to have an opportunity to learn the views of the Lieutenant-General and to judge of their correctness. We are informed that Gen. Miles does not confine himself merely to these cases, but that his opinions of the condition of the troops and their state of discipline would make extremely interesting if not sensational reading.

Gen. Wood has departed for the Philippines, but the scandal of the *jai alai* gambling establishment in Havana continues. It appears now that its franchise was granted for ten years, and that the interpretation given to it by the attorneys of the proprietors was confirmed by Gen. Wood in the *Official Gazette* of May 9, 1902. In Secretary Root's mind there seems to be no doubt that this concession was rightly bestowed because of the harmlessness of the game itself and its national character. But, as the game is played in Havana, it is merely a means to an end—to enable the syndicate to make enormous sums out of the open betting carried on. It is as if Messrs. Farrell and Canfield should start a handball court in this city, and take 10 per cent. of the bets placed upon the professional players employed by them. The game may be "national," but it is by no means so much so as cockfighting. Yet the latter has been stopped both in the Philippines and in Cuba. What would have been thought if Gen. Wood had licensed bullfighters in Havana and given them an exclusive ten years' privilege?

In commenting upon the formation of a general staff for the army, we expressed the opinion that it might become either a great benefit or a great injury to the service, according to the manner of its administration. Its protection from the blight of politics is so absolutely essential to its efficiency that it is gratifying to record Secretary Root's action in appointing a board of generals to select the officers who shall constitute it when it begins work in August. This is undoubtedly the fairest way in which the choice could be made, particularly as it has been feared in army circles that the officers nearest to the Secretary might be able to influence the selections in favor of themselves or their friends. Gen. Young's board has, moreover, given a striking proof of its desire to do its work on the basis of merit only, by inducing Mr. Root to rule that only such applications and endorsements of officers shall be considered as are forwarded through the regular military channels. This should prevent endless wire-pulling, and preserve the board from being overrun by the wives and sisters and Congressional friends of aspirants. The composition of the board—a remarkably strong one—is in itself sufficient guarantee that every officer of merit will be considered, even if now absent in the Philippines. If this policy is consistently pursued, these positions should be the greatest prizes in the army, and selection for them should, alone, attest the exceptionally high professional standing of the officers so honored.

At last both houses of the New York Legislature have been permitted to vote squarely on the question of submitting to the people a broad scheme of canal improvements. The result is the passage of the referendum bill by large majorities. This outcome is all the more striking from the fact that practically the entire legislative machinery was in the hands of men from the anti-canal counties, ready to do all in their power to delay and, if possible, defeat the bill. The Republicans in the Senate, when they act together, have a working majority, but of the thirty-two votes cast for the bill in that body only eleven came from the dominant party. Likewise, in the Assembly, but thirty-two of the eighty-nine Republicans favored the improvements. This circumstance is easily explained, since the Republican majority comes chiefly from the rural districts. That the Canal bill was able to make its way against opposition of this sort is, however, a remarkable proof of the vitality of its support. Of course, this is really due to the fact that the commercial supremacy of the State, as well as of the port of New York, is involved in the canal question. The passage of grain for export through New York has steadily fallen off from year to year as the Erie Canal has become a less and less efficient carrier in comparison with modern transportation facilities. Railroad improvements have progressed without interruption, but the canal has remained practically stationary since the sixties; the wasted expenditure of 1897 representing the only attempt at substantial betterment. But railway development has not enhanced the relative advantage of this port as a point of departure for foreign freights. Its tendency has, in fact, been exactly the contrary. With the water route practically abandoned, New York has been obliged to take its chances in railroad competition with Portland, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Newport News, and even with Savannah.

These are the considerations which have induced the Legislature to propose to the people a bond issue of $101,000,000 for the purpose of improving the Erie and Champlain Canals so as to enable them to accommodate canal barges of 1,000-ton capacity, operated in fleets. Even in these days of great enterprises, the expenditure involved appears to be enormous. And so it is, but the project is surely no more stupendous than that of 1817, when, with a population of little over 1,000,000 persons, the State undertook to "open communication between the Hudson River, Mohawk River, Seneca River, and Lake Erie," and actually completed, by the autumn of 1825, a four-foot canal 363 miles long, with eighty-four locks, capable of passing boats of eighty tons capacity. "It is not to be supposed," said Mr. Carnegie not long ago, "that the city and State of New York will fail to protect their position by improving the weapon which New York State, alone of all the States, has in her waterway from the lakes to the port of New York." The action of the Legislature indicates that Mr. Carnegie was right.

If organized labor has ever gone into a more idiotic strike than that of the structural ironworkers on the subway, in this city, we cannot at the moment recall it. There is absolutely no local grievance. The men were at work under an agreement with the contractor, made last November, but this they have trampled upon, as if their word were no better than the mud in the gutters—and all for what? Why, the American Bridge Company, which furnishes material for

the subway, is employing a few non-union men in Pittsburgh! That renders the iron "scab," of course, and the unionists here cannot consent to defile their hands by touching it. Hence the strike, in flat violation of their agreement, and hence the threat to call out 45,000 workmen to fight the American Bridge Company, the Steel Trust, and all creation. Two things are to be observed in connection with this senseless strike. One is that it comes hard upon the report of the Strike Commission, which spoke out so emphatically for the rights of the non-union laborer and called upon the unions to cease discriminating against him. We were told that this would have a great effect in diminishing the intolerance of labor unions; they would be more considerate of the free workman. Let the attitude of the ironworkers provide the fit comment on that prophecy. They are filled with hatred of the non-union man, and care not how much they inconvenience the public. This is the second thing to note about this strike: it sets the good of the city at open defiance. What do we care how long you have to wait for your subway? It used to be the selfish capitalist who said, "The public be d—d!" Organized labor has changed all that, and is now the great disregarder and curser of the public.

The State of Indiana seems to be a centre of disturbance in the field of organized labor. Dispatches from Indianapolis a few days since announced that the non-union men in the town of Anderson had formed an organization to protect themselves against the tyranny of the unions. This movement among independent workers seems to be spreading. Its declared objects are to oppose boycotts and blacklists; to improve the condition of wage workers by harmonious coöperation with employers; to compel public officers to enforce the law for the protection of all citizens; to provide an employment bureau for members, and in general to build up rather than break down American industry. A later dispatch tells us that the business men of Evansville, Ind., to the number of one hundred or more, have formed an anti-boycott league, to save themselves from the torments of organized labor. It is said that three boycotts are raging there now. The latest has been proclaimed against the Evansville Gas Company. In order to compel this company to accede to certain demands, the boycotters have ordered other employers of labor to stop using gas, under penalty of having their own employees "called out," although the latter have no complaints to make.

This is the sympathetic strike and the boycott combined. It proceeds on the hypothesis that the interests of the original strikers (the gas stokers), who must be a relatively small part of the inhabitants of Evansville, are of such transcendent importance that all other persons and things should give way to them; that all others should take up their fight without knowing its merits or even inquiring what it is about. The theory is, that if a sympathetic strike or a boycott depends upon reason or argument, you might as well abandon the system at once, because debate might go on forever. Therefore, if A makes a demand on B which is refused, C, D, and E must drop their own tools and join A in coercing B. If they refuse to do so, then all the rest of the alphabet must withhold patronage from A, C, D, and E. It is plain that if the rest of the alphabet assert their right to buy and sell where they please, to ride in street cars, to keep their gas meters, and to draw their breath in their accustomed way, boycotting will soon come to an end. We shall watch the outcome of the Evansville experiment as that of a new declaration of independence.

The burning question of the Chicago municipal campaign is the renewal of the street railway franchises, which are about expiring, and the granting of franchises for extensions. The north and west divisions of the city were under the firm control of Mr. Yerkes until he kindly removed the sphere of his influence to London. His Chicago belongings have fallen into the hands of the Elkins and Widener school of Philadelphians, of which Yerkes himself was a former head-master. Mayor Carter Harrison is understood to favor, in a mild way, municipal ownership of street railways and other public utilities, but the issue between himself and his Republican competitor in this particular is not sharply drawn. In fact, this question is not to be decided by the Mayor, but by the Common Council, and here the great Voters' League holds the commanding position. Astonishing as it may seem, the citizens of Chicago actually control the city government. No rings of capitalists, or of gamblers, no bosses, no syndicates have any power worth mentioning as against the great Voters' League. Neither Yerkes nor his successors, neither the Gas Trust nor the electric lighting people, neither city railways nor other railways, can buy a franchise in Chicago or procure one on terms that will not bear public investigation. The question is often asked how it happens that Chicago holds this unique position among the greater American cities. The reason is that for twenty years she has had an organized body of citizens, composed of both Republicans and Democrats, who have made municipal politics their chief concern, who have given their time and money and personal service without stint to civic duties. They have shown the same zeal in the purification of public life that the thieves and the thugs have displayed in its defilement. When they took up this work, the condition of city affairs was as bad as bad could be. Tammany Hall under Croker was no worse. The decent people are now so securely in the saddle that they have no fear of the result of any city election. Whether Harrison or Stewart shall be elected on the 7th of April, the Common Council will be the power behind the throne and above the throne, and it will be the representative of the great Voters' League.

Even such limited ballot reform as was provided in a bill drawn up by the Republican Committee of Pennsylvania has proved too much for the Legislature of that State, and the measure has been amended out of all resemblance to its original form. The grouping of candidates with the name of each appearing only once has been preserved thus far, however. Straight party voting is, of course, provided for. No restriction is placed on the use of voters' assistants—an evil as prevalent in Pennsylvania as in Delaware. In short, the promise of ballot reform, if carried out at all, is evidently to be fulfilled only in form, not in spirit. No mention whatever is now made of a personal registration law, without which it is quite certain the ballot in Pennsylvania can never be permanently purified. Meanwhile, nothing at all is heard of Quay, whose personal prowess has been so often described by his new friends, the reformers. No one who reads descriptions of Quay given by Gov. Pennypacker and other admirers, would doubt that the Pennsylvania Senator could pass a personal registration law as quickly as a franchise grab or a bill raiding the State treasury. The Philadelphia *Press* remarks sadly of the ballot bill that it is not what those who contended for ballot reform wanted, though it may furnish a "starting-point for the future." But it does not call on Quay for assistance. We wonder why not?

The football rules committee has adopted the principle of open play, and, as a guarantee of effective action at the next meeting, prohibits the use of sole-leather helmets by players. Heads are not hard enough for mass play as at present conducted, and, having deprived the player of his defensive casque, which was also a battering ram at need, they are bound to go further and release him from the obligation of knocking down a compact group of opponents with his head. All lovers of sport will commend this attitude of the rules committee, but will feel that the matter cannot rest at the point of good intentions. Two very simple changes in the rules will bring back the open game—first, the keeping of seven men in the line; sec-

ond, the increase of the distance to be gained in four downs from five to ten yards. This is the irreducible minimum of reform; and faculty committees and others in authority should spend the next fortnight in impressing the fact upon the rules committee.

Who could have expected to live to see protectionists chuckling over a great increase in the imports of those very goods which their tariff was designed to keep out? Yet it is "A Gratifying Showing," they now gleefully tell us, when the figures for the past eight months show large gains in the amount of hides, and wool, and iron, and steel brought into this country. The increases are, respectively, $9,000,000, $5,600,000, and $22,300,000. Ah! but these are all "manufacturers' materials," and the more of them that come to us the better. Then why did you clap on extra duties for the express purpose of excluding them? This protectionist joy is as belated as it is suspicious. In actual effect, under the present circumstances, these enlarged importations have at least three bad consequences. They raise the price to the consumer by the amount of the tariff tax; they make manufacturing just so much the more expensive, thus further disabling the American exporter from competing in the world market; and they throw needless millions more of customs revenue into the Treasury at the very moment when the banks and the general commercial situation can worst spare the money. All told, a "showing" indeed; but of a kind not flattering to the capacity of our tariff-makers.

The fall in British consols to the price of 90 may fairly be called a sensational event in finance. Consols, like other securities, have had their ups and downs. In 1870, for example, when the Franco-Prussian war aroused fear of English entanglement, consols went down to 88½, and they touched 84⅝ in 1866, the year of the Overend-Gurney panic. But no such price as 90 has been reached since 1870. Reasons for this decline are so well known as hardly to need recapitulation. Boer war expenses made necessary the issue, in the three past years, of $610,000,000 new Government stock by England. Supply had therefore increased heavily in the consols market at the hour when demand was reduced by suspension of purchases for the sinking fund. A Transvaal loan of $150,000,000, with a British Government guarantee, is about to issue, and will have to find lodgment in the very quarters where older supplies of consols are at present held. This situation coincides rather unluckily with the date fixed by Mr. Goschen, at the debt conversion of 1888, for automatic reduction, in the annual interest paid on consols, from 2¾ to 2½ per cent. There is nothing illogical in a fall in price, under such conditions, and perhaps nothing surprising even in the drop from 113, in the year before the Transvaal war, to the present 90. A peculiar interest is attached to present developments, however, because they are in a sense the sequel to a novel experiment in British finance. Never before 1901, we believe, did the British Government openly seek the aid of foreign syndicates in placing its public loans. Of the $300,000,000 consols issue of that year, it privately placed half with a New York and Continental syndicate, under whose auspices $50,000,000 to $100,000,000 was sold in the United States, and nearly as much in France. It adopted the same expedient, on a smaller scale, a year ago.

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach was unfavorably criticised for this policy at the time. He answered that such foreign support was requisite to avoid a very low issue price. The rejoinder of his critics was, that the consols market would be injured, later on, precisely as much as it had been helped at the time of issue. It was assumed that consols taken outside of England would presently be sold back; first, because English investors would naturally bid more for them; second, because the British Government charges the 6 per cent. British income tax against all holders of consols, home and foreign, and deducts that percentage from its interest remittances; third, because other markets, when in need of money, would undoubtedly resort first of all to consols as a means of raising it. All this has happened, as Sir Michael's critics said it would. It is not conclusive proof, however, that sales abroad were wrong; nor, for that matter, does it prove present valuations to be permanent. One striking aspect of the case is that while British 2½ per cents—they will bear that rate this week—sell now at 90, the law which authorizes $130,000,000 United States bonds to build the Isthmian Canal, stipulates that those bonds shall be 2 per cents, and shall not be sold for less than par.

Dispatches from Bloemfontein say that the representatives of the South African colonies have signed a convention providing for a 10 per cent. preference in customs duties in favor of Great Britain and of reciprocating British colonies. This is, very likely, a part of the arrangement made by Mr. Chamberlaln—a *quid pro quo* for the British guarantee of the £15,000,000 loan for setting up the Boer provinces. It is not without significance to our trade with South Africa, which has grown largely in recent years, especially in agricultural and mining machinery. The preference shown to Great Britain is not to be complained of, however, since it is our own way of treating colonial trade; *vide* the discriminating export duty on Manila hemp, and our proposal that Cuba, which is nobody's colony as yet, shall bind herself to give us a preference in her tariff for five years.

The safe return of the *Morning*, with important news from the British exploring ship *Discovery*, illustrates once more the comparative safety of Antarctic exploration, hitherto unaccompanied by such tragedies as have taken place in the north polar seas. The *Morning* left London in July of last year, and, after taking on supplies at New Zealand, entered the ice regions in December. She seems to have had comparatively little trouble in reaching the *Discovery* and then returning with the tidings of Capt. Scott's great contribution to the world's knowledge. Sir Clements Markham, the highest authority, now agrees with him in believing that the greater part of the Antarctic region consists of a vast continent, for the exploration of which ships are useless. Besides the *Discovery*, there are two other ships at work in the Antarctic regions, the *Gauss*, carrying the German expedition under Erik von Drygalski, and Dr. Otto Nordenskiöld's *Antarctica*. The British success shows what may be accomplished when such expeditions are undertaken by trained explorers and scientists.

A fortnight ago the preaching monks of France were declared outlaws by the Chamber of Deputies, and now M. Combes's proscription is complete with a refusal to authorize the Carthusians, who follow the contemplative life and manufacture a famous cordial. Many associations gather about the mountain establishment of the Grande Chartreuse. The prosperity of the order is shared by all the surrounding country; it maintains, besides its main factory, many beneficent charities; finally, it seemed clear that, unlike other aristocratic orders, the Carthusians have no political animus, and have not been perniciously active against the republic. On such and on more sentimental grounds it was hoped that the Ministry might make an exception in the case of these monks, and grant their petition for authorization. Yet, in fact, M. Combes increased his majority on the vote to deny the petition, from about fifty to ninety. The total result, to date, of his application of the Associations Law is the suppression of all monastic congregations, except a few that originally applied for authorization; and the denial of the right to teach to all the religious orders, except a portion of the female orders conducting schools for girls. Waldeck-Rousseau probably meant to hold the Associations Law as a club over two or three notoriously disloyal orders; his successor is endeavoring to make France an impossible residence for the monastic clergy.

THE REFUNDING SCHEME.

A circular has been issued by the Secretary of the Treasury for converting $100,000,000 of the 4 per cent. bonds which mature in 1907, and of the 3s of 1908, into new bonds running for thirty years at 2 per cent. interest. In a newspaper interview the Secretary explains that one great reason for taking this step is that it will provide a new lot of bonds as a basis for banknote circulation. The whole amount of bonds outstanding is not increased by this step, but the $100,000,000 thus extended will become, in one sense, permanent—that is, they will not be redeemable until 1933.

This operation was authorized by Congress three years ago. The act of March 14, 1900, reversed the fiscal policy of the Government, which had heretofore aimed at the shortest possible term of the interest-bearing debt. Anybody who examines the record of our war financiering and of the subsequent refunding operations, will perceive that both Congress and the Executive had invariably sought to keep the outstanding bonds within reach in order to redeem them and stop annual payments of interest. A conspicuous example of this policy was the refunding operation conducted by Secretary Windom in the Administration of President Garfield, when the 5 and 4½ per cents issued by Secretary Sherman under the refunding act of 1870 were about maturing. The Government did not have the money to pay them off, but the Secretary refused to extend them for any definite period. He made an arrangement with a syndicate of bankers by which he was enabled to offer the bondholders the option of being paid in cash, or having the bonds extended and made "redeemable at the pleasure of the United States," the rate of interest during the remaining years to be either 3 or 3½ per cent., according to a certain classification named. No new bonds were issued, but the old ones were stamped with the terms of the new agreement. Nearly all of these bonds were turned in by the holders and stamped in this way. Thus, when the Government had more money than it needed, it was not obliged to buy bonds in the market at a premium, or to deposit it in banks without interest. It was only necessary to call for a certain amount of bonds, and then redeem them and stop the interest.

There never was a valid reason why this plan should not have been followed through the entire term of the national debt; nor would anybody ever have conceived of a different policy but for the exigency of the national bank circulation. Nor would public opinion have tolerated any change of attitude in this regard had not other important events driven the money question out of politics. Mr. Bryan was beaten in the campaign of 1896, and the Democratic party, which had previously been very keen in criticising all financial measures, was divided, beaten, and cowed. Then the Spanish war came, and the questions relating to the acquisition of new territory superseded the old issues. Thus the Republican leaders felt that they had a free hand, and that they might deal with the bonded debt as they pleased. They did not want to keep the debt alive for the sake of the debt, but for the sake of the banks—and not for the sake of the banks *per se*, but for their note issues. They saw the penumbra of a declining circulation, and they were not prepared to deal with it in a scientific way. They did not take a favorable view of "assets currency." They thought that a solution of the currency problem might be staved off by extending the maturing bonds instead of redeeming them. Hence the refunding clause in the gold standard act of 1900. Under that act Secretary Gage refunded about $445,000,000 of 5s, 4s, and 3s maturing in 1904, 1907, and 1908 respectively, into 2s, running thirty years, and paid about $40,000,000 in premiums to the holders for the privilege of doing so. He discontinued the refunding operation on the last day of December, 1900; one of the reasons assigned for it being that the discontinuance would put the Government in better condition, either for purchase, or for payment of the remaining debt when due.

Looking at the present operation from the point of view of Government finance solely, it is quite indefensible, since it puts upon the taxpayers a burden of thirty years' interest at 2 per cent., which is 60 per cent., in place of, say, three years' interest at 4 per cent., which is 12 per cent. The 4 per cent. bonds maturing in 1907 amount to $233,000,000. If $100,000,000 of these are now refunded at 2 per cent., the interest for thirty years will be $60,000,000, as against $12,000,000 by the original plan of issue—a difference of $48,000,000 against the taxpayers, or of $46,000,000 after allowing for the 2 per cent. premium which Secretary Shaw says he will require the bondholders to pay. It is hardly necessary to say that, considered by itself, this is bad financiering, and that, apart from the national banknote question, it would be unthinkable. It is open to serious doubt, however, whether this attempt to eke out the present hidebound currency system will have the desired effect. At all events, it will not dispense Congress from the necessity of overhauling and amending that system at an early day.

FEDERAL BOARDS OF INQUIRY.

Among the recommendations of the Anthracite Strike Commission is a suggestion that the State and Federal Governments should provide machinery for the making of a compulsory investigation of difficulties similar to the one which the members were then pursuing. The object of such investigation is, of course, to obtain the facts in each case, so that public opinion may be enlightened and enabled to exercise an influence in settling the controversy. Most of the States already have some kind of apparatus for making these inquiries, but their labor commissions are generally composed of needy politicians, or of men so little known that their opinions carry no weight. In order to give any effect to an *enquête* of the kind, it must be committed to the hands of men of wide repute for intelligence, justice, and responsibility.

The first objection likely to be made to this method of dealing with strikes is the Constitutional one. What kind of labor troubles can the Federal Government deal with? The Commission refers to the "compulsory investigation of difficulties similar to the investigation which this Commission has made." This inquiry was not of a Federal or interstate character. In a secondary sense, the coal strike affected nearly all the people of the United States—that is, it curtailed their supply of one of the necessaries of life—but primarily it was a Pennsylvania affair exclusively. If the Federal Government might investigate it in such a way as to compel the attendance of witnesses, then it might do so in case of a strike among the cotton spinners at Fall River or the shoemakers of Lynn. The investigation of the anthracite coal strike was not made in pursuance of any law. There was no element of compulsion in it. Both sides came in voluntarily and agreed not only to supply the information called for, but to accept the decision of the investigators as binding upon them for three years. Of course, no objection could be raised by third parties to a commission thus called into being.

The Commission points to the act of Congress of October 1, 1888, and expresses the opinion that, with a few modifications, it might be made the basis of a law for such investigations. The purpose of the act in question is set forth in its title. It is limited to controversies and differences between railroad corporations and other common carriers engaged in interstate and Territorial transportation, and their employees. While limited to common carriers, it is certainly capable of extension, if Congress so chooses, to persons and corporations engaged in any kind of interstate or Territorial commerce. It is open to serious doubt whether it could be extended to the business of a single State.

The act of 1888 provides for two methods of procedure in cases of labor troubles of the specified kind. The first is arbitration, where both disputants agree to submit to a decision of that kind. The second is investigation, and is compulsory as against both parties to the controversy, though the finding of the Com-

missioners is merely advisory. It is to be filed in the office of the Commissioner of Labor, who is directed to send a copy of it to the Secretary of the State or Territory in which the controversy exists. Whether Congress can clothe commissioners with power to investigate local disputes and compel the parties to give testimony and show their books, is perhaps not the most important question, however. If the dispute were one of great magnitude, if it were one "affected with a public interest" in a very wide sense, like the recent coal strike, the example before us shows pretty clearly that neither party to the contest would refuse the information sought. If either should refuse, the public would conclude that its case was a bad one, that it shunned the light of day, and the popular verdict would be cast against it for that reason. We think, therefore, that the suggestion of the Commission might properly and wisely be carried into effect, even without conferring compulsory powers on the investigators.

If such a commission could have been brought into existence last June, the report says, "we believe that the coal famine might have been averted—certainly the suffering and deprivation might have been greatly mitigated." Then, an estimate is given of the losses incurred by the various parties concerned. Those of the mine owners are estimated at $46,000,000; those of the mine employees at $25,000,000; and those of the transportation companies at $28,000,000. The losses of the mine owners are probably overestimated. Although their coal was not mined and sold, it is still in the ground, and is available for future sales. Their losses are simply the amount they had to pay for expenses, interest, and depreciation during the strike. The loss to the employees, was, however, total. The wages lost to-day cannot be made good to-morrow. The losses to the transportation companies were probably as much as $28,000,000, and this sum can never be recovered. The losses to the public were great but indeterminate. They reinforce the argument of the Commission for a Federal Board to take cognizance of labor difficulties of unusual magnitude. The act of 1888 designates the President of the United States as the person who shall tender the services of the Federal Board contemplated therein. He is, therefore, the one to determine the dimensions and character of the controversy calling for such treatment.

THE IRISH LAND BILL.

One can but sympathize with the high hopes expressed, both in England and in Ireland, that the new Irish Land bill may at last heal the open sore of turmoil and discontent in that country. Yet we have seen the Irish question "settled" too many times before to indulge in over-confidence now. One vitiating element in every former apparent solution certainly remains to-day to vex the situation. We refer, of course, to the malign influence of party politics. This it was which brought to nought Mr. Gladstone's heroic labors for the peace of Ireland, in his old age; and this, it may easily prove, will confuse and baffle Secretary Wyndham and Mr. Balfour. It is the verdict of a former Prime Minister that "the Irish question has never passed into history because it has never passed out of politics."

The political shoe is, to be sure, on the other party foot to-day. If there was any truth in the charge, so often flung in Mr. Gladstone's teeth, that he never woke to the need of doing something for Ireland until he also woke to the need of winning the Irish vote in the House of Commons, it surely could be retorted with tenfold force upon the Conservatives of the present day. The Nationalists may well boast that only because they have shown themselves to hold the balance of power in Parliament have they at last won a hearing from the man whose political reputation was made by harrying them as Irish Secretary. It is unfortunately true that the historic attitude of the English people has been, as Cobbett expressed it, to say to their own rulers, "Do what you please with the Irish, so long as you don't let them trouble our ease." There has always been, too, a strange and, as it were, congenital incapacity on the part of the English to so much as understand what Irish grievances are. This was once humorously stated by Sheridan, who said that the attitude of England towards Ireland was like that of a sergeant flogging an Irish soldier. First he cut the man across the back, and then, when the fellow protested at that, struck him across the legs, crying out, "Will nothing please you?" It is such a lack of racial sympathy, leading to misunderstandings on both sides and to the failure of so many attempts at conciliation, which was doubtless in Lord Rosebery's mind when he wrote:

> "It is difficult to avoid the impression that there has been throughout the past history of England and Ireland a malignant fate waving away every auspicious chance and blighting every opportunity of beneficence as it arises."

But the Balfour Government has chosen to believe that the ailment of Ireland is mainly economic, and that the conversion of some half-million tenant farmers into peasant landowners will gradually remove the racial and political incompatibility that keeps the two nations constantly at odds. Accordingly, Mr. Wyndham, encouraged by many of the prominent Irish Nationalists, has brought in a bill for voluntary land purchase more liberal and more sweeping than any previous relief measure. Mr. Gladstone's land acts of the early seventies, the Liberal act of 1881, the Tory bill carried through by Lord Ashbourne in 1885, the land-purchase clause of Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule bill in 1886, were all based on a common principle. The State advanced cash or credit (land stock) with which the tenants paid their landlords. The money for this advance it borrowed at a low rate of interest. It repaid itself by charging the tenant a higher rate of interest for a term of years, thus providing for the regular payment of its interest charges and for the gradual extinction of the principal under the familiar workings of a sinking fund. No previous Ministry has gone beyond this principle of loan and repayment, and, subject indeed to vexatious delays in adjusting prior mortgage liens and in searching titles, the earlier land-purchase plans have slowly increased the number of small holdings in fee simple.

While our information is still too scanty to admit of any detailed criticism of the financial features of Mr. Wyndham's bill, it is patent that it differs from all earlier ones in waiving full repayment, and offering a free grant of £12,000,000 to be applied towards reducing the cost of purchase to the tenants. This grant is directly traceable to Capt. Shawe-Taylor's conference between landlords and tenants. At that informal but memorable gathering the landlords stated what they were willing to take, the tenants what they were able to offer; and, finding a considerable discrepancy between the figures, they jointly petitioned the Government to make up the difference. One may assume the good faith and the general competence of the conference, and yet find that its recommendations lacked all the qualities of a compromise or bargain. X who asks 5 and Y who bids 3, can easily strike hands if Z will supply the missing 2. This friendly rôle of Z Mr. Balfour's Government has taken upon itself, and even should Mr. Wyndham's estimates of the economies of administration to be effected indirectly by the bill prove excessive, nobody can doubt that peace at £12,000,000 is cheap at the price.

Opposition will undoubtedly fix upon the very high valuation of the land and the excessively long period of repayment—sixty-eight and one-half years—as weak features of the bill. To the old adherents of Mr. Gladstone it will seem that the Government has borne too heavily upon an important but, after all, single element in a complicated situation, for which the real remedy is home rule. On the principle of not interfering with a notable deed of charity, such doubts may be suppressed. Partisan interests, however, are likely to supply Mr. Wyndham's candidacy for the succession of Saint Patrick with the requisite number of devil's advocates; and many who applaud the boldness and the generosity with which the Govern-

ment has staked its life upon this measure, will doubt if anything short of home rule will permanently content that sturdy group of Irish Nationalists who, as Mr. Bryce once wrote admiringly, "vote as one man, though capable of speaking enough for a thousand."

Extreme caution, not to say coldness, marks the attitude of the Irish press and leaders towards the Conservatives bearing gifts. The most they will say is that Secretary Wyndham means well, and that far be it from them to reject this friendly overture from an hereditary foe; but they would like, before committing themselves in the least, to see it "put in writing," as Alice in Wonderland has it. We suspect, also, that there is more in the Irish hesitation than this natural desire to study at leisure the bewildering details of an intricate measure. It was said that only two men in Great Britain really understood Mr. Gladstone's Land Bill—himself and Timothy Healy. Time may properly be asked now to master the new bill; but we think that the Nationalists are also waiting to see what is to go along with it. Are they to get the Catholic University for Ireland which Mr. Balfour has long favored personally, and which the Royal Commission on Education approved in its recent report? Are they also to have a further extension of local government—that is, home rule under some name intended to make it smell sweeter in Tory nostrils? All these matters, and more, are thought to be lying behind the first of the Government's Irish measures; and there is certainly enough in them to give the Irish people pause.

"PARSIFAL" IN AMERICA.

It was to be expected that the announcement of Mr. Conried's intention to produce "Parsifal" in this city next winter should cause a commotion at Bayreuth, and induce Mme. Cosima Wagner to denounce the project as "irreverent and illegal." Monopolists are apt to be tenacious of their claims, and "Parsifal" is at once the most extraordinary and the most profitable monopoly the world of music has ever seen. The last and, in some respects, the most interesting work of the greatest of all opera composers, it has been a Bayreuth specialty for two decades. Large sums have been repeatedly offered for permission to produce it in other cities, but Wagner's widow has always declined them emphatically, nay, indignantly. She even objects to having the opera produced in concert or oratorio form, without scenery, costume, and action; and when, last December, an Amsterdam society brought it out in this manner, a formal protest, signed by Karl Klindworth, Hans Richter, Felix Mottl, Engelbert Humperdinck, and others, was printed in the newspapers of Germany. On the other hand, the late Anton Seidl, second to none in his reverence for Wagner, saw nothing improper in such partial performances of "Parsifal," which he gave here repeatedly; nor did this prevent Mme. Wagner from inviting him to conduct this opera at Bayreuth.

Is it desirable to perpetuate the Bayreuth monopoly of "Parsifal"? To answer this question we must inquire, "Why was it ever created?" Why was the Wagner Theatre built in the small, inaccessible Bavarian town of Bayreuth? As everybody knows, this theatre was erected, before "Parsifal" was written, for the four dramas constituting the "Ring of the Nibelung." Long and painful experience had convinced Wagner that if he was ever to teach singers and players how to interpret correctly these music-dramas, so original in style, so utterly different from what had theretofore been known as opera, it could be done only in a theatre absolutely under his own control. The German opera houses, half a century ago, were in a deplorable condition. Wagner speaks of "the almost grotesque incorrectness" of the performances given in them, and this remark applied particularly to his own operas—to "The Flying Dutchman," "Tannhäuser," and "Lohengrin." In 1852, when he had already printed his Nibelung poems, "Lohengrin" was declared, at Leipsic, to contain insuperable difficulties; "and from most of the theatres," Wagner wrote to a friend, "the same complaints come in." It was one of his consolations, during his exile in Switzerland, that he was not obliged to listen to "the wretched performances" of his operas in Germany, which, he wrote, "would probably only break my heart."

Eight years later, when he received his amnesty, he would have been glad to give the managers of the German opera houses the advantages of his personal cooperation at rehearsals; but they declined it, without thanks. "They seemed to be," as he wrote, "particularly anxious to keep me from all contact with my works." In Berlin the intendant even refused to see him. Most of the conductors were hostile, while good and willing singers were few and scattered. Under such circumstances, a theatre of his own, at some place like Bayreuth, was practically a necessity. But—and here we reach the kernel of the question—Bayreuth was originally intended merely as a means to an end. There Wagner intended personally to train singers from all parts of the empire to interpret his works correctly, so that they might be able to do justice to them subsequently in their respective opera houses. Logically, therefore, Bayreuth, having done this work, had lost its reason to exist. But Wagner was somewhat inconsistent. Having built his theatre, he planned to reserve the Nibelung operas for it alone, and it was only because of the financial deficit of the first festival (1876) that he was induced to sell the performing rights to other theatres. He still distrusted those theatres, and rightly, for they were even then little disposed to listen to his counsels. But since that time there has been a complete change of front, and the German opera houses vie with one another in their efforts to perform his operas in exact accordance with his intentions. Had they shown the same disposition thirty years ago, he would promptly and gladly have given up his Bayreuth plan, which involved an endless amount of labor, anxiety, and expense.

If he had clung to his plan of reserving the Nibelung Tetralogy for Bayreuth, what a calamity it would have been for the musical world! Within the last quarter of a century those masterworks have been enjoyed by millions who would never have been able to go to Bayreuth. Yet "Parsifal" is in that predicament. It would be a shame to keep it always in a remote place where only rich tourists can see it. It cannot be denied that Wagner expressed the wish that "Parsifal" should be reserved for Bayreuth; but he also wrote, less than a year before his death, that if only the wealthy could enjoy the festival performances they must be pronounced a failure ("zur Unfruchtbarkeit verurtheilt"). His plans concerning the distribution of free tickets are being carried out in a very limited fashion. His widow is also ignoring his wishes in other respects. Whereas his main object was that the Bayreuth theatre should serve as a model for other opera houses, she gets angry if others follow its example, and two years ago she even threatened suit against Munich for building a theatre and arranging for performances exactly *à la* Bayreuth!

One of Wagner's objects in wishing to reserve "Parsifal" for Bayreuth was, as he wrote to the King of Bavaria, to have a sure source of income for his family. But, at the present day, the income of his heirs is, apart from Bayreuth, at least $100,000 a year, so that friends and admirers need not worry if Mr. Conried does break the "Parsifal" monopoly. The number of American visitors to Bayreuth will not be greatly decreased thereby, and in most European countries "Parsifal" is protected by copyright until 1913. The Bayreuth festivals are unique in many ways and will always attract tourists. At present they are even fashionable, and Mr Conried cannot change European fashions. The only remaining question as to the desirableness and propriety of producing "Parsifal" in New York concerns the ethics of copyright. Even if Mr. Conried refused to pay the usual royalties, the case would be different from the ordinary piracy of books or music. A parallel case would be a book that hundreds of thousands were anxious to read, but that was kept in manuscript in a remote town. But

Mr. Conried is willing to pay the royalty, and more cannot be asked of him except that he should, as he doubtless will, follow the example of Bayreuth in staging Wagner's last work in such a way that its scenes will resemble paintings by the great masters.

THE SMALL PUBLISHER.

One of the more enterprising of our younger publishers, having recently allied himself with an older house, explains his action as follows:

"The tendency of modern business has convinced me that it is only a question of time when a publisher doing a limited business, with an organization necessarily small, and without the advantage of periodicals under his direction, will be unable to compete successfully with a larger house having these accessories."

If this be a correct analysis of the situation—and the speaker, Mr. R. H. Russell, had staked the prospects of an agreeable and distinctive business upon its correctness—the small publisher will soon be extinct. Certainly the publishing trade has not escaped the common lot of consolidation. At present we see massed in, say, a couple of houses the traditions of some dozen older firms. Most of the latter, according to present standards, would be called small publishers. Furthermore, the recent joint action to maintain the market prices of books is a step towards the wider consolidation of the publishing interests. It is the "gentlemen's agreement" which precedes a formal merger. As to the general tendency there is no doubt; the question is, only, Will the trade become completely centralized, and the small publisher eventually disappear?

Before giving a definite answer, it should be recalled that publishing is more and more submitting itself to what may be described as the department-store idea. Since books are various and appeal to divers classes of readers, something of this sort of organization lies in the very nature of the business. But besides the classification according to subjects of books, and besides magazine and subscription-book departments and the retail book store, certain houses are adding, with considerable success, departments of fine and limited issues or of art reproductions. Here it is that the real conflict between the small and great publisher lies. So far as merely the making of the average marketable book is concerned, the small publisher is already an anachronism. He can hardly command the capital to take the risks of widely scattered ventures, and he no longer stands in intimate relations of good will, on the one hand, to a small group of authors, and, on the other, to a select body of book-buyers. The modern publisher has in his pay a score of authors where his predecessor had one; but none to-day could show to the casual visitor to his establishment such a group of lions as frequented the offices of Tonson, Bodley, and the elder Murray. Neither public dinners, nor royalties, nor profits of a kind these antediluvian bookmakers never dreamed of, can disguise the fact that publishing has become far less personal and far more of a business. Accordingly, it would be as foolish for a small company to embark upon the routine course of bookmaking as it would be for any of us to engage in the steel business with only the facilities of our own back yards.

The small publisher must, like the small merchant generally, make good his position by offering fine, or at least distinctive, products, and thus attracting a select clientèle. There will always be people who will forego something per cent. of discount for the comfort of buying books from a carefully chosen stock and in a well-ordered shop. And there are many bookbuyers who are on the lookout for beautifully made books, and for all new works that combine with novelty a certain distinction of tone. It would be easy to instance, both in England and America, many publishers who, starting in the most modest way, have, through care in the choice and manufacture of books, made a very enviable success. And this is said not so much of the private presses, which appeals to bibliophiles in the narrower sense, but of regular publishers, in the smaller as well as in the larger cities.

We cannot believe that the great houses will ever wholly occupy these pleasanter fields of the trade, or that the more personal kind of business will, when intelligently conducted, ever lack reasonable support. It is probable, indeed, that in the long run the small publisher will gain the most desirable kind of patronage. One often forgets that the great consolidations of all kinds depend very largely upon the creation of new classes of purchasers. Do, for example, Messrs. Durand-Ruel or Mr. Macbeth lose customers because prosperous "art departments" have been added to department stores? The case of the small publisher is simply that of all businesses which prefer a distinctive product, and a small but constant and remunerative patronage, to competing in the general market.

But this is certainly true: a new and previously unexampled publishing is arising, which adopts the methods of other great manufacturing enterprises. It employs the skill of thousands of specialists and littérateurs, but it cares no more for science or literature as such than the Smelting Trust, which keeps scores of scientists in pay, cares for pure science. In either case, it is volume of business, command of capital, knowledge of markets, and aggressive administrative capacity that count. Sales and profits loom necessarily higher than niceties of production. Unquestionably, a young publisher must to-day choose one road or the other; he must either ally himself with the great bookmakers, and pursue the roads of wholesale advertising that lead to their kind of success, or he must limit his monetary ambitions and trust his own ability gradually to assemble, often to educate, a public for his finer wares. This will, we hope, continue to seem an adequate reward. In the past, before the creation of a reading proletariat, such was the regular condition of success in publishing. We think that the trade itself, and readers least of all, could ill spare the small publisher.

A SIGN OF THE TIMES.

LONDON, March 20, 1903.

The recent elections in England, especially the elections at Woolwich and at Rye, have a twofold importance, the one transitory, the other permanent. Their momentary significance lies in the evidence they afford of the waning popularity and declining strength of Mr. Balfour's Cabinet. It is easy enough to make too much of bye-elections, but it is also easy to underrate their import. The safe rule for an observer who wishes merely to ascertain the truth, is to pay no attention to the minor considerations, such as the character or adroitness of particular candidates, local circumstances, and the like. These things, of course, influence every election, and tell for more than their intrinsic worth upon bye-elections. But since these special circumstances must, from the nature of things, favor now the Government and now the Opposition, and on the average favor each pretty equally, they may be set aside. The rejection of a candidate must be counted as a substantial defeat, or his success as a substantial victory, for the party to which he belongs. Attention, extending now over twenty years, to the result of electoral contests, has convinced me that this is the safe rule, and that when a set of bye-elections tend in one direction, they afford a fair index to the trend of public opinion. Personally, I do not see how it is possible to doubt that, at the present moment, the popularity of the Ministry and of the party which the Ministers lead, is on the decline. It is, however, possible that their popularity may be renewed either by the exercise of statesmanlike skill, or by occurrences which it is now impossible to foresee. What makes this state of things the more serious for the Unionists is that the Irish Land bill will, whatever its merits or its demerits, assuredly not add to the strength of the Cabinet. The proposed Land act will certainly impose additional pecuniary liabilities on England, and this at a moment when Englishmen feel that the burden of taxation is already heavy.

Let me add, before quitting the immediate and transitory aspect of the recent elections, that no one can be sure what will be the exact result of a loss of credit on the part of the Cabinet. We must put it side by side with the prestige acquired, at any rate for the moment, by Mr. Chamberlain. He has become the most prominent member of his party; his rise to a leading position has been, if you take his whole career, slow, but it has been uniform. He has all but passed from the position of

a distinguished party leader into the position of a national statesman. This transition, or transformation, which is traceable in the life of every man who has come to the first rank in English politics, is hard to define, but easy to perceive. Men past middle life, whose memory carries them back, say, to 1848, and who, pondering over the career of Lord Palmerston, and remembering how a man who was at one time the hero in foreign politics of a certain type of English Radicals, became, in his later days, the favorite of the nation, will note points of resemblance between the political fortunes of Palmerston and of Chamberlain. From these matters, however, which, after all, refer mainly to the ups and downs of party conflicts, and, while they excite much attention for the moment, are soon absolutely forgotten, it is well to turn to the permanent importance of electoral contests which appear at first sight to be determined simply by the chances of party warfare.

How great may be the essential importance of even a single election, may be seen from a careful consideration of the victory achieved by Mr. Crooks at Woolwich. His triumph, we are told, and probably with truth, was due in part to personal qualities; he was the sort of man, it is intimated, whom the electors liked. But this explanation of Mr. Crooks's success sends us back to the question, what was there in Mr. Crooks that pleased the electors? The reasonable answer, as far as an outside critic may venture on a conjecture, is that the confidence of the artisans was gained by their being convinced that Mr. Crooks was a man of vigor and character, who would perform the part of a genuine labor candidate, and support the policy and the legislation which the large class of wage-earners are, whether rightly or not, convinced will contribute to their prosperity. Mr. Crooks apparently was returned to Parliament just because he is, to use the language of fifty years ago, a Socialist, or, to use the political slang of to-day, a Collectivist. It is very probable that he holds no cut-and-dried economical or political doctrine, but it is certain that he will support all measures by which the power and the wealth of the State are used for the supposed benefit of artisans or laborers, and which will give them comforts, in the way of high wages or of cheap houses, that wage-earners could not, they conceive, obtain without some sort of State help.

That the Woolwich election marks the increasing influence of Collectivism, and that it is the sign that English politicians may at no distant date have to take account of the power exercised by an organized labor party, is made probable by several considerations. Mr. Crooks's Unionist opponent was not the most judicious or tactful of candidates; if common report speaks the truth, he tried to gain the vote of the working classes by promises or prophecies that a Unionist Ministry would give more employment to workingmen in the dockyards and in other Government establishments than would a Liberal Government. If such hopes were really held out, a patriotic critic may, whatever his politics, feel some satisfaction at their failure to attain their end. In any case, it is noteworthy that the Socialism of Mr. Crooks seems to have been met by appeals to the class interest of artisans, and this is surely a tribute of an ominous kind to the political power of workingmen, who are influenced, if not by theories, yet by ideas, akin to Socialism.

Consider, again, the effect of a bill which, almost at the very date of the election at Woolwich, passed through the House of Commons. It is termed the Outdoor Relief (Friendly Societies) Act, 1903, and extends the Outdoor Relief Friendly Societies Act, 1894. Take both together, and they constitute a serious and even a portentous inroad upon the attempt which lies at the very foundation of the New Poor Law of 1834 to restrict within the narrowest limits the use of outdoor relief. Under the act of 1894, as extended by the bill of 1903, persons who receive relief from any friendly society as sick pay will, unless the relief received is more than five shillings a week, be absolutely entitled to retain this pension though receiving outdoor relief. There will be at once created a body of privileged persons entitled in virtue of their status to the advantages, without the burden or the discredit, of recognized pauperism. Can any one doubt that such privileged classes will soon be increased? Can any one wonder that the representative of the great Charity Organization Society and any reformer who still believes in the economical principles of 1834 should protest against an attack on principles of poor relief, the application whereof some seventy years ago saved England from ruin? There surely is reason for alarm. Note, too, that the relaxation of the rules regulating poor relief is, whether justifiable or not, merely part of a widely spread movement. On every side may be seen legislation, the intended effect of which is to provide for the class of wage earners at the expense of the State —that is, of the taxpayers—benefits which workingmen could not, it is presumed, obtain for themselves by their own exertions. Of the wisdom or the folly of this policy it is not my object to say anything at this moment. My wish is only to note its existence. It flows, in part at any rate, from the increased political influence of artisans and laborers; it is due in part to a real and honest change in the convictions or sentiment of the public. It is the sign that a distinct party which pursues more or less socialistic aims is coming to the fore.

Assume that such a party obtains parliamentary representatives enough to turn by their votes critical parliamentary divisions; then, even though the labor party be small in numbers, its very existence will, we may conjecture, produce two important results. In the first place, the existing parliamentary leaders, to whatever party they may nominally belong, will assuredly bid against one another for the labor vote. That they will pursue this course is the more certain because it will be dictated, not only by self-interest and partisanship, but also by motives of a more creditable character. A Liberal who believes that modern Toryism is leading England to destruction, or a Unionist who is convinced that Home Rule in Ireland will be a deathblow to the strength of England and to the unity of the British Empire, may well think that it is right to make some concessions to Socialism in order to avert a public calamity. In the second place, the old Liberal party, in so far as it represents the individualism of the philosophic Radicals, of the Whigs, and of the Peelites, will gradually lose such hold on the nation as it still retains. Between Liberalism of the old type and Socialism there can be no permanent alliance. AN OBSERVER.

MADAME DE STAËL AND NAPOLEON.—I.

PARIS, March 11, 1903.

Napoleon's hostility to Madame de Staël has done as much for her reputation, or more, than her works ever did. The very title of a recent book, 'Madame de Staël et Napoléon,' by M. Paul Gautier, shows that public opinion views them almost as rivals in the great struggle for glory. Though Madame de Staël's life is in hardly any part unknown, M. Gautier has found means to write a large volume on her life, using, for this purpose, the archives of the Château de Broglie, those of Coppet (the residence of Madame de Staël on Lake Geneva), the national archives, and those of the Foreign Office. The late Duc de Broglie gave him access to a large number of interesting letters addressed to Madame de Staël, among others, by Joseph Bonaparte, Chateaubriand, and Talleyrand. He was allowed to see at Coppet the inedited letters of Necker to his daughter during the period of the Consulate.

When Gen. Bonaparte arrived in Paris on the 5th of December, 1797, with the Treaty of Campo Formio, which he was to present to the Directory, he sent an aide-de-camp to Talleyrand to ask him when he could be received. Talleyrand answered at once that he would receive him the next day, and immediately advised Madame de Staël, his friend, to be at the rendezvous.

"She burned with impatience," writes M. Gautier, "to view the features of the young General-in-Chief of the Army of Italy. He came back covered with the laurels of victory; he was, at the age of twenty-eight, the first warrior of Europe; people praised his courage, his disinterestedness, his love of liberty. He liked the philosophers and the poets; Garat said of him that he was 'a philosopher at the head of armies.' He read Ossian, which pleased his dreamy nature. . . . He detested luxury, lived simply, avoided ovations, which offended his modesty. In short, he seemed like one of Plutarch's heroes who was to give to modern times an example of antique virtues."

Gen. Bonaparte's reputation had inflamed the romantic imagination of Madame de Staël; as insects are attracted by light, she was attracted by all that was new and brilliant. Of an active and restless disposition, she liked men of action, whether they were legislators, diplomats, or soldiers; she threw herself into the midst of the intrigues, the agitations, the struggles of the time, and her violent interest in public affairs took easily the form of a romantic attachment for public men. Before Bonaparte had returned to Paris and while he was in Italy, Madame de Staël wrote several letters to him, full of admiration—so it is said, at least, in the 'Memorial of St. Helena,' and confirmed by a letter written after the death of Napoleon by Gen. Bertrand to King Joseph. These letters were never published, and have probably been destroyed. Bonaparte was in love with Josephine, his wife (the only woman, in fact, for whom he ever felt a real and lasting passion), and Madame de Staël, if we may believe the 'Memorial of St. Helena,' wrote to him that "it was a monstrous thing, this union of genius with an insignificant little

Creole, incapable of appreciating him." Bourrienne, in his Memoirs (which, it must be said, are not considered a very trustworthy document) speaks of these enthusiastic letters. Bonaparte, he says, read fragments of them to him, and said laughingly: "Bourrienne, can you conceive such extravagance? This woman is mad! Just imagine, a *bel esprit*, a *faiseuse de sentiment*, comparing herself to Josephine. Bourrienne, I can't answer such letters."

At the meeting of Bonaparte with Talleyrand, the latter introduced Madame de Staël to him. "He paid little attention to her," says Talleyrand. "He had, however, an amiable word for her; told her that, on his way through Switzerland, he had called on her father Necker, and regretted not having found him." This short conversation took place in a large drawing-room, before the Minister's cabinet, filled with people anxious to see Bonaparte. A few days afterwards, Madame de Staël invited the General to a ball, but he did not go; he was instinctively afraid of the inconsiderate, imprudent character of Madame de Staël. He felt that she wished to find in him an instrument for her political aims, her ambition, the ambition of Benjamin Constant, the young Swiss who had linked his fortunes to those of Madame de Staël.

At a feast given by Talleyrand in honor of Bonaparte, Madame de Staël asked the General, in the midst of a large circle of people, who was, in his opinion, the first woman in the world, dead or living. Bonaparte answered with a smile: "The woman who has had most children." Another time Madame de Staël asked him (that was already after the 18th Brumaire), before many people, if he liked women. "Madame," answered Bonaparte, "I like my own"—upon which Madame herself exclaimed, before Lucien, "This answer was simply sublime; Epaminondas would not have answered differently." In reality, their two natures were not congenial. Madame de Staël was domineering, and Bonaparte was not the man to accept any domination. During the campaign in Egypt, distance added much to the halo with which the imagination of Madame de Staël had surrounded Bonaparte, and prevented direct contact, which had never been very happy. After Bonaparte's return, when a *coup d'état* against the Directory became imminent, Madame de Staël saw all her friends, Talleyrand, Sieyès, Daunou, Cabanis, Chénier, engaged in the plot. On the great day, the 18th Brumaire, Benjamin Constant, at Saint Cloud, sent her news from hour to hour. She soon persuaded herself that the triumph of Bonaparte was the triumph of liberty. She wrote enthusiastic letters to her father: a new era was beginning. She obtained for Benjamin Constant a place in the newly formed Tribunate.

Madame de Staël, however, was not long in perceiving that the new régime was not the era of perfect liberty which was her dream; and she entered the ranks of the opposition to the First Consul, who was assuming by degrees a dictatorial power. The Tribunate was the centre of this opposition, and Benjamin Constant was one of its most gifted members. He was one of three whom Bonaparte liked to qualify as *idéologues*. A speech made by him in the Tribunate, in which he denounced "an uneasy and boundless impatience" and the desire of the Government "to go through the examination of the Tribunate as through a foreign army," made Bonaparte very angry, and he turned his wrath against Madame de Staël as well as against Constant. From that date, all was over between the First Consul and Madame de Staël. In vain did she try to see him; he avoided her. He spoke very severely of her in his letters to his brother Joseph; he had shut his house to many of the friends of his wife Josephine; he considered scandalous the contempt shown by Madame de Staël for the common ways of the bourgeoisie, and the publicity which she gave to her relations with Benjamin Constant.

In April, 1800, Madame de Staël published a book entitled 'De la Littérature, considérée dans ses Rapports avec les Institutions Sociales.' As M. Paul Gautier justly says, every book of Madame de Staël's is an act. The volume, written apparently as a philosophical defence of the doctrine of human perfectibility, was, if you look beneath its phraseology, a protest against the First Consul made in the name of the Revolution. Bonaparte had not yet fought the battle of Marengo; he remained silent, but his hostility to Madame de Staël became deeper.

When Bonaparte was on his way to Italy, Madame de Staël's sentiments may be guessed from what she wrote afterwards: "The good of France required that she should suffer at that moment some reverses." However, when Bonaparte comes back, after Marengo, she writes to Madame Récamier: "This man has a will which uplifts the world." She soon saw Bonaparte acclaimed, almost deified; the hero became a peacemaker, and made the treaty of Lunéville. In reality, she had never ceased to feel great enthusiasm for him, and could not console herself for his indifference to her. She says to Lucien, almost with tears: "I become stupid before your brother, so much do I desire to please him. . . . I want to force him to occupy himself with me." Bonaparte, to whom Lucien reports these words, laughs, and says: "I see:

'Son génie étonné tremble devant le mien.' "

The year 1801 was, for Madame de Staël, a series of festivals and amusements. She stayed some time in Switzerland with her father, described to him the dangers which threatened liberty in France, and induced him to write his "latest views of politics and finance." Napoleon made peace with England in October, 1801, and his popularity was for a time as great in England as it was in France. In January, 1802, he eliminated from the Tribunate twenty members who made opposition to him, among them Benjamin Constant. Madame de Staël began against him an open war of epigrams. Bonaparte sent her some advice by Talleyrand, by his brothers Lucien and Joseph: "Tell this woman, Her Illustration, that I am neither a Louis XVI., nor a Larévellière-Lépeaux, nor a Barras. Tell her not to stand in my way, wherever I want to go; otherwise, *je la briserai*." He added: "I will never do her any harm needlessly."

Three weeks after the signing of the Peace of Amiens, on Easter Day, April 18, 1802, Paris heard the news of the Concordat signed between France and the Pope. Madame de Staël was greatly incensed at the official reconciliation of France with the Papacy. She shut her windows while Bonaparte went in great state to Notre Dame amid the acclamations of the people. She speaks, in her 'Considerations on the French Revolution,' of the "ancient coaches of the monarchy used on that day, the same coachmen, the same footmen," of the army of the Republic forming the escort; and she recalls the words of Milton: "We are to become the opprobrium of free nations." Madame de Staël was not an enemy of religion, but during the Directory she had hoped to establish Protestantism as the State religion. She was a good Calvinist. She told the republicans that "Protestantism was the only means of destroying the influence of the Catholic religion, and that, as a state religion, it would inherit the influence possessed by Catholicism."

Correspondence.

THE CERTIFICATE SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As Regent of Radcliffe College, I was often asked to permit candidates to enter on certificate. It is unnecessary to say that it was impossible to do this, because Harvard College does not admit on certificate. To the question why a candidate wished to enter on certificate, the usual reply was, "Because it is easier"—a reason that I could easily show was unworthy of a really earnest student.

I once asked a teacher of high rank about two boys who had been sent to college by his institution, second to none in America. "John took examination and entered with credit," he said. He went to a college that recognized no certificates. "Will—well, he was the sort of a boy that you could give a certificate to, and we sent him to —— College"—one that receives without examination.

"If they do these things in the green tree, what shall be done in the dry?"

Arthur Gilman.

Cambridge, Mass., March 27, 1903.

THE PROS AND CONS OF CO-EDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Owing to the action of Chicago University, there has arisen in the last few months a lively discussion of the problem of co-education. Such a discussion naturally calls forth the opinions of persons who at least know what they think. I fancy, however, that there are many vitally interested in educational matters who, like myself, do not know what they think about this important subject.

Nevertheless, I have had many opportunities to observe and form opinions. My undergraduate course was taken in a co-educational college. My graduate studies were carried on in Europe. I have taught for twenty years; ten of these years were spent in three different co-educational institutions, ten in a college for men only. This college has, however, an annex after the manner of Barnard, in which I have usually taught one class. Further, I have had a consuming interest in the subject ever since my own years as an undergraduate, have observed much and read much, and have asked countless questions of others about this theme. Now, after more than twenty years of experience, observa-

tion, and reflection, I should be delighted if I were only in the position of those who know so decidedly what they think.

As it is, I am "on the fence." I climbed up there when I was professor at one of the best known co-educational colleges in the whole country. My transfer to a college for men did not enable me to get down on either side, and I am still "on the fence" because I believe the problem incapable of complete and final solution in this generation.

We must draw a strict line of demarcation between the common schools (including private of the same grade) and secondary schools on the one side and the college on the other. The arguments for or against co-education in the one kind of school have no validity applied to the other. The fundamental difference is that in the lower and secondary schools the pupil is still under the direct care and charge of his parents. Home life and discipline are still the main factors in his life. Even in the last years of the grammar grades and the whole of the high school, where the problem of sex begins to play a rôle with the coming of adolescence, the situation is not essentially altered. In the college, however, the whole state of affairs changes. Home life and discipline are only memories. Except in grosser breaches of decorum, where the state or the college steps in to punish, the student is left for the practical conduct of life to the guidance of his own judgment and conscience, though aided, it is true, to a greater or less extent, by the influence of the church and the conventions of society. In the co-educational question as applied to the college, therefore, the problem of sex is all important. It goes without saying that my uncertainty applies only to collegiate co-education.

Now, while I am "on the fence" as regards the whole question, there are certain things which I do know as the result of these years of observation.

In the first place, the charge that co-education means greater moral risk for the young women is arrant nonsense. Cases of moral lapse doubtless occur in co-educational colleges, but so they do among young people from the same classes of society who do not go to college, and relatively far more frequently. It isn't the co-educational girl who is given to doing risky things. It is true that the college is occasionally obliged to administer quietly severe discipline, even expulsion; but personally I never aided in the administration of discipline in a case where there was evidence of any actual moral delinquency, although such cases are said to arise at long intervals. Man is usually the tempter and woman the sufferer in all affairs of this kind. Society lets the man go scot free and punishes the woman. The co-educational college, for the protection of the girls, must punish where society would hardly begin to gossip, but it is also juster in that it punishes both sexes alike.

On the other hand, the alleged improvement in the manners and morals of the boys in the co-educational college is equally mythical. It is an argument based upon the supposed refined and gentle influence of the fair sex, of which we have heard much from the days of chivalry on. It was a sham then, and is a sham now.

Another wholly groundless charge is the early and improvident co-educational marriage. Here again the contrary is rather true, if comparison be made with marriages in ordinary life. Co-education means considerable acquaintance with the faults and failings of the other sex, and that does not of itself accelerate marriage.

Equally groundless is the statement that the co-educational college spoils the manners of the girls, making them coarse, mannish, and boisterous, while the separate college for women refines and polishes. On this latter point I shall have something to say farther on. Before you can pass judgment upon the manners of the students of the co-educational college, you must first observe the homes and communities from which they come. This is the only fair test. That is, you must compare the co-educational girl, or, for that matter, the finishing-school girl, not with some ideal and perhaps impossible standard, but with the other girls from the same classes of society and the same communities who remain at home. Having done that, no fair-minded person who uses his own eyes and ears can fail to acquit the co-educational college of the charge.

The attendance of young women does not lower the scholarly tone of the college. My own experience goes to show that the average young woman does the work in most subjects of the college curriculum rather better than the average young man. Other teachers have made the same statement to me. As the college, whether co-educational or not, really conducts its undergraduate work on the plane of the average, or less than average, student, it follows that the girls rather tend to force up the average work of a class. This is true, at least, in such subjects as language, history, etc. In certain of the sciences which seem not to appeal to the feminine mind, a contrary statement is possibly true. And here comes one of the paradoxes: I have never had a mixed class in which the most capable member was not a young man. It will be observed that I am speaking of the scholarship of the undergraduate college, not of more advanced study. In the latter, the world over, the presence of woman is so recent that the data are wholly insufficient for proper judgment.

As my foregoing *ex-cathedra* statements, with the exception of one, all confirm the stock argument of the co-educationalist, it may seem strange that I am "on the fence." The mere fact that the manners and morals of the boys are not helped by co-education is certainly no argument against it. If neither boys nor girls are hurt by co-education, why not educate them together? And then I fall back on my three negatives.

In the first place, co-education requires machinery for the proper control of the two sexes. The larger the proportion of girls, the more is machinery necessary. It is probable that increased restrictions will be demanded by public sentiment as our civilization grows more complicated and artificial. In some co-educational institutions, perhaps the most successful, the creak of the machinery is already pretty loud. Is it worth while?

And then the second query. Is the relation of man and woman in the co-educational college a natural one? There is nothing like it in after life. Nowhere else do men and women associate with so many of the other sex with anything like so much of sexless equality, competition, or comradeship, if you will. And if it is a relation that exists neither before nor afterwards, is it natural and wise?

The last consideration is the "eternal-feminine." I do not mean thereby that woman, as prospective wife and mother, needs definite training in certain lines which do not concern man. That may be true and nevertheless affect in nowise the problem of co-education. There are, however, two phases of the "eternal-feminine" which certainly do concern the problem. In the first place, the presence of woman in the class room may very seriously hamper the teacher. In many departments there are important subjects which cannot be discussed in a mixed class. Literature and history, to mention no more of the departments of study which particularly appeal to women, are full of them. This is, of course, only a minor consideration. The other phase is more serious, or less, as you take it. Are men and women so alike that they need the same education? Is the intellect sexless? Is there no essential difference between man and woman save that the one begets and the other bears children?

And now for the comment about wholly separate colleges for women. This talk of girls being brought to the heights of gentleness and good breeding by women teachers who are the flower of their kind sounds very nice, but it has one practical difficulty: at present those gifted teachers are not to be had in sufficient numbers. Everybody who has had experience in the matter knows how difficult it is to find women teachers with adequate intellectual training who are not more or less caricatures of their sex. Time will, of course, remedy the difficulty, if the separate college is to become an increasingly large factor; but at present the average woman teacher of collegiate rank is much farther from being a woman among women than her male colleague from being a man among men.

Undoubtedly co-education has done and is doing a great and needed work. The same statement is true of separate education. Is it not the part of wisdom to cease to be dogmatic about either, to recognize the fact that there are elements in the problem which are not yet worked out, and to let the future settle what belongs to the future?

R. O.

FOREIGN STUDENTS IN ITALY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may be of interest to many of your readers who are likely to travel and study in Italy, to have attention called to the fact that new and much stricter regulations are now in force in this kingdom regarding the granting of *permessi* for free admission to museums, picture galleries, and other national institutions and monuments. Students and professors in the various foreign archæological and art schools established in Italy can still secure such *permessi* upon application by the heads of the respective schools; but other foreign artists or professors of archæology, history, literature, or art must present to the Ministry of Public Instruction, with a formal request for the *permesso*, some "academic document" to prove their status; and furthermore this document must have affixed the *visé* of the Italian diplomatic representative, or of some Italian consul in the country of which the applicant is a

citizen, or else must be certified by the diplomatic representative of that country at the court of Italy. But students of the history or criticism of art (presumably archæology is included) may submit in place of this certified "academic document" a copy of some article on the subject that they have published. Students of foreign universities must present a document showing that they are duly enrolled as students of their respective universities during the (presumably calendar) year in which they make application for the *permesso*, and this document must be certified in one of the ways just mentioned.

All applications for *permessi* available for the whole of Italy must be made to the Ministry of Public Instruction at Rome upon official stamped paper *(carta bollata)* at one lira and twenty centesimi the sheet. This can be bought in Italy at post-offices and at shops for stationery or tobacco. With the application must be sent an unmounted photograph of the applicant not more than five by eight centimetres (two by three and one-eighth inches) in size. But if the *permesso* desired is for only one particular city, the application may be made to the head of one of the local institutions on stamped paper of sixty centesimi per sheet, and unless the *permesso* is to be valid for more than a month the application need not be accompanied by a photograph.

These somewhat troublesome regulations have now taken the place of the very liberal provisions that have been in force since 1885. E. T. M.

Pompeii, March 7, 1903.

THE GERMANIC MUSEUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: According to the *New-Yorker Staats-Zeitung* of March 24, present, Prof. Kuno Francke of Harvard, in telling the German Society of Columbia University, the evening before, about the Germanic Museum at Cambridge, Massachusetts, while admitting the advantage it would have had in New York as its residence, because it would there reach a larger public, found this profit in Cambridge:

"Cambridge was the capital of Puritanism. The Germanic Museum at Cambridge would be the sentry-box for the outposts in the war against that Puritanism. The making a citadel of this sentry-box would depend on the coöperation of all friends of historic Germanism, German industrial activity, and German art."

Will Professor Francke allow me to venture upon the liberty of asking him to define in the columns of the *Nation* this present-day Puritanism, centring in Cambridge, which he wishes to see exterminated? The question is asked not out of loyalty to Puritanism (I was born and bred in the South), but out of lively curiosity.

A. D. Savage.

New York, March 24, 1903.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am very much indebted to Mr. Savage for having called my attention to the unfortunate distortion, by a reporter of the *Staats-Zeitung*, of certain remarks made by me before a Columbia audience. It is true that I called our Germanic Museum a sentry-box, and that I expressed the hope of seeing it develop into a citadel. But it never occurred to me that this figure of speech could be misunderstood as implying so absurd a thing as aggression against Puritanism. What I meant to express by that metaphor was that the local surroundings of this museum, its separation from a large German-speaking community, its intimate connection with a university of distinctively Puritan inheritances, could not help giving added emphasis to the mission which, in my opinion, this museum has to perform—the mission of uniting Americans of English and of German stock in the cultivation of their common Germanic traditions, and in the warfare, not against Puritanism, but against racial misunderstandings. Kuno Francke.

Cambridge, March 26, 1903.

DR. MARTINEAU'S AMERICAN CORRESPONDENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Drummond's 'Martineau,' the reviewer says that "we should have had here his [Martineau's] letters to Dr. Furness and Dr. J. H. Allen." It may interest your readers to know that all of Dr. Martineau's letters to Dr. Allen, which he had preserved, were communicated by me to the Colonial Society of Massachusetts, and will appear in the forthcoming volume of the Society's Transactions, which is in the hands of the indexer. The correspondence ranges in date from 1853 to 1897, and includes some interesting letters, written during the civil war, which reflect the opinions of a large and intelligent class of Englishmen.

Henry H. Edes.

Boston, March 27, 1903.

ORANGE EATING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Many years ago our Minister to Paraguay and Uruguay taught me the right way to eat an orange—the way they do it in South America. You pare it, except a bit at the two poles, you cut it in two in the diameter, and then (first adding sugar if you like) you eat the two cups thus formed, or a good part of them. It is the only way to get the full flavor and the delicious coolness of the fruit at its best. To eat an orange with a silver spoon is most unscientific: silver is a good conductor of heat, and the modicum of juice that is thus obtained has been rendered nauseatingly warm, and also lacks taste on account of its small amount. I have been waiting impatiently to see the South American fashion become the common one in this country, and now that it has been described in the *Nation* (or what is practically the same thing) by Professor Lanman, in the course of his interesting letter from Jamaica, I have good hope that the custom will spread. C. L. F.

Notes.

"The gratitude of Orientals" is a quality handsomely illustrated, on its positive side, towards Americans who have been pioneers of education in China and Japan. The Japanese friends and former pupils of the late Mr. Edward H. House, the unselfish champion of the rights of Japan before the world, for many years a teacher of English literature in Tokio, who organized the first orchestra and gave the first orchestral concerts in Japan, propose to rear some memorial to commemorate his work and personality. A House Memorial Lectureship in English Literature and Music is to be established in order to promote the study and appreciation of these subjects in Japan. The funds will be under the direction of the Imperial University, or, if large enough, be divided with the Academy of Music in Tokio. Literary men or musicians living in Japan or visiting the country may thus be induced to give lectures or concerts from time to time. Some of the men prominent in public life, formerly pupils of Mr. House, have already made subscriptions, but the list is open to all his friends, as to all who favor the enterprise. Professor N. Kojima of the First High School (Koto Grakko), or Dr. K. Mitsukuri of the Imperial University, both of Tokio, will receive subscriptions.

Charles Scribner's Sons are about issuing (in connection with Duckworth & Co., London) 'Michael Angelo Buonarroti,' by Charles Holroyd, keeper of the National Gallery of British Art; and 'Middle-Aged Love Stories,' by Josephine Dodge Daskam.

Frederick A. Stokes Co. have in press Bismarck's correspondence with the Emperor William I., and 'Ordered to China,' private letters from the late Wilbur J. Chamberlin, the New York *Sun's* correspondent during the Boxer troubles.

'Wreaths of Song,' announced by the Abbey Press, is from the pen of the Rev. T. J. O'Mahony, D.D., All Hallows College, Dublin, a nephew of Father Prout.

We hardly knew what to expect of Professor Royce's introduction to Fiske's Cosmic Philosophy in the new four-volume edition (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), for surely if anything is foreign to Royce's thought, it is Fiske's. It proves to be, without exception, the best introduction to a nineteenth-century philosophy that we have seen. In skill, the comment is a good match to the text. It renders Fiske's work much more useful than it has been, by pointing out just what there is in it and where its originality comes in. It fills about a hundred and fifty pages easily read, easily referred to. As compared to Spencer's own encyclopædic instrument of torture, Fiske's lively treatise always had a vast advantage as a way of making acquaintance with the fundamental philosophical doctrines of the evolutionary pioneer; and this advantage is now increased by the attractiveness of the new edition, which we were almost tempted to pronounce the most pleasing dress in which any American book of philosophy has ever been arrayed. That, however, would be forbidden, if by nothing else, by one volume from the same Riverside Press: we mean the elder James's 'Substance and Shadow'—a book not to be forgotten on any account.

We have received through Charles Scribner's Sons 'Volcanic Studies in Many Lands,' by Tempest Anderson, an investigator well known by his researches in volcanic phenomena, especially in the Neapolitan field, and latterly appointed one of the representatives of the Royal Society of London to report upon the eruptions of La Soufrière and Mont Pelée. Mr. Anderson's work, as heretofore, is mainly of a photographic

nature, and consists primarily of a large number of photographic reproductions—hardly up to the best standard of process-work—of more or less interesting phases of volcanic activity which were personally observed, and whose characteristics were noted. In so far, the collection is an interesting one, and will doubtless be frequently consulted for reference. The text is brief, and hardly more than explanatory of the plates. The observations or illustrated studies, with many of which geologists have long been familiar, range from the Mediterranean region through the Auvergne, Canary Islands, Iceland, Germany, and Ireland to Arizona and the Yellowstone National Park. Some interesting views of the recent eruptions in St. Vincent and Martinique are added. The volume is handsomely got up.

It is difficult to realize how even the necessities of an "Expansion of the Republic" series should have warranted the publication of so garbled, half-baked, and thoroughly unsatisfactory a piece of work as Van Middeldyk's 'History of Puerto Rico' (Appletons). The editorial commendation given it by Dr. Brumbaugh, than whom no one is better qualified to speak, is intelligible (though not pardonable) upon the theory that a sincere friend of the island may have thought any book on Porto Rico better than no book at all. Judged by any less relative standard, the volume is a wasteful, irritating piece of bookmaking. A full translation of Fra Inigo would have served a far more useful purpose, even though we should have lacked the "new arms of Puerto Rico" of the titlepage woodcut, and the stale San Juan shop photographs that serve as illustrations of the present work.

In her 'Survey of Russian Literature, with Selections' (The Chautauqua Press), Miss Isabel F. Hapgood aims to give an epitome of the views of Russian critics on the history of their literature. (In the later pages, for instance, we note the influence of Skabitchevsky.) By this method she has produced a manual which will be more useful to the general reader than Waliszewski's more individual and more whimsical volume. Miss Hapgood seems nearly always accurate in her statements of fact. She has also observed a good proportion, although a fuller statement of Russian social conditions would not have swelled unduly the size of the volume. Her selections are in general well chosen; those from Turgeneff and Tolstoy, however, may be thought superfluous, and not to be preferred to more thorough criticism of the two men. Exception may also be taken to the interesting personal reminiscences which appear in the later chapters, as out of place in a work of this character. The book may be commended to all who wish to form some general idea of the development of Russian literature, and will serve as an introduction to Professor Wiener's more elaborate 'Anthology,' of which the second volume, just published, now demands attention.

Mr. E. T. Cook's 'A Popular Handbook to the Greek and Roman Antiquities in the British Museum' (Macmillan) is, thanks to India paper, of a size for the pocket, and, with a flexible leather cover, friendly to the hand. The author finds space for extracts from what critics have said about the more famous pieces, and in the articles on vases, engraved gems, and figurines, for example, gives sufficient information as to technical processes—an important matter usually slurred by ciceroni. The compilation gives an impression of thoroughness, and we believe the book can confidently be commended to visitors of the foremost museum of classical antiquities.

M. Bolot spent his whole life in the French army, in the commissary department. He saw many things which he thought to be wrong, and about which he could say nothing because he belonged to "La Grande Muette." Now he is retired, and he unbosoms himself in a work full of bitterness and rancor, 'La Grande Muette' (Paris: Ernest Flammarion). He explains how the war of 1870 could have been won if he had managed things; he expatiates on the many blunders of the General Staff, on the lavish expenditures for useless fortifications, on the vices of mobilization, the waste of money in the commissary department, etc., etc. The book, written in a loose and rather common style, contains, no doubt, some useful criticisms, but they are expressed in such a spirit as to lose much of their force in the mind of the impartial reader.

Victor Bérard, whose work on 'England and Imperialism' was so successful, has republished, under the title 'Questions Extérieures (1901-1902)', his papers contributed to the *Revue de Paris* from month to month (Paris: Armand Colin). The main difficulty with the book is, that the rush of events has already in a few months deprived most of the subjects of their immediate interest. But, for foreign readers, there are other difficulties. Frenchmen seldom know much of what is going on in other countries, and to this rule even the majority of those who write about foreign affairs for the press are no exception. We should put M. Bérard down as one of the exceptions, but one of the exceptions who have gone to the opposite extreme: he knows too much. This is almost as great a fault as knowing too little, and leads M. Bérard to conclusions and generalizations that are often startling, *e. g.*, that Australia is a community "de mains blanches, de spéculateurs, et de nobles fainéants." And is it true that the English radicals, or any one else, have taught us that the world "belongs only" to the "mains noires"? A curious instance of excessive intelligence is when M. Bérard reaches the conclusion, from the *silence* on the subject of the terms of the Anglo-Boer peace, that there exists a secret article making England proprietor or "surintendant" of the Rand mines. The author's speculations about foreign affairs are always readable, but the field in which he works is full of pitfalls.

German-American Annals, the successor of *Americana Germanica*, offers in the March number an interesting article which is to form part of the proposed Ethnographical Survey of America. Prof. G. D. Leutscher tabulates very minutely the industries of York and Lancaster Counties, Pennsylvania, immediately after the formation of the United States. The most important general result of this investigation is the proof that the census of 1810, which has usually been the basis of economic statistics for this period, is hopelessly inaccurate. A comparison of its figures with those drawn from the assessors' books of these two counties brings out startling discrepancies, and shows the need of consulting the county and city records. This investigation is a promising earnest for the ethnographical survey of the State of Pennsylvania for which the German-American Historical Society properly hopes to enlist legislative aid. An old German midwife's record is of some genealogical importance for those who can read its orthography aright. It is summarized with business-like succinctness in a yearly tally, thus:

1801—23 buben
23 med. [mädchen] } 46

"Why Museum of *Comparative* Zoölogy?" the late Asa Gray used to ask; "why not simply Zoölogy?" In this sense, Benedetto Croce discusses the title of Messrs. Woodberry, Fletcher and Spingarn's new *Journal of Comparative Literature* in the first number of his *La Critica* (Naples; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The article is but one example of many in this number from the same hand, which combine clear thinking with the most agreeable reading, conspicuously the opening paper of a series of "Notes on Italian Literature in the Second Half of the Nineteenth Century," with Carducci for its theme, which we have already signalized. We remark in a footnote to Giovanni Gentile's elaborate review of Varisco's 'Scienza e Opinioni' that warning is given of this journal's intention to make a definitive choice between the two allowable spellings, Aristotile and Aristotele, in favor of the former as representing the elder and secular Italian usage.

In the *Theologische Literaturzeitung*, No. 2, Professor Harnack, of Berlin, publishes some new data on an old vexed question which go to prove that Peter was actually in Rome at one time. It is a quotation from the writings of Macarius Magnes, in which this writer defends Christianity against gentile critics, especially the philosopher Porphyry, the passage reading ('Apocritica,' III. 22), "It is really surprising that Jesus entrusted the keys of the kingdom of heaven to such a man as Peter, and that he could say to him, 'Feed my lambs!' And yet it is reported that Peter, after he had fed the lambs for only a few months (in Rome), was crucified." Harnack declares that this passage agrees with the conclusions of fair historical research, which admits that Peter did live in Rome, but that the story of a stay of twenty-five years is legendary.

The political degeneracy of Austria is accompanied by a retrogression of its universities that has reached the acute stage. Only recently the Academic Senate of the time-honored University of Vienna addressed an official appeal to the Government and to the two houses of Parliament, asking for assistance to avert the threatened decay of the higher institutions of learning in the empire. This singular document says: "Austria is losing its importance in the world of scholarship, and, as a consequence, the glory and the influence of the Austrian universities are threatened." The *Neue Freie Presse*, the most influential paper in Vienna, echoes this complaint, and declares that "the condition of affairs cannot be painted in too sombre colors." The trouble seems largely to be a matter of money, funds being lacking to keep the universities up to the demands of the time, especially in the case of laboratories, clinics, etc. Again, it seems impossible, on account of the small salaries paid, to keep a good man in an Austrian

university; as a rule he is promptly called to some German university, and just as promptly accepts. The memorial to the Vienna Senate emphasizes the fact that things have gone from bad to worse since, by the law of 1898, the professors were deprived of lecture fees.

Dr. Sven Hedin's account of his three years' explorations in Central Asia occupies the principal place in the *Geographical Journal* for March. He tells in a frank and entertaining way of his experiences in his boat-ride of 1,300 miles down the Tarim, in his journey across the desert in the dead of winter, and in his unsuccessful attempt to reach Lhasa. Notwithstanding he sought to disguise himself as a genuine Mongol by shaving his head and smearing his face with grease, he was discovered and turned back by an armed force when within about 150 miles of the sacred city. His principal geographical achievement has been, by his careful levelling in the Lob-nor desert, to throw new light on the changes which have been going on in the basin of this great Central Asian lake. His discovery of Chinese manuscripts of the second and third centuries A. D., many of them apparently receipts for corn, in a buried town on its border, opens a new chapter in Chinese history. The geographical effects of the recent volcanic eruptions in St. Vincent and Martinique are described by Dr. T. Anderson, whose work is mentioned above.

In Mr. Cutter's latest Librarian's report to the trustees of the Forbes Library, Northampton, Mass., along with other statistics showing the remarkable circulation of books in that college town, he notes that "over 2 per cent. of the inhabitants take out music scores." Smith College, for the first time, we believe, appears as a donor of money to the Forbes Library in acknowledgment of its indispensable serviceableness to the students. Yet, curiously enough, in one direction, "though the college has special art and music departments," corresponding sections of the Forbes Library "are little used by the students; their large circulation is almost entirely among the citizens."

The Justin Winsor prize of $100 offered by the American Historical Association for the encouragement of historical research will be awarded for the current year to the best unpublished monograph in the field of American history. It must be in the hands of the Committee of Award on or before October 1. Conditions may be learned by addressing the acting chairman of the committee, Prof. Charles H. Hull, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. No woman has yet obtained this prize, though two have received honorable mention.

—The article of commanding interest in the April *Scribner's* is the description of the working of the Treasury Department, written by Frank A. Vanderlip, formerly Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. It was hardly necessary, however, that Mr. Vanderlip should mar a valuable paper with a flimsy attack upon the merit system for alleged failure to secure a highly competent working staff. He really answers his own assault by his almost unbounded eulogy of the Treasury Department as a working financial and commercial institution. It is too late in the day of civil-service reform to allege that the applicants for examination are largely incompetents, unable to make a place for themselves in the ordinary world of business. The point of absurdity is wellnigh reached when we are gravely told it is not politics, but sympathy and charity, that moves the average Congressman to visit the departments and plead for places. "In nine cases out of ten their requests may be debited to pure kindheartedness rather than to political machinations." When further told that the best-known political leaders are not likely to make requests that ought not to be granted, and are quick to appreciate good reasons why they may not have what they want, we instinctively think of the Platts and Quays and Gormans of the past twenty-five years, and wonder if Mr. Vanderlip has ever heard of them. But then Mr. Vanderlip himself, in another paragraph, informs us that, notwithstanding the recommendations of various Secretaries of the Treasury, Congress has persistently refused to abolish useless customs districts, twelve of them yielding only $275.26 in a single year, and one yielding but 20 cents and costing $1,800, merely "to give the Senator or Congressman most concerned an opportunity to recommend a Presidential appointment." Clarence Cary describes, with illustrations from photographs, the city of Dalny, which has so rapidly sprung into existence at the fiat of the Emperor of Russia, to provide terminal facilities for the great Trans-Siberian Railway system.

—The April *Century* opens with a detailed exposition of the restoration of the White House, at Washington, by the Clerk of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia, Charles Moore. It is a rare piece of national good fortune that, thanks to Mr. McKim's reverence, the structure escaped the peril of losing its architectural identity under the plans for "improvement" proposed during the Harrison Administration. Ray Stannard Baker focalizes his study of the Great Northwest upon Butte City, a frontier mining camp of fifty thousand inhabitants, which produces each year more than a million dollars' worth of mineral wealth for each thousand of its population, and is too busy mining and smelting even to print illustrated circulars. The late Director of the Census contributes an interesting study of the methods of census-taking, as they have developed in our own practice. He is not happy, however, in referring to our census as "a decennial snapshot of the nation." The German census might fairly be so described, but our own authorities have gone rather to the extreme in their preference for the time exposure. Commander J. D. J. Kelley of the navy writes of the great Steamship Combine. His attitude is distinctly favorable, on the ground of the various economies which combination makes possible, more rational dates and intervals of sailing, etc. His arguments as to the impossibility of monopoly in the ocean trade lead one to wish for a good working definition of monopoly for use in such discussions. As the "monopoly" known to the strait-laced etymologist is always proved to be an impossibility, and as something really exists which the masses persist in calling monopoly, some practical understanding seems necessary to rational progress in debate.

—Mr. Thomas Willing Balch, whose contributions to the literature of the Alaskan boundary question our readers will remember, has published, through Allan, Lane & Scott, Philadelphia, a thin but handsome volume entitled 'The Alaska Frontier.' The object of this monograph is to state clearly and briefly the facts which entitle the United States to their unbroken strip of coast line between Mt. St. Elias and Portland Canal in southeastern Alaska. The fluctuating and nebulous claims which Canada has made from time to time have never been supported by any serious or tangible proof, and, perhaps for this very reason, have cultivated a Canadian public opinion which is not the less to be reckoned with because it has no sound foundation. It is on all accounts most desirable that a clear statement, divested of technicality, should be available for those interested in the controversy and who have been led into a state of uncertainty by Canadian quibblers. Except for her desire to reach tidewater on her own territory, it is doubtful whether Canada would ever have taken up the speculative theories raised by private essayists. It should be understood that there are two questions involved in the dispute. The first is, whether the *lisière* to which the United States is entitled by the treaty of 1825 is an unbroken strip, including all the marine coast line, or not. The second is as to the manner in which the boundary shall run if our rights to an unbroken *lisière* are acknowledged. The first is the essential point; the second, relatively unimportant. It is important that the agents of the United States, in representing our case before the Commission, should avoid confusing them. The obvious Canadian policy is to mix them together, and to reckon on the main point being lost sight of in the mass of verbiage which may be brought to bear on the secondary question.

—Mr. Balch gives a clear and sufficient account of the negotiations leading to the treaty, an official copy in French and English of the instrument itself, and a convincing argument from its provisions as to the continuity of the *lisière*. To this is added a wealth of illustration by photographic reproduction of twenty-eight important maps, from the earliest times to 1900, showing the uniform view taken on this point by officials and geographers of Russia, Great Britain, and Canada; thus establishing by prescription the rights near the southern boundary which have been called in question by critics, through some vagueness in the definition by the treaty of the line near Dixon Entrance. It is understood that an enormous mass of testimony has been gathered by the State Department bearing on the questions of occupation and jurisdiction. This is precisely the sort of thing which leads to unending and inconclusive argument. If the main question is correctly decided, the rest follows in its train, for the most part without argument. In Mr. Balch's book, the main threads of evidence are woven into a conclusive whole, which should be in the hands of all interested, and the publication of which is of general importance at the present time.

—"Certain Aboriginal Remains of the Northwest Florida Coast," Part II., by Clarence B. Moore, forms the latest number of the Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. It describes the results of the exploration of nearly sev-

enty mounds along the shores of St. Andrew's, St. Joseph's, Apalachicola, Ocklockonee, Apalachee, and Deadman's Bays, St. Andrew's, St. Vincent's, and St. George's Sounds, Alligator Harbor, and the rivers and Gulf Coast to Cedar Keys. As during the previous investigation, the work resolved itself into a study of the aboriginal earthenware of the district visited. It was noted during progress eastward that the influence of Alabama and the middle Mississippi district as to the composition of ware gradually disappeared, no admixture of shell having been found east of Choctawhatchee Bay, the limit of the polished, black ware of Mississippi. On the other hand, the influence of Georgia, as shown in the complicated stamp decoration, became noticeable. In material and decoration the ware is superior, as a rule, to that of such mounds of peninsular Florida as contain earthenware, although it does not excel a few of the best specimens found in the mounds of the St. John's River. A dark vessel from near the mouth of that stream, sherds of excellent paste and superior decoration from near Dunn's Creek, and part of a vessel beautifully incised and showing the yellow of the paste alternating with the crimson pigment, from a mound near Lake Monroe, are described as fully equal to the finest earthenware of the northwest coast of Florida. It is surmised that the aborigines of the peninsula possessed fine ware, but did not, as a rule, inter it with their dead, and that their best vessels were importations, probably got through barter. Specimens of mortuary vessels, of flimsy material and fantastic form, the bases of which had been perforated previous to the baking of the clay, were found in increasing numbers. Individual vessels were often much larger than any met with on the coast to the westward or in peninsular Florida. Vessels of a new type were discovered in the neighborhood of St. Andrew's Bay. They were life-forms, but were inferior to others of the kind as to material and workmanship, and had various perforations made before baking in the body of the vessel, as well as the customary one at the base. It is interesting to note that the general deposits of earthenware were nearly always in the eastern part of the mound. Cremation appears to have been practised only occasionally in northwestern Florida. This memoir is copiously illustrated.

—'The Red Miriok,' by Anna M. Barnes (Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society), is a story of the life of an American missionary family in Korea, the basis of which is the account of a boating trip up the River Han, with interesting glimpses into the minds of the people of white robes and big hats. The author may have lived in Korea and probably did, though, in a story picturing so strange a land and people, one would gladly have less American and more native local color. The title word "Miriok" has reference not to the colossal stone structures known to travellers, but to a little image of Buddha stolen from a monastery, which the boatman Kitze kept on his person as an amulet, the adventures of which form the chief subject of the story. The illustrator has certainly not been in the peninsula, for his Koreans are all Chinamen, in dress, even to the pigtail, in pose and in manner. Nevertheless, this story for young people is a good one, wholesome in tone and full of movement. Bound with the volume, making nearly equal bulk, is a collection of "Shan Folk-lore Stories," from the hill and water countries, by William C. Griggs, M.D. The nine illustrations are by native artists in true Burmese style. In Shan land the hare is the same brainy and nimble creature as his brother in Korea and Japan and among the negroes of the South; only, the Shan "Brer Rabbit" deceives not the monkey, or the badger, or the fox, but the noble tiger. The Shan tortoise also has wonderful powers of transformation, and the sparrow is as remarkable for his accomplishments as in Japan. The Shan world was created because "the Great Spirit Spider felt weary with carrying round her heavy burden of eggs." Weaving her web upon the waters, the winds blew, and the solid matter, caught in the meshes of the web, became earth, which kept the spider-eggs warm, and in due time the first man and woman were hatched out. Instead of the Japanese *oni* or the Burman *nat*, the semi-celestial busy-body and wonder-worker is the *hpea*, who is universally feared and propitiated. He lives in the forest, watches over wells, tanks, and lakes, and often neither honey nor firewood can be got out of the tree in which he lives, even though men starve or shiver. In this folk-lore, the hero does not marry and live happy ever after, but becomes the king of the country, not "governing," but "eating" it—a suggestive expression, reminding us of the "bosses" in New York and Pennsylvania.

THE "UNKNOWN" AND THE KNOWABLE.—I.

Unknown Mexico: A Record of Five Years' Exploration among the Tribes of the Western Sierra Madre; . . . Tepic and Jalisco; and among the Tarascos, etc. By Carl Lumholtz, M.A. 2 vols., illustrations and maps. 8vo, pp. xxxii, 530, 496. Scribners.

So long ago as 1887, Mr. Carl Lumholtz (who had already with some seriousness explored "Among the Cannibals" of Australia) came to harbor a hopeful dubiety whether the dead but still alluring "Cliff-Dwellers" of our Southwest might not have their fellows still quick amid the abutting wilds of northwestern Mexico. In that "little-explored" desolation there could be almost anything—and surely nothing better worth discovery by the new school of discoverers. Coming to the United States in 1890, he found sundry and illustrious patrons to share the like pious suspicion of buried treasures next door; and very presently he was duly sinewed to go forth and see. The outcome, thus far, of this worthy if inexpert wonderment has been four several invasions of Mexico, interrupted by some fallings back upon the financial base of supplies, but in fact fulfilling five round years of patient burrowing in regions it already pleases us (who are so soon willing to let bygones be bygones, as to history) to reckon "unknown"; a number of magazine articles; a large monograph on the Huicholes; and now two big, handsome, and truly respectable "popular" volumes on 'Unknown Mexico.'

There will be—there can be—no fuller and no more ready appreciation of Mr. Lumholtz's growth in grace of science and the expeditionary art than from precisely such as with most misgiving beheld his maiden descent upon Mexico, unhampered by a single preparation, linguistic, geographical, or documentary. He had not a word of the language which is the universal *picaporte* from Arizona to Patagonia; nor of any other tongue maternal to any person within the area to be studied; nor a shred of those documentary alleviations of the beginner which have been compiling for much better than three centuries. All unconsciously, this work is a record of growth. Even from the frontier side, the expedition began "Tenderfoot"—with thirty men, counting cooks, scientists, and mule-drivers, and "nearly 100 animals." But Mr. Lumholtz learned—if at first, perhaps, by constriction of resources, later by native wit. Approximately four-fifths of his exploration was by himself, sole—save only for the few Indian or Mexican packers and guides, and the small "train" needful to transport his outfit and collections.

Neither prepared nor inspired, he has, nevertheless, and by sheer dint of painstaking, made a worthy contribution to the literature of popular-scientific travel. Earnest but sane, eager but patient; of a certain homely good nature and cheerfulness which is the first qualification for any travel; handsomely endowed in the tolerance without which whatsoever ethnologist were better cast into the sea, he has so admirable individual equipment that one is the more regretful for his almost utter lack of the sharp tools whetted by the pioneers.

"It seems to me," he writes, "after my long experience with the Mexican Indians, that in their natural state they are in certain points superior . . . to the common run of whites. . . . We are brought up to look upon primitive people as synonyms of all that is crude, evil and vicious. Nothing could be more erroneous. . . . People who live in close touch with nature are in fact not capable of being as perverted as civilized criminals are in mind and body. . . . It is a very common mistake to look upon a barbarian as a third-rate white man. The Indian's physique is better developed, and his senses are better trained, than the white man's; his intellect and clearness of thought average higher than the common people's of Europe and America. . . . Beyond comparison, both men and women know the flora of their country better than even the cultivated classes among ourselves. . . . Monogamy is the recognized foundation of the family, and the social standing of the woman is that of a junior partner. In their behavior toward one another, these Indians never become beastly, as low-class whites will. . . . Personal modesty is innate in the race. . . . Justice with them is inexorable. . . . In his behavior toward his tribesmen as well as toward strangers, . . . though dressed in rags he is a born gentleman, and as polite and considerate of other persons' feelings as any one adorned in purple and fine linen. . . . In their religious fervor the aborigines of Mexico have no equals, certainly not among Christians. . . . I cannot help thinking that, as long as Mexico was to be made subject to European powers, it was well for her to fall among members of a Latin race rather than those of Germanic or Teutonic descent. For the Spanish character and temperament resemble in a degree those of the Indians. . . . Modern civilization is even more intolerant in contact with people of lower culture than were the Spanish conquerors of Mexico and Peru. . . . The Spanish, after subduing a people, did not crush out their virility."

And so on, in many refreshing touches. To this tolerant spirit, add a style unaffected, ordinarily agreeable, generally

lucid, and frank to the verge of naïveté. The upwards of 1,000 pages of the book furnish much more than the "good reading" they certainly are. Judged as "travel," here is far better than the wonted share of information, digestible to the layman, but perhaps worth most to the student who can supply the historical context the author lacks. No one else of modern times has besieged the tribes of the Sierra Madre with so dogged particularity, nor any one of any time for so long a term in the general light of to-day. Here we have corroboration and detail of facts recorded centuries ago, indeed, but in no danger of being too often or too deeply studied.

The half-decade of this honest, earnest, and important field-work was unequally but impartially (and somewhat fortuitously) divided between the Tarahumares, the northern and southern Tepehuanes, the Huicholes, the Tepecanos, the "Tubars," certain centrifugal Nahuatl, and the tribe celebrate in a cherished *dicho* (of more than trivial worth to the folklorist) by that erudite Mexicanist, Father Fischer:

> "India que nacistes en Tasco,
> Sin tenedor ni partera—
> Tu madre una tamalera,
> Tu padre un indio Tarasco."

The longest sojourn was the year and a half with the Tarahumares; next in importance, ten months among the Coras and Huicholes; the rest of the term, "scattering." "Of most of these tribes," says Mr. Lumholtz (xiv.), "little more than their names were [*sic*] known, and I brought back large collections illustrating their ethnical status, besides extensive information in regard to their customs, religion, traditions, and myths."

The latter member of this statement is true. If it had had no other fruits—and, besides his collections, his sixty graphophone records, his twenty-seven new plants, and one new mammal, there is much other and admirable harvest—Mr. Lumholtz's exploration would be justified of all its cost by its contribution to our knowledge of the remarkable cult of the Peyote. Significantly kin to other vegetal fetishisms familiar in anthropology—and notably to that of the Cuca in Peru and Bolivia, of which, however, we have as yet no equal modern synthesis—the complex esoterism that has grown up around this echinocactus of ecstatic properties has been historic for above 300 years, and among far more tribes than the author seems to dream. But, in the elder days, these superstitions, so palpably of the devil, were apt to be set down in the record without indecent lingering. Mr. Lumholtz has secured, and presents, a large and valuable mass of detail as to this curious devotional drunkenness—for we cannot too sharply remember that the intoxications which so ubiquitously and so bitterly grieved the apostolic pioneers of Mexico were almost exclusively of ceremonial character.

For reasons doubtless known to himself, Mr. Lumholtz prefers to call the Peyote by a name which is not historic, if, indeed, it has before been printed—"Hikuli." Whatever sound is intended to be conveyed, it is rather safe to say that this does not spell it. In all human probability what he means would be, in this region, written Jiculi. As to this, by odds the most important theme between the covers of these sumptuous volumes, there is neither comparison nor etymology vouchsafed. For the latter, a glance at the pictured plant is enough to show its strong resemblance to a navel; and the guess is neither far nor hazardous from the nondescript new word to an Aztec *Xiquilitl*, compound of *Xictli* (umbilicus) and *Quilitl* (vegetable; source of the now familiar Southwestern provincialism *quelites*, for "greens" and garden-stuff). The conjecture is sound etymologically, while from the point of aptness and "Indianness" it leaves nothing to desire.

We have here, also, our fullest up-to-date detail of the deer-cult, the ceremonial races, the esoteric etiquette of birth, marriage, death and the sequent ghost-scaring, and many other ethnologic data as to the tribes in question. All these contributions are interesting; practically all of them seem sound—and we have a long array of record by which to check them. The tribes of the Sierra Madre were well described before 1550. It is, perhaps, surprising that almost every author who between 1550 and 1800 wrote of these Indians, mentions in at least generic terms the very facts of ethnologic importance with which these new-century volumes chiefly deal. Perhaps it is no less surprising that the modern author seems hardly to have heard of any of these predecessors, and in no wise to have benefited by them—if we except trivial allusion (without date) to Father Fonte, who described the Tarahumares almost three centuries ago, and a few other as loose and unscientific references.

Two cardinal defects seriously afflict a work of whose many admirable qualities a hint has been given. It is not unreasonable to hold a twelve-dollar book—widely heralded as relating "remarkable discoveries," and as "one of the most important records of successful scientific explorations in recent years"—to rather stricter accountability than we need demand of the cheap and confessed mere beguiler of an hour. "Popular" in a proper sense such a work fitly may be; but there is an implied contract that it shall be also "prepared" and ripe. Interesting it must be; but it is not destined to be read exclusively for amusement. Aside from entertaining details, it is expected to give the lay reader some fair general concept of the themes it deals in. Certainly, in the scientific aspect, it is now late for too much and too Columbian "discovery." The New Worlds are mostly found, though our monthlies still do seriously incline in their quest. On the first page of his preface, Mr. Lumholtz avows that his first attraction to Mexico was hope of finding there still-extant "Cliff-Dwellers." This has rather persisted as a keynote, in so far as the hum of his remote activities has reached the popular ear. In this deliberate work, printed thirteen years after his actual launching upon the quest, there appears a certain disingenuousness as to this rather important head. No blazed tree at its side, nor sensible jog in its continuity, warns us when we are wiled off the trail to a new path. "What went ye out for to see?" Why, Cliff-dwellings—something comparable to the astounding, enormous, and architecturally triumphant monuments of the prehistoric Pueblos, whose castled communal towns still beetle upon and in the cliffs of New Mexico, Arizona, and their northern adjacencies. And what do we emerge with seeing—and even that as through a glass, darkly? Why, a second-hand sort of cave-dwellings. When or how we left the right-hand path, and why we fetch up as we do, we are left to guess. For there is neither premonishment nor explication. How came we here? *Quien sabe?* Here we are.

"Although it may be said that houses are their main habitations, still the Tarahumares live in caves to such an extent that they may be fitly called the American cave-dwellers of the present age" (I., 160). "Although thus far [up to April, 1891, a few months in the field] the question regarding surviving cliff-dwellers was answered negatively, the field southward in the Sierra was so promising that I felt eager to extend my explorations" (xi.). "Still, the fact of there being cave-dwellers to-day in Mexico was until recently known only to the Mexicans living in their neighborhood" (I., 161). "The largest inhabited cave I have seen was nearly 100 feet in width. . . . I heard of one arroyo where six inhabited caves . . . can be seen at one time; but this is a rare case. In one place I saw a cave, or rather a shelter under a big boulder, utilized as a dwelling" (I., 167).

And so on, in several variants of the off-hand, too-familiar-to-mention style. It requires tedious back-searching through the 1,000-page record—for the alleged index is "*mocks*" *et prœterea nihil*—to count up that Mr. Lumholtz says he has really seen, in his five years of pursuit, certainly two (and it may be four, for the case is not clear) inhabited caves. He pictures apparently four, but without hint if these be identical with the Terrible Examples of the text. There is one Sierra Madre (in northern Mexico, that is; there are many otherwhere), and Æsop was its prophet. No reminder here of a tolerable difference between even such "cave-dwellers" as habitually live in houses part of the time, but semi-occasionally shelter under the natural concavities with which the ravines of their land innumerably abound, and "cave-dwellers" of the variety of the New Mexican Shu-finné, the Pu-yé, and the incomparable Rito de los Frijoles, who made caves to dwell in, and in them sempiternally and uninterruptedly dwelt. If all that incidentally and occasionally linger under protective rocks, or even build partitions where nature furnishes ready-made three of the six sides of a room, are to be included, then Mr. Lumholtz can find still in New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, Utah, and California some few English-speaking persons as "fitly to be called American cave-dwellers of the present age"—and more of them than he specifies having discovered in the Sierra Madre of Mexico. It is not too much to say that this general indirectness is at least unscientific. Let us hope that it is not even up to the magazine traditions.

There is some prognosis of a like inflammation of the popular chords in the unretracted statement (ix., x.): "The northernmost portion of the Sierra Madre del Norte has from time immemorial [which is not exactly true] been under the dominion of the wild Apache tribes. . . . Not until Gen. Crook, in 1883, reduced these dangerous nomads to submission [to the which they were not even approximately reduced, save by gasps, until some four years later] did it become possible to make scientific investigations there; indeed, small bands of the 'Men of the Woods' were still left, and my party had to be strong enough to cope with any difficulty from them. Inasmuch as my expedition was the first to take advantage of the comparative security prevailing in that district"—and so on for quantity.

The pinch of the humor of this is that precisely in the last of 1883, and through most of 1884 (six years before "the first to take advantage"), Bandelier trudged, on foot, unarmed and solitary, over this same territory. It *was* dangerous. It was a higher rate of hazard than San Juan Hill. But perhaps only the grave Crook, or Bourke, or Crawford, could have done justice in a single smile to the party Mr. Lumholtz elected as "strong enough to cope" with the Chihuicahui tigers. In justice it must be added that this is far outside the average tone of the book. Its normal air is unbraggart and uncomplaining—even unmagnifying and cheerful under deprivations very real and deplorable to almost any person habituated to the inconveniences of civilization.

ASSOS.

Investigations at Assos: Expedition of the Archæological Institute of America. Drawings and photographs of the buildings and objects discovered during the excavations of 1881, 1882, 1883, by Joseph T. Clarke, Francis H. Bacon, and Robert Koldewey. Edited with explanatory notes by Francis H. Bacon. Part I., 74 pp. Folio. Cambridge, Mass.: The Archæological Institute of America. 1902.

The site of Assos is an isolated volcanic hill more than 750 feet in height, lying on a narrow strip of land only about a mile wide, between the river Satnioïs and the Gulf of Adramyttium, opposite Lesbos, on the southern shore of the Troad, about thirty miles from Troy. The small summit of the hill, on which are seen no indications of any ancient building except a temple, was the crater of the volcano, choked by a second flow of andesite which has well covered the limestone at the foot of the hill. The temple was as conspicuous as that of Sunium—"Colonna's marbled steep"—rising as it did far above the city, and the position of the city was marked and commanding. Before the foundation of Alexandria Troas, about twenty miles distant, near the close of the fourth century B. C., Assos seems to have been the chief city of the Troad after the fall of Ilium. Its harbor was artificial, being formed only by a mole, of which a large part has now nearly or entirely disappeared; but for a thousand years the place has had no importance except for this slight shelter of ships. The Apostle Paul went on foot from Troas to Assos, and there joined his companions, who had journeyed by sea. At present the Turkish village of Behram on the slope of the hill is made up of a hundred miserable huts; but fifteen or twenty boats are generally at the mole receiving their lading, which consists chiefly of the husks of the acorns of the valonia oak, which are brought to the port on the backs of camels and are exported for use in tanning. The wheat for which the region was so famous that it was used for the bread of the Persian king's table, two thousand miles away, is not now raised in sufficient quantity to supply local needs; the Turkish inhabitants are not fond of tilling the soil.

Assos was noted for its "flesh-eating" *(sarcophagus)* stone, which gave its name to the whole class of stone coffins found here more abundantly than anywhere else. Many of these great monolithic sarcophagi, eight feet in height and large in proportion, are described as still standing in the cemetery. All which were exposed to view were broken open long ago for the sake of the ornaments and other treasures buried with the dead. Early travellers write of seeing kids and lambs take shelter in them, and many others are used as water troughs in the neighboring villages. One hundred and twenty-four of these, however, were found unopened by the American expedition. This "flesh-eating" stone is the ordinary andesite of the hill. Of it the walls and other structures of the city were built, except that volcanic tufa was chosen for certain ornaments, gargoyles and acroteria, of the temple. The stone, being quarried in blocks by the simple process of wedging—with planes of cleavage approximately horizontal and vertical—afforded excellent material for city walls and buildings, but was too coarse-grained and intractable for use in ornamentation, and certain usual decorative features of the temple were omitted. In an early report Mr. Clarke promised to speak of the chemical properties of this stone, but he has not done so.

A good argument is made to prove that Assos stood on the site of the Homeric Pedasus, which was the early home of one of Priam's wives (Iliad, xxi. 87). Pedasus was a "lofty town on the banks of the Satnioïs," and no other lofty site is found on the banks of that river, which, though it is within a mile of the sea at Assos, does not reach the Ægean until it has had a further course of about twenty miles. In the fourth century B. C., Assos was for three years the abode of the philosopher Aristotle, who there visited his friend and connection by marriage, the "tyrant" Hermeias; and a little later it was the birthplace of Cleanthes, who succeeded Zeno as the head of the Stoic School.

The site of Assos was deserted early enough to leave the buildings and walls in fairly good condition, so that Colonel Leake, the admirable traveller and topographer, who visited it in 1800, wrote that the theatre was in very perfect preservation, that remains of several temples were lying on the ground, that on the western side of the city the walls and towers with a gate were "in complete preservation," and that "the whole gives perhaps the most perfect idea of a Greek city that anywhere exists." A year later, in 1801, Dr. Hunt, who accompanied the Earl of Elgin's embassy to the Ottoman Porte, wrote of the temple on the citadel that "parts of the shafts remain on their original site, so that a person conversant with ancient architecture might easily trace the plan and different details." Neither Leake nor Hunt, however, mentions marble remains, and the American explorations showed that no scrap of this stone was left above ground, and very little below. Clearly, limeburners pillaged the site with care some centuries ago. Since so much lime could not have been needed for such an insignificant settlement as seems to have existed there for a thousand years, the suggestion is not unreasonable that lime may have been exported thence as an article of commerce, although the unsubstantial modern huts, needing renewal every few years, and requiring much mortar because of the difficulty in reducing the hard stone to the exact shape desired, use a vast amount of lime.

The change in the condition of the ruins in the course of the nineteenth century was very great, and the observation of it emphasizes the truth that the archæological renaissance came in the very nick of time. Just as the irreparable loss of ancient manuscripts of the works of classical literature would have been vastly greater if the literary renaissance had been delayed for two centuries, so a like delay of archæological interest in ancient structures would have resulted in great damage. In each case the destruction seems to have become more rapid in the later centuries before the revival of interest.

After the visits of Leake and Hunt, the Turkish authorities in the first third of the nineteenth century built extensive fortifications on the citadel, probably under the influence of the Greek war for independence, in view of the proximity of the island of Lesbos and its large Greek population; and the American explorers found no stone of the temple upon another. In 1838, the reliefs of the epistyle and the metopes of the temple, so far as they lay above ground, were removed to Paris and placed in the Louvre. In 1864, the buildings and walls of the city, and particularly the theatre, served as a quarry for the Turkish Government, which had the largest and best blocks of stone removed to Constantinople for its public works there. The Turks even demolished the chief entrance gate of the city, an admirable monument of military architecture. The theatre, which had been more perfectly preserved than any other in Asia, was "transformed into an enormous quarry," and became "little more than a hollow in the deep hillside." With this procedure may be compared the action of another Turkish official, who, during the excavations on the site of ancient Troy, sent a squad of men to Dr. Dörpfeld with a requisition for the finest blocks of stone uncovered in the course of his work.

In June, 1879, the site of Assos was visited by J. Thacher Clarke and Francis H. Bacon, young architects of Boston, and chiefly on their recommendation it was selected as its first field of explorations in classical archæology by the recently established Archæological Institute of America. Although the sculptures which remained on the surface of the ground had been carried to Paris, the earth had not been overturned either by authorized excavators or by peasants in search of plunder. The work of surveying was begun in April, 1881, and that of excavation, after many delays in obtaining the promised necessary *irade* from the Turkish Government, in August of the same year. The number of laborers employed, some of whom had been trained by Humann in the excavations at Pergamon, was about thirty-five, and the work continued until the termination of the permit in May, 1883, interrupted not by the heat of summer, as in Olympia, but by the inclemency of the winters. The work was so completed as to win praise from those who have seen it. Of the portable objects uncovered, two-thirds were taken by the Turkish Government and the other third was given by the Institute to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, the cost of the expedition having been borne chiefly by those who were interested in that museum. The explorers declared their satisfaction with the division, and when we remember that theirs was the last expedition to be allowed a share in such discoveries in Turkish lands,

we may be grateful that so valuable archæological monuments came to America.

The preliminary report of the American explorations at Assos was published promptly in 1882, as the first volume of Papers of the Archæological Institute, Classical Series. Brief summaries of the investigations in the second and third years were presented in the annual reports of the Institute, but the fuller account was delayed. Mr. Clarke became so engaged in other work that he was unable to prepare such a complete and scientific statement as he desired to make. A portion of his final report was published in 1898 as the second volume of the Papers of the Institute, Classical Series, devoted chiefly to the architecture and sculpture of the temple on the acropolis, giving much attention to the elucidation of the processes of construction, and considerable space to a discussion of the date of the erection of the temple. The completion of this final report is now not considered probable, and the Council of the Institute wisely determined to publish the plans, which had been made with great skill and care, with brief explanatory notes by Mr. Bacon, and an introduction made up from Mr. Clarke's reports. This publication is the more important, since that by Texier, in 1849, of the French explorations at Assos in 1835 has been shown to be extremely inaccurate, and covered only part of the ground.

The 'Investigations at Assos' is to be published in five parts, of which the first is before us, containing Kiepert's excellent map of northwestern Asia Minor, sixteen pages of text, including seven plates; seven pages of inscriptions, with their elucidations by Professor Sterrett of Cornell University; seven pages of photographs, and twenty-one plans—all relating to the Agora, the Stoa, and the Bouleuterion. Some of these plans, naturally, are of interest only to architects and archæologists, but not a few are of more general interest. For example, Mr. Bacon's plan of the Agora, showing the relative positions of the public buildings—the Bouleuterion or Hall of Deliberation, the Gymnasium, the baths, the Stoa, the theatre, and the like—and marking the paved streets, gives a more lively view than might have been anticipated of the public life of the city; and his restoration of the Agora is full of spirit. The Stoa, where the men gathered in a social way, protected from rain or from sun, stood on the slope of the hill, and had two stories, which made it unusual if not unique. The illustration of the ancient processes of architectural construction is interesting, also. Most of the plans in this part of the publication were drawn by Mr. Robert Koldewey, a Prussian architect and archæologist, at present in charge of the Babylonian excavations of the German Oriental Society, and who was at first a volunteer and then a regular member of the exploring expedition, and to whom the Agora and the buildings about it were assigned in the division of the work. We regret that, from lack of the archæological discussions which Mr. Clarke was best qualified to give, the investigations at Assos will not throw so much light on ancient Greek public life as was at one time anticipated, but these photographs and plans do more than they could fairly be expected to do in presenting a view of the ancient city.

MORE NOVELS.

John Percyfield. By C. Hanford Henderson. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Blue Goose. By F. L. Nason. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Calvert of Strathore. By Carter Goodloe. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Deeps of Deliverance. By Frederik van Eeden. Translated from the Dutch by Margaret Robinson. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A Daughter of the Pit. By Margaret Doyle Jackson. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Six Trees. By Mary E. Wilkins Freeman. Harper & Brothers.

From a Thatched Cottage. By Eleanor G. Hayden. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

From the Unvarying Star. By Elsworth Lawson. The Macmillan Co.

Lees and Leaven. By Edward W. Townsend. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The Pit. By Frank Norris. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Mr. Henderson calls his book an "Anatomy of Cheerfulness"; it is rather a study in self-complacency and egotism, in which the hero indulges in some four hundred pages of sentimental monologue with an average of a dozen I's to a page. "John Percyfield" belongs to one of the first families of Philadelphia, and the reader is not allowed to forget it. The punctiliousness of the Percyfields, their lineage "that has come down unspotted from that first Mr. Percyfield of whom we have any knowledge, the one who was esquire to William the Conqueror," their fastidiousness as expressed by the hero of the present work when travelling in the West, "I found a very shabby car, with cane seats and bare floor, and 'second-class' written very large all over it. It was not the sort of an affair that the Percyfields commonly travel in"—of all this one soon grows weary. But the book has its surprises: Percyfield is a seer of visions, and accepts his nocturnal visitations as the most natural thing in the world. It is here, if anywhere, that one is expected to detect the resemblance to 'John Inglesant' pointed out in the publishers' notice. But Mr. Shorthouse never ventured on such a flight as the following:

"Quite without warning or preface of any kind, I suddenly found myself, that is, my thinking self, entirely outside of my body and entirely detached from it save by a slender bond on the left side. I saw my body sitting there in the armchair, complete from head to foot, sharp and distinct. . . . And then I saw around the body, projecting from it six or eight inches, I should say, a slightly luminous gray cloud. It had the enlarged form of the body and enveloped it completely."

The precision of this reminds one of Professor Sidgwick's serious exhortation to his friends to lose no opportunity that might occur for photographing a ghost. Mr. Henderson, too, evidently intends us to believe in the objectivity of such appearances. "'Look,' she whispered, . . . and I saw a faint gray cloud detach itself from the quiet body, like a symbol of the spirit that was passing, and ascend into the void space above us. Had it not been for the Châtelaine, I should have counted it an illusion." The climax is reached when a whole family of ghosts call on the hero in a house in Broad Street, Philadelphia.

We do not dwell upon the plot of this romance, for there is none. The scene is laid chiefly in Switzerland, and in parts it reads like a guide-book. A fair specimen of the style, which is high-pitched, emotional, and intimate, is the following:

"I got up, and in the moonlight took my cold, refreshing bath. Everything was so white and unreal that I seemed to be bathing a marble statue, but I knew that under the white limbs the blood was running hot and red, and under the marble chest a heart was beating high with hope."

'The Blue Goose' is one of those tales of commercial enterprise in the West which threaten to rival the colonial romance. Given a precise and lavish use of the technical details of some business, a determined manager for hero, a gang of mutinous workmen with a socialistic agitator, and the rest is stereotyped. In the present instance, the scene is laid in a gold-mining settlement whose evil genius is the owner of "Blue Goose," a gambling and drinking-saloon, which, in the inevitable strike and wholesale destruction of property, is hoist with its own petard. The heroine, as usual, plays a slight but undaunted part in the business troubles of the hero, whom we leave triumphant, sitting like Marius amid the ruins of the company's machinery, after promiscuous shooting has relieved him of all the undesirable characters. This is not a type of fiction to which one looks for the effects of art. But the moral tone is high, the amount of technical information conveyed is really amazing, and the whole reminds us of certain serial tales in the 'Boy's Own Paper,' in which the youthful reader is encouraged to skate over a column of instructive facts by the certainty of finding his hero landed at the end of the chapter in some blood-curdling *impasse* from which he will not be extricated till the next number.

It does not appear in the Gouverneur Morris Journals and Correspondence that a young man named Edward Calvert was constantly at his side, dining, driving, plotting, rescuing, ear-witness of his bonmots, his society verse, his interviews with statesmen and royalties. But Calvert of Strathore was there, according to Mr. Goodloe's novel, Morris's trusted and beloved young friend, Jefferson's secretary and pet, Gilbert Stuart's admiration, Marie Antoinette's best-believed-in hope of rescue. Such is historical fiction. We thank Mr. Calvert for being in the third person; it softens his perfections; and when all is said, although the novel opens in a rather dull and stilted way, it proves extremely interesting as it proceeds. The story of the French Revolution from the American Legation's point of observation is none too hackneyed. It is well for novel readers to be reminded of the underlying influence of the American idea, to recall that the bloody culmination came from a slow-growing political root. The French Revolution of fiction and stage to-day is mere brutal situation. The more measured pace of this little book affords a useful complement to the usual story-teller's version. It is no dispraise, rather the contrary, to say that the Morris diary has furnished most of the facts, while the young hero's love story is quite pretty enough to justify itself for going hand in hand with the weightier matters of state and for occupying the attention of statesmen.

The publishers' word upon 'The Deeps of Deliverance' runs in part as follows:

"The most distinguished living Dutch writer, Frederik van Eeden, like Tolstoy and like Gorki, is an artist who concerns himself with the more intimate truths of life. The present work, which is inspired by a profound if unconventional feeling, tells the life-history of Hedwig Marga de Fontayne. It traces the evolution of the soul of a woman with a singularly daring realism, but a realism marked by a moral significance."

To this we will add that Hedwig's soul was developed exclusively through her body, and that a thorough review of the book would be a medical treatise, and as inappropriate general reading as is the book itself.

Mrs. Jackson's novel is about the coal-pits of Middleford, otherwise Manchester. The story itself is naïve, even amateurish, but it amply suffices as vehicle for impressions of life among English miners, conveyed with exceptional clearness and fidelity. We have the usual coal-mine tragic episodes—strikes and fires and treachery; but we have an added picture, not often exhibited, of the daily comings and goings in the underground city, where beside the horrors walk the figures of kindliness, daily loyalties, and amazing sense of duty—grim and gaunt, it is true, but with hope and home at the end of the day's work. Mrs. Jackson's description is the more impressive in that she herself lived in the suburbs of Manchester in her girlhood. The simple force of her story comes directly from her having seen what she writes about.

Mrs. Freeman's old men and old women of all ages maintain their peculiar charm; her incidents in most cases their agreeable prick. The trees, all things considered, bear less mark of having been lugged in by the roots than one would have expected on finding the accomplished author converting her New England figures into an arboretum where one might dread to see men as trees walking. In fact, it is interesting to find that, except for the titles and a trifle more of description, there is little more about trees than heretofore in her stories—for the seasons and the living, growing green things make life for such farm and village folk as Mrs. Freeman has immortalized; and, behold! she has always made it so without weaving the fact into her title. If the snowball bush and the syringa tell her world that spring has come, no less do the trees mark for them the longer periods, and set them to dreaming of the lives that have risen and set while yet the tree has been completing its protracted childhood and faithfully blooming on in green longevity. When her subject draws the writer into description more elaborate than her wont, it is of a fine and feeling sort. There is a poem in the page that tells of the dreamer to whom the great pine spoke in summer of winter and in winter of summer.

'From a Thatched Cottage' is worth reading if only for the delicious dialect, the dialect of English downs, of shepherds and poachers, of village housewives and village "layers-out." "Ter'ble middlin'" is, in the language of Selwood, "powerful soothin'"; "illcomevanient" shows what improvement common sense can make upon mere philology; "innerism" for "incendiarism" ought to be equipment for a detective; "a bit yea-nay" of a hesitating wooed one breathes of yielding and orange blossoms; "sponder" for "ponder" has a kindly air of throwing light on the difficulty. But there is more to recommend the book. First, some capital characterization. The old shepherd, queer and lovable; Keziah, "just a nice comfer'ble woman"; Patty Puddledock, a very uncomfortable woman, and her meek husband, are effective sidelights; while the principals, if drawn on more conventional lines, are satisfactory. Finally, there is a good story, somewhat repetitious, but nowhere dull, the groundwork, over which lesser interests throw their tracery, being a hot-headed murder, its effect for the rest of his life on the unconvicted murderer, and his final self-sacrifice, bringing peace to his half-mad brain. The workmanship is excellent throughout, and the air of the downs makes the book like one read at an open window.

'From the Unvarying Star' tells the story of a liberal preacher who came to a small Northumbrian parish, and met there his fates of various sorts. The book is really a sermon, broad and charitable, not on the hackneyed, loosely defined lines of breadth and charity, but fresh, sane, genuine. The vehicular fiction is somewhat crude and self-conscious. The Northumbrian landscape, as well as the religious utterance, is plainly, in the words of an old English author, "written out of experience."

There used to be in olden times a type of novel called the Industrious and Idle Apprentice story. It had a strong man and a weakling; a sweet, hard-working girl and a frivolous, pleasure-loving one; a railroad or stage-coach accident, a lost deed, and a wedding at the end. The type survives, *mutatis mutandis*—in book-binder's phrase, "old calf rebacked." Mr. Townsend's book is of this class, enlarged and modernized. It has several strong men and several weak ones, several sweet girls and weddings; many eccentric, even burlesque characters—all more or less original and bespeaking kindly attention. The author has made a good plot, and held up a vivid picture of a temptation to dishonesty arising from mere opportunity. The scene lies mainly in New York—that shady New York which Mr. Townsend depicts so well; its prominent revelations relating to the inner conduct of "live journalism." He contrives to keep his shady places as free as possible from mud, so that the book remains readable, unlike some cautionary literature.

If Mr. Wister is the Novelist Laureate of the Cowboy, the late Mr. Norris should have held the same title as to Wheat, whose epic he has sung with magnificent force and stir. 'The Pit' offers a wondrously vivid representation of the swirl and pull of the "undiked Ocean of the Wheat" as it surges round the Chicago Board of Trade. Reading, one seems to be at the mercy of an appalling whirlpool, and to see one's maddened fellow-beings wheeling, whirling, sinking, then hurled from the maelstrom to fall back and begin again the horrid circuit. Hideously real is the deal in the wheat pit, with all its side issues, its demoralizations and tragedies. The vociferous note of Chicago's works and ways is ever at the reader's ear. The rushing interest of the story holds his attention like a vise, while he seems to be fixed in the heart of a factory with all harsh sounds clanging and all machinery roaring, not only in respect of the pages given to the business life of the Great Gray City, but in the scenes of so-called domestic quiet. The portraits are good, in a style of ultra-detail. The development of the two-souled heroine makes a strong study and companion-piece to that of her husband, the great speculator. A Titan he, fighting Titans, beaten only, as his arch-enemy says, by Wheat itself. For the novel reader who looks for poetic justice, the sword of judgment falls too lightly on him, the "Great Unknown Bull," who wrecked so many lives in wantonness. One would like to see him at least repentant. For poetry, we must look farther—to the flow of the great stream of the wheat from the seed to the hungry markets of Europe—a sight made finely visible by the writer's imaginative yet direct way of seeing and saying. And there is a powerful moral in the spectacle of commercial gambling and its victims. But how unlovely a world is even the better part of a world where Bigness is the deity! In vain do music, art, books, nature, put in their pleas. The fingerprints of the great gods Size and Noise are on every page.

Chinese Porcelain. By W. G. Gulland. With notes by T. J. Larkin, and four hundred and eleven illustrations, arranged chronologically. Vol. II. Pp. xxxviii, 506. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The book published in 1898 under this title and reviewed in these columns at considerable length has just been followed by a second volume, in which the subject is taken up where it was dropped; that is to say, the general account of porcelain in China is succeeded by an historical inquiry, and, after a brief introduction, we pass without break—without mark of chapter, book, or section—into the chronological treatment, beginning with the epoch from 1506 to 1522, and going regularly on to 1875, at which date the book closes. Each separate epoch is denoted by the emperor whose name represents it in common chronologies. Of the great times of the Ming dynasty little is said; largely, we may assume, from lack of material. There are but few pieces of porcelain within the reach of an Englishman living at home that can be accepted by him and criticised as "real Ming" vases or plates. It appears, however, that the author does not respect the porcelain of the Ming times as much as do most collectors and writers on the subject. The old theory, very commonly accepted, is that the Tartar conquest by which the Ming dynasty was brought to a close, brought with it decadence in the decorative arts of China, and that these were long in regaining their strength, and never regained quite their refinement and their significance. To the princes of this older dynasty but two pages apiece, or sometimes less than a page, is allowed.

With the reign of the conquering Emperor Kang-hi, or Kang-he, the subject assumes more interest for Mr. Gulland, and to this reign alone is given nearly ten times as much space as is allowed to all the preceding reigns together. It is at this point in the chronological sequence that the attempted analysis of the decorated porcelains is given. Here comes in the division between *famille verte*, blue and white, *aubergine*, and the rest; and here is the mention of "foreign influence" and of Kakiyemon, who is considered to have

been an early Japanese maker of porcelain, and to have given his name to a whole class of objects, many of which are now known to be Chinese. It is evident that with our author the historical examination of his subject begins with the Mongol dynasty, and that the present volume is an attempt at the history of Chinese porcelain from 1661, with a few unconnected remarks about the earlier times.

The book is not systematic. One piece after another is taken up and described with some reference to the photographic representation of it. It is like the talk of a collector showing his own treasures to a sympathetic listener. And this impression is made stronger by the absence of any clear statement as to the place of any piece. Are they all in the South Kensington Museum? Not so; for at least one is located for us, "Mr. G. R. Davies's celebrated black vase" (p. 370), which the owner himself has described for the author. Like the paging, the numbering of the illustrations is continued from the first volume. The first in the new book is No. 486, and the highest number reached is 896, so that the two volumes taken together give certainly an enormous number of examples. It cannot be said, however, that the half-tone process is well adapted to such illustration as this. Curvature of surface and delicacy of painted adornment are alike beyond the reach of the coarse gradation producible by the mesh. Nor are these the best half-tones conceivable, though they are of good average merit.

Trees and Shrubs for English Gardens. By E. T. Cook. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

"The word 'English,'" we are told in the preface, "of course stands for the British Isles." The range of climate in the British Isles is so much greater than that of England alone that a treatise covering the former must be more likely to contain matter of interest to horticulturists in Eastern North America than if it were restricted to England alone.

The book possesses, among other excellent qualities, an attractive typography, fine illustrations, and an earnest style. It is easy for a writer on amateur gardening to drawl along in an empty manner, uttering the most familiar things in an oracular way, much as suburbanites compare notes about their astonishing crops. There is nothing of this dry and vain pomposity in the work before us. The writer is a lover of plants and of groups of plants, and has a horror of the results which follow thoughtless planting.

Of course, all such books are likely to cross somebody's prejudices at some unexpected point. Few persons are so intolerant of the views of others as are the enthusiastic owners of small urban or suburban plots of ground devoted to decorative planting. In no occupation does a very little experience count for so much; a single success or a single failure controls the whole subsequent course. Now, as a matter of fact, in no vocation or avocation should a single unrepeated experiment count for so little. Soils, exposures, and the other factors of plant life are so diverse and so difficult to determine for a given case that the beginner is apt to overlook even the most important considerations. The average householder who essays to try his hand at planting around his dwelling, provides himself, first, with half a score of convenient horticultural books, and, finding these somewhat conflicting in their advice, he abandons them, and turns helplessly to the few lines of counsel furnished by the seedmen's catalogues. The brief directions in the latter have the encouraging optimism of patent-medicine almanacs; they are simple, direct, and convincing. Armed with directions designed for the latitude, say, of Boston, the amateur applies to the latitude of Washington the rules as to selection and care, and if his patient plants do not rebel against such unwise treatment, the experiment is reported as a success, and the right to pose ever after as an adviser in horticultural matters is gained. The neighbors of such amateur horticulturists are affected variously by these alleged successes. Some of them weakly copy the arrangements, while others seek to produce effects precisely unlike them. Hence result the kaleidoscopic effects which dazzle us in the environs of our cities. Charles Eliot, in his too brief career, preached the gospel of beauty to the dwellers in our cities and the suburbs. He accomplished much towards replacing formal beds of mismated colors by effective shrubs and commanding trees. No doubt he would have found in the present treatise just the material to recommend to the owners of small places in the vicinity of our cities.

It would not be a difficult task for a resident of our Eastern States to draw from the present work hints for useful combinations, provided due regard be had to the differences in climate. Selection of the more hardy would ensure safety and success. This treatise is, however, something more than a handbook of hints for beginners. It is replete with sound advice in relation to larger subjects, and could judiciously be used by the landscape architect in his interesting work. It may be commended, further, to those who care for such things as winter gardens, pleached alleys, and similar old-fashioned affairs. Matters like the following also find a place: weeping-trees and their uses, trees and shrubs for the sea-coast and for windswept places, for the water-side, and for streets. Many practical matters are touched in a fresh way; for instance, young trees and sunstroke (*i. e.*, of the trees themselves), hardy shrubs in the greenhouse, and the worthy use of roses. In short, all who are interested in the picturesqueness or in the quiet beauty of individual and clustered shrubs and trees, will find in these charming pages much of profit and interest. Moreover, a large part of the information is tabulated in a convenient manner for reference and for comparison.

The unprejudiced reader, after studying these chapters, will agree with the modest and truthful statement of the preface:

"It cannot be urged against this work that it travels along a path already well worn, for the subject of trees and shrubs for English gardens, though almost inexhaustible, has never been so fully treated and illustrated as it deserves. The book may have many defects, but its pages will show that an honest effort has been made to offer helpful and instructive information to the many who wish to know more of the beauty of trees and shrubs."

Daniel Ricketson and his Friends: Letters, Poems, Sketches, etc. Edited by his Daughter and Son, Anna and Walter Ricketson. With illustrations. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

With much commending them to the reader, these memoirs have the prime defect of nowhere giving us in sequence the main facts and incidents of Mr. Ricketson's life. Mr. Sanborn's introductory sketch was written at the time of Mr. Ricketson's death and is dated July 18, 1898, but the day of his friend's death is not given, nor the day of his birth—the year of which, however (1813), can be inferred from various references to his age in Mr. Ricketson's journal and letters. On the other hand, we have his own careful and minute description of his person and character. He concludes that he "never could have passed for aught but an ordinary person," his modest stature, five feet three inches, being in harmony with such a view. Though quickly moved to sympathy with human or brute suffering, he did not consider himself "a particularly liberal or open-handed man." Many aspects of his mind and character, as revealed by his letters and journals, are interesting. He was a diligent reader and writer, in love with the world out of doors, observant, but in no wide or penetrating manner; Cowper his favorite author. He aspired to live the simple life, but with some qualifications: he liked the best English editions of his favorite books in fine bindings. Aspiring to the stoicism of Emerson, he fell far short of it, complaining of his health to a degree that Emerson would have thought felonious, and being very easily put out of mental equilibrium. He wrote a great deal of verse, but not much poetry. The concluding section of the book has numerous examples, several of them long drawn out. They have much sincerity contending with the artificiality of the literary amateur.

The best use of this book should be to encourage the average man to live more with nature and with books, but its main effect will probably be to add something to that stock of impressions of the Concord coterie which is in little need of further aggregation. Mr. Ricketson's sketches of Emerson, Alcott, Channing, Thoreau are better than many we have had heretofore, yet not equal to the best. He is no fulsome flatterer, finding Emerson's quality "less great and strong than good," and him "a recipient of the divine cordial in doses rather homœopathic." His relation to Thoreau, also, seems to have been less abject than that of some others. He accounted himself a less docile disciple than Blake and Brown.

But Thoreau is the hero of these pages who crowds all the others from their seats. First we have a sketch of him by Mr. Ricketson, then the correspondence of these two, then Sophie Thoreau's correspondence with Mr. Ricketson about her brother, then several other sets of letters to and from Thoreau's friends and admirers, including his English biographer, Henry S. Salt. Mr. Ricketson's acquaintance with Thoreau began in 1854 and continued till Thoreau's death in 1862. In the course of this period they visited each other many times and wrote each other with irregular infrequency. There is a pathetic letter of Ricketson's complaining of Thoreau's long silence, and Thoreau's elaborate reply, which

is hardly an apology: "This life is not for complaint but for satisfaction. I do not feel addressed by this letter of yours. It suggests only misunderstanding. Intercourse may be good, but of what use are complaints and apologies?" Our best glimpses of Thoreau are in his sister's letters. It is interesting to find her saving from Emerson's pruning hand some flowers of sentiment in Thoreau's published letters. As compared with his friend W. E. Channing, Thoreau was perfectly accessible. It is no wonder that Mr. Ricketson was disappointed in Thoreau's appearance if his sketch of him, here reproduced, was true to life. The portrait of Thoreau from the Ricketson photograph is quite different from the engraving based on it in Sanborn's 'Henry D. Thoreau,' and has no trace of the likeness to Emerson which is aggressive in the Rowse portrait of Thoreau. The three portraits of Mr. Ricketson are interesting, but far less so than two of his wife, one when she was twenty, and one when she was thirty-seven years old. We might well have been told more of one who was so beautiful.

The New Harmony Communities. By George Browning Lockwood. Marion, Ind.: The Chronicle Co. 1902. Pp. 282.

Nothing passes for being more like a last year's bird's-nest than an old newspaper, and yet the present picture of New Harmony, which gave promise of discoursing divine music, is an attractive mosaic tesselated preëminently from the New Harmony *Gazette*—a rare relic which the author made a pilgrimage to see and study on the very spot of its publication, not knowing probably where else it could be ferreted out. This weekly had pages of the same size as the *Nation*, nearly as many and as well printed. Its first issue was within six months after Owenites had stepped into the places of Rappites. Thanks to Paul Brown—a Paul Pry into true inwardness, who had entered the camp of Owen, and who printed as sarcastically as Diogenes was wont to speak—the paper betrays much to one who reads between the lines. From the first we see worms sapping all unseen at the root. In the track of such a leader, those at first timid became outspoken, nothing could be suppressed, and the journal unawares grew a source-book of local history, one doubly precious to Mr. Lockwood because unknown to or unheeded by previous writers.

Robert Owen first came to New Harmony in the spring of 1825, having already, through an agent, bought the whole settlement *en bloc* for $150,000. This establishment, founded by Rapp, had for ten years been the prosperous home of a thousand of his flock. These at once departed on steamboats, leaving the coast clear to the purchaser, who on May Day began to install his disciples there, repeating the occupation of the land of promise by Jews. After one single month of arranging the details of the Far West experiment, he left it in charge of deputies, on July 17 sailed from New York for England, and saw no more of his plantation until the following January. His preliminary constitution for a "community of equality," which he then at once brought forward, was, after discussion, adopted on February 5th. The dissenters, however, formed so large a minority of non-equalitarians that two offshoots sprouted out from the original stock and settled apart, divided further by mutual contempt than by distance. Still, all agreed on inviting Owen to continue in autocratic power, which he did. His address in the Hall on the 9th of May showed, with counsels of perfection, hopefulness on his part among a crowd who were already doubtful if not despairing. A year passed on, and his disappointments had been so vast that he bade farewell to that Harmony which had proved so discordant after his utmost endeavors and the outlay of $200,000, or much more than the half of all his fortune. But he went away whistling to keep his courage up and if possible that of his votaries. Returning within a year and for the last time, his optimism failed in the face of a complete collapse of the social aggregation.

Many secondary causes of Owen's discomfiture are obvious and have been often set forth as beacon lights to warn against breakers; but the cardinal cause was rather moral than physical. The contrast between stolid Rappites and wide-awake Owenites was, after all, in this most striking, that one sect was religious throughout, and the other was not. Rapp had powers not of this world to unify and stimulate his operatives. Lack of this to cast out the devils of laziness and licentiousness left Owen's multitude, who flocked around him for loaves and fishes, a veritable rope of sand whenever combined or distasteful toil was needed. When Owen had impoverished himself, as a good Samaritan, and could no longer grant physical help, his moral endeavors never flagged. Each year of American struggle was followed by as earnest a decade in Europe, and he died well-nigh a nonagenarian, but a philanthropist to the last. The seed he sowed has brought forth a hundredfold, as Mr. Lockwood shows, in more than one harvest.

French Cathedrals and Châteaux. By Clara Crawford Perkins. 2 vols., pp. viii., 284, and x., 299. Boston: Knight & Millet. 1903.

This popular book, of easy reading, with many unrelated details in the body of it, begins with some preparatory essays which may be thought to have received much care in their preparation. The tone of criticism, indeed, may be exemplified by the quotation from Robert Louis Stevenson of the passage where he becomes enthusiastic over cathedrals, page xvi., but that casual sort of estimation is in a way contradicted by the serious attempts at historical, constructional, and artistic study which follow. Chapter one is devoted to France of the Franks; chapters two and three are devoted to Gothic building; chapter four is devoted to Gothic windows, "glass and tracery"; chapter five is devoted to Gothic sculpture, and chapter six contains an historical outline. In all of these there is noticeable a constant reference to good authorities, and, mixed with these, reference to writers who have left sayings behind them—sayings which neither pretended to have nor can have any authority at all. Apparently there is no pretence on the author's part to any positive knowledge or strongly held opinions. It is, however, a recognized fact that the second-hand or third-hand knowledge and the not too strongly held opinions meet a popular demand, and that they are generally considered much more readable than the work of the scholar or of the critic.

Following these introductory chapters in volume one, are notices of seven of the great cathedrals of Northern France and three or four Gothic buildings which are not cathedrals. Viollet-le-Duc and Professor Moore of Harvard University, the two best known writers on Gothic art as a general subject of inquiry—good and trustworthy writers, too—are continually referred to. It is odd to see the two names turning up in one sentence or in two succeeding sentences so frequently. Ruskin's vague enthusiasm and his ill-aimed criticism are also constantly in evidence.

Volume two, being devoted to châteaux, is devoted also to the Renaissance. It opens with a very brief essay on the Renaissance in general, as seen in France, but this takes up only nine pages, and then follow chapters on the late Gothic strong castles of Pierrefonds and Loches and the Renaissance manor-houses of Langeais, Chaumont, and the other famous ones, alternating with the royal establishments of Fontainebleau, Versailles, and in Paris the Louvre and Tuileries. The characteristics of volume one are traceable again in volume two. A good instance of what has been named above as the writer's tentative way of going to work where the opinions of a well-chosen writer are compared with other and less important views, is in the note on page 10, where there is question of historical accuracy in Viollet-le-Duc's restoration of Pierrefonds. The accusations brought against the famous architect are not rightly seized, nor are the strongest points of his defence presented. It is rather fortunate that the writer has been so generally careful in avoiding statements of positive opinion, for she thinks that there is a mingling of Gothic with Renaissance art in Chambord, and asserts, apparently on her own authority, that the roof which crowns the walls of Chambord "is Gothic run riot," although it appears in the next sentence that its details "are loaded with heavy and coarse Renaissance ornaments." The illustrations are photographic views of the important buildings named; thirty-two of them devoted to the Gothic churches and as many to the fortresses and the neo-classic buildings of the second volume. They are generally reproductions of the more familiar photographs.

Vus du Dehors. Par Max Nordau. Paris: Alcan. 1903.

The admission of a volume to the series entitled "Bibliothèque de Philosophie Contemporaine" is a virtual pledge to its readers of a certain measure of dignified scientific objectivity in discussing questions of moment, particularly if occurring in the work of men whom the competent critics of their own race and speech unite in honoring. To expect uniform sedateness of deliberative opinion from the author of 'Degeneration' would, however, be a naïve proceeding. Yet Dr. Nordau, in his brief prefatory note to this collection of review articles on contemporary French writers, contends that the mere condition of being an outsider insures serenity to his conclusions through the negative influence of detachment from coteries and freedom from

local bias. This attempted analogy between contemporary foreign judgments and the final verdicts of posterity is radically misleading. In the present condition of international relations, is it conceivable that the literature and art of any flourishing country can be contemplated dispassionately by rivals? So far is this from being the case that the louder the professions of critical aloofness on the part of a foreign censor, the more alert should our suspicion be lest they cover sly attack or disparagement. The essays in question, which discuss novelists, poets, and playwrights with somewhat obtrusive pretensions to "scientific and philosophical criticism," are mostly occupied with the demolishing of established reputations, accompanied here and there by suggestions as to the superior genuineness of the corresponding article of Teutonic make. There is also the familiar turn for occasionally entertaining paradox (always deadly in earnest), and a dreary parade of scientific method and terms suggestive of formal lectures in morbid psychology.

The arbitrariness of Dr. Nordau's classifications appears in his promptly ranking Michelet among the *romanciers*. It is, from one point of view, indeed unfortunate that Michelet could never be dull; but does it follow that the only admissible conception of history belongs to those of whom it is here said (p. 13), "La chose importante pour eux, ce sont les recherches, ce n'est pas le récit. Les notes au bas des pages ont à leurs yeux plus de valeur que le texte"? And the same confusion in the use of terms of no doubtful connotation occurs in the elaborate endeavor to prove that Balzac was no realist—this, of the author of 'Le Curé de Tours,' the delineator of the 'Maison Vauquer.' That Balzac as a student of character applied to the full his marvellous power as a *voyant*, no one will deny; but the interpretations of human nature at which he arrived, proceeded from a minute daily observation as rigorous and painstaking as that of any inductive inquirer into the facts out of which he constructs his comprehensive theory. Precisely in the same spirit of one-sided appreciation, Dr. Nordau considers Maupassant as having shown from beginning to end of his career an exclusive maniacal predisposition for "un érotisme profondément pathologique," with at the same time a sharp eye for external detail, a combination rendering his work valuable not to the philosopher or the moralist, but to the alienist. What aptitude the last may possess for fine analytical discrimination, may be guessed from the juxtaposition, in an essay entitled "Trois Études de la Jalousie," of an incongruous trio named respectively Shakspere, Anatole France, and Lucien Mühlfeld.

We may pass over with the briefest mention three studies dealing with the still more perilously debatable ground of modern French poetry, entire comprehension of which demands somewhat more than the training of a scientific mind and a linguistic equipment sufficient for the grasping of a direct meaning. Mallarmé's enigmatic utterances (which we make no profession of either explaining or enjoying) are just the kind which the foreigner is only too disposed to hail with rapture or to sniff at with contempt. As Dr. Nordau prefers the latter course, we may well ask him what he would say of a French critic who should follow the same method in disposing of 'Atta Troll.'

More than half of the volume is occupied with reviews of contemporary dramatists, from Dumas *fils* to Rostand, special attention being paid to the moral problems raised in their various dramas. On the comedy of pure fun, illustrated in the work of Labiche, or of light and brilliant social satire such as 'Le Monde ou l'on s'ennuie,' Dr. Nordau has no word to cast away; his concern is with playwrights who take themselves and their dramas in a spirit of moral gravity, and, as it were, pontify through the lips of their fictitious characters. In this connection, the younger Dumas stands, in his critic's eyes, for nothing more than the oracular mouthpiece of commonplace sentiment or opinion ("des solutions appartenant déjà au fonds immuable des tartiniers en chef du *Petit Journal*"), while the whole of his dramatic work is a special pleading on the issues involved in the playwright's equivocal position toward his own parents and society at large. Does "L'Ami des Femmes" bear directly on any phase of Dumas's life?

Examination of Brieux's plays offers an opportunity for a wholly irrelevant and digressional attack on M. Brunetière's sensational article of a few years ago, which impugned the pretensions of some scientific men by charging science in general with failure to carry out the rash prophecies of votaries. Theologians, says Dr. Nordau, had long before uttered the same sort of fulmination, which their obvious *intérêt de boutique* prevented scientific men from wasting time in refuting. But scorn and sarcasm are no reply. If Dr. Nordau, like the majority of his compeers who broke lances with M. Brunetière at the time, chooses to shirk the vital issue at stake by declaring that science is too much concerned with "serious questions" to pay heed to such trivial topics as the First Cause, the origin of evil, and the possibility of conscious existence after death, he and his ilk have still before them the hardest task of all, namely, that of diverting the oldest and strongest of intellectual instincts from the most permanently engrossing of all problems.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Augustin-Thierry, Gilbert. Conspirateurs et Gens de Police. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Baker, Harold. The Collegiate Church of Stratford-on-Avon, and Other Buildings of Interest in the Town and Neighborhood. (Bell's Cathedral Series.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Balch, T. W. Emériс Crusé. Philadelphia: Allen, Lane & Scott.
Brown, Alice. The Mannerings. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Buck, J. H. Old Plate: Its Makers and Marks. The Gorham Mfg. Co.
Burgess, E. S. History of Pre-Clusian Botany in its Relation to Aster. (Memoirs of the Torrey Botanical Club, Vol. X.). New York: Published by the Torrey Botanical Club.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Biblical Quotations in Old English Prose Writers, Second Series. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) London: Edward Arnold; New York: Scribner's.
Cook, E. T. A Popular Handbook to the Greek and Roman Antiquities in the British Museum. Macmillan. $3.25.
Cook, G. C. Roderick Taliaferro. Macmillan.
Dubnow, S. M. Jewish History. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Galdós, B. P. Marianela. Translated by J. Geddes and F. M. Josselyn. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Gerrare, Wirt. Greater Russia, the Continental Empire of the Old World. Macmillan.
Griffis, W. E. Young People's History of Holland. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Haldane, R. B. The Pathway to Reality. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Hall, W. S. Descriptive Geometry. With portfolio of plates. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.50.
Helps, Arthur. The Spanish Conquest in America. Vol. III. New ed. Edited by M. Oppenheim. John Lane.
Heysinger, I. W. The Light of China. Philadelphia: Research Pub. Co.
Hiatt, Charles. Notre Dame de Paris. (Bell's Handbook to Continental Churches.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Jones, J. P. India's Problem: Krishna or Christ? Fleming H. Revell & Co. $1.50.
Keller, Helen. The Story of My Life. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Ladenburg, A. Lectures on the History of the Development of Chemistry since the Time of Lavoisier. Translated by Leonard Dobbin. Edinburgh: The Alembic Club; Chicago: The University Press.
Le Blond, Mrs. Aubrey. True Tales of Mountain Adventure for Non-Climbers Young and Old. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Lyndon, Lamar. Storage Battery Engineering. McGraw Publishing Co.
Marshall, Beatrice. The Siege of York. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
McCulloch, Hugh. Written in Florence. London: J. M. Dent & Co.
Monteith, John. Some Useful Animals. (Eclectic School Readings.) American Book Co. 50 cents.
Owen, Rye. Red-Headed Gill. H. Holt & Co.
Price, W. L., and Johnson, W. M. Home Building and Furnishing. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Rich, C. E. The New Boy at Dale. Harpers.
Rosenberg, Adolf. Leonardo da Vinci. Translated by J. Lohse. Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Scidmore, Eliza R. Winter India. Century Co.
The English Bible, Vol. I.: Genesis to Joshua. (King James version.) London: David Nutt.
Wiener, Leo. Anthology of Russian Literature. Part II.: The Nineteenth Century. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Wilkins, Mary E. The Wind in the Rose-Bush. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Woodburn, J. A. Political Parties and Party Problems in the United States. (American Politics.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Zangwill, I. The Grey Wig. Macmillan. $1.50.

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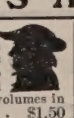

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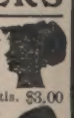

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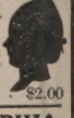

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 9, 1903.

The Week.

President Roosevelt's speech on the Trusts betrays a dawning consciousness that the time for platitudes has passed and the hour of practical action arrived. He has got his anti-Trust legislation, now what is he going to do with it? The affair is in his own hands. His new Bureau of Corporations can be rendered an efficient instrument for securing publicity if he wishes to make it such. On this subject he does not indulge very bold promises. We must be patient. Organization of the new department will be necessarily slow, and its first activities tentative. Undoubtedly; but what are we to say of the President's flat declaration that further legislation is "impracticable"? That is to discredit in advance the very law of which he is boasting, for an essential part of it is its plan to gather "such information and data as will enable the President of the United States to make recommendations to Congress for the regulation of such commerce, etc." Yet here is Mr. Roosevelt practically notifying his Commissioner of Corporations that he wants no such information, and will make no use of it if he gets it.

In the same breath with his intimation that he means to make a very polite and lady-like use of the weapon against Trusts which Congress gave him, Mr. Roosevelt announces that he will not touch the really deadly weapon of tariff revision. As far as he is concerned, the tariff-protected Trusts may continue to hide behind the Dingley law, and utilize its aid in preying upon the consumer. The President is not willing to go even as far as Secretary Root, and admit the possible need of legislation to prevent the tariff from being abused by Trusts, and to compel them to sell their goods at home as cheaply as abroad—or, at any rate, at a "fair" price. Mr. Roosevelt pushes all this away, with schoolboy cock-sureness, as a plan for "putting an end to the prosperity of the country." Congressman Babcock is nearer right. He declared on Friday that the next Congress is "pledged to a revision of the tariff," and that, but for such a pledge, the Republicans would have lost their majority. Now Babcock personally does not count. He ran away like a frightened hare last winter, when courage and backbone on his part would have forced tariff revision to the front, and he will doubtless do so again. But he clearly states the situation. His forecast of an immense lift to the Democratic party by means of the tariff issue, if the Republicans show that they are unwilling or unable to correct the flagrant injustice of the existing law, is only that of thousands of Republicans. President Roosevelt's friends say that he has shrewdly stolen the Trust issue from the Democrats. But if he hands them over the tariff issue, he will be profited nothing; and all that he says about Trusts will be only as so much water for the Democratic mill.

The Trades Assembly of Kansas City petitions President Roosevelt, in his present tour, to boycott the Union Pacific Railway, which has recently put certain of its machinists on piece work. While the President's enthusiasm for organized labor is well known, it is probable that he will hold to his original itinerary. To do otherwise might subject him to some inconvenience. Other railways beside the Union Pacific may fall under the ban; hotels, too, are subject to boycott by various unions, even private citizens in the West may suddenly be declared "unfair," now that janitors and other domestic servants are unionized. In fact, if Mr. Roosevelt attempted to travel respecting everywhere this peculiar form of tabu, his course would inevitably recall that childish game the skill of which lay in not stepping on the spots in the carpet. But the President has had the boycott at home, in the case of rival painters' unions in the White House, and knows very well that such nonsense as the Kansas City resolution is frequently perpetrated merely to advertise the union—a fact which critics of the eccentricities of unionism must not forget.

The exordium of Secretary Root's address before the Home Market Club at Boston last week was a laudation of the brute majority. Glancing at the pitiful minority that wishes the tariff revised, he reminded us that there are some—one in a hundred perhaps—who are always in opposition. He warns everybody not to imagine that "their loud cries of dissent indicate public judgment." Still flouting "this useful but trying class of our fellow-citizens," he finds that they have recently and capriciously turned against the protective system, but "if we had been a free-trade country they would have been protectionists." This persiflage at the expense of minorities would be much more effective in another mouth than Mr. Root's. He has not hesitated, on occasion, to join that "useful but trying class" which dares to speak its mind against majorities and foregone conclusions. We take pleasure in reprinting words spoken by Mr. Root at the Carnegie Hall meeting, held December 23, 1896, in favor of Mr. Choate's candidacy for the Senate. If ever there was a forlorn hope, it was the attempt to force Mr. Choate upon the Platt machine at Albany. Mr. Root, however, rejoicing in the very difficulty of the endeavor, said:

> "Our voice in this great contest is but the voice of one crying in the wilderness. Members of the Legislature are elected; they are about to take their places; they are about to declare their choice. But one thing we can do. We can say loudly what we think it is the duty of the State of New York to do. . . . Far distant be the day when the people assent to the proposition that, under any circumstances whatever, it is an impertinence for any citizen, however humble he may be, however few they may be who agree with him, to express to his representatives his sentiments and wishes regarding their action."

It is a greatly changed Mr. Root who to-day has an ironical sneer for such as waste their voices in the wilderness. He now professes the creed of things as they are, and, very skilfully showing the enormous difficulties that tariff revision involves, he assumes that nothing can be done for the present. He even lays down maxims on the convenient season for revision, which he admits as a theoretical possibility: (1) No change of the schedule must be undertaken while a Presidential campaign is impending. In other words, not this year or next. (2) The tariff should be revised by its friends. But since its friends clearly dislike to revise it, it should and will remain unrevised, maugre the cries of a factious minority. We have no other comment to make on this facile sort of prediction than to say that Mr. Root assumes the prophetic air in tariff matters with singular ill grace. Congress threw back his Cuban tariff bill in his face, and mangled his Philippine schedules out of all recognition. Had he followed his own teachings, he would have realized that the immutability of the Dingley schedules is hard fact, and would have saved his official shins.

An unpleasant impression is certainly made by the correspondence between President Roosevelt and ex-Senator Simon of Oregon. It is not simply that the President appears to have impetuously promised an appointment which he strangely forgot to make, but that he so ostentatiously puts his neck in the yoke held out to him by the Senate. "They [the two Senators from Oregon] *cannot consent*," he writes, "to Mr. Steele's receiving the appointment which I had designed to give him. . . . I very much regret to say that it would, of course, be useless to send it in." This it is to be a Constitutional President! Like Ormuzd, Mr. Roosevelt would be glad to have his good way, but the Senate Ahriman will not let him. One is reminded of Macaulay's attempt to explain the existence of evil by contending that the Ruler of the Universe

was limited by the fixed decrees of fate. When this was reported to Dr. Thompson, Master of Trinity, he remarked, "What a thoroughly Whig doctrine—a Constitutional God!"

Peculiar interest attached to the Ohio municipal elections on Monday. They were the first held under the new general law determining the form of the government of cities throughout the State, and were expected, besides, to throw considerable light on the political drift. The result, as between parties, is something like a stand-off. In Cincinnati the Republicans won by an unexpectedly large majority, while the Democrats, under the leadership of Mayor Johnson, strengthened their hold upon the city of Cleveland, now the largest in Ohio. The latter event will be peculiarly galling to the Republicans, and especially to Senator Hanna. He had united all factions of his party in a determined effort to make an end of Johnson, but is worse beaten than before. His local prestige has thus had a rude buffet, and his hold on the State machine must be somewhat weakened. He had a candidate for Governor in the background, Mr. Myron T. Herrick of Cleveland, who will now be at liberty to give his undivided attention to business, and let politics go.

The reëlection of Mayor Jones of Toledo is, politically, most amazing. He proclaimed himself a "Man without a Party." He had no organization, no "workers," no newspapers. The city press ignored him. The two parties had each their candidate, for whom an active campaign was made. Yet the ridiculed Jones came out with as many votes as his two rivals had together. This repeated success of one who has some grotesque characteristics, yet who has evidently impressed himself on his fellow-citizens as an honest man, without the fear of a boss or a machine before his eyes, is more than a passing curiosity. It has a lesson for politicians, as well as for those ambitious to serve the public, if they would but read it. As for the overwhelming defeat of Mr. Ingalls in Cincinnati, he apparently suffered from too much thundering in the index. His programme was a little too ostentatiously marked out in advance—Mayor in April, Governor next November, President in 1904. These are the successive rounds of the ladder by which many a man has attempted to mount ever since Mr. Cleveland showed how easily it might be done. But, thus far, every one who has essayed to imitate him has fallen with a crash. History does not repeat itself except in exposing the folly of those who think it will. We had better pick out our Mayors without hoping that they may prove Governors or Presidents.

When Judge Adams granted a temporary injunction against a strike of the trainmen and firemen of the Wabash Railway, there was general acquiescence in it both by the parties concerned and by public opinion. It was understood, however, that there was no process of law by which men could be held to service and labor without their consent. It was proper that the situation should be cleared, that irreparable damage should be prevented, and that the people served by the railroads, to whom the movement of trains was indispensable, should not be deprived of it without notice; but, of course, if the men were determined to quit work they could not be prevented from doing so in an orderly way. So the Judge has dissolved the injunction in terms as dignified as those in which he granted it. He finds that the employees of the road were not engaged in an unlawful conspiracy, that they were not acting under coercion in making their demand for an increase of wages, and that they were exercising their undoubted rights as citizens. As they have the right to make the demand, they may strike if the demand is not complied with, but the strike must not be attended with violence or the destruction of property, or by coercive measures to prevent the railroad company from employing other help to move its trains. In conclusion, the Judge expresses the hope that the men and the company will submit their conflicting claims to arbitration if they are unable to come to an agreement otherwise. There is fair prospect that such an agreement may be reached.

In the year 1891, organized labor procured the passage of a law by the Legislature of Indiana fixing the minimum wages of unskilled laborers employed by counties, cities, and towns at 20 cents an hour. The Supreme Court of the State has just decided that the act is unconstitutional, since it deprives the counties, cities, and towns of freedom to make contracts. If the Legislature can fix a minimum wage, says the court, it can fix a maximum. It holds, moreover, that this is class legislation, fixing, perhaps, higher pay for laborers in public employment than for persons doing the same work for private persons. It is quite conceivable that two men might be at work side by side building roads, one for the county at 20 cents per hour, and the other for a trolley company at half the price. The theory of the promoters of the law is, that if they can compel the county to pay 20 cents, the men who are working for private parties will refuse to work for less, and thus the whole scale of wages will be raised. But it is clear that they will have to work on some other plan than this, since liberty of contract cannot be denied to public corporations any more than to private ones.

A Rutland jury has awarded $2,500 damages to a local manufacturing company which brought suit against a labor organization. More than one hundred members of the union were made defendants in the action, and their individual property holdings were attached. The suit was the result of a strike, and on the trial the company showed that it had been substantially injured by unlawful acts of the strikers. It was prevented in many cases by intimidation on the part of members of the labor organization from employing non-union men. Those whom it succeeded in employing were excluded from boarding-houses, owing to threats of the strikers, and had to be provided for by the company. Besides this, private detectives and watchmen had to guard its property. The interesting point of the decision is that the individual members of the organization, upon whom service was secured, are held personally liable, and the damages awarded must be paid from their property, which has been attached. Whether or not the union itself owns any property is therefore of no importance. This is an indirect, but in Vermont at least an apparently effective, means of establishing responsibility on the part of labor unions. If the verdict is upheld, such organizations in Vermont will no longer be able to engage in boycotts, intimidation, and violence regardless of legal consequences; nor, we may be sure, will the example be lost elsewhere.

We have not had the pleasure of inspecting the blacklist of the Central Federated Union, but, from the accounts which appear from time to time, we are forced to believe that it is a long one, containing many distinguished names. It would be unfortunate, doubtless, from the Union's point of view, if this list should become an honor roll, but something of the sort seems not unlikely to happen. The latest addition, according to report, is the name of Street Commissioner Woodbury, who is punished for refusing to sanction a change from white to brown or black in the uniform of the street cleaners. Mr. Woodbury based his refusal largely on the fact that the adoption of the white uniform was due to Col. Waring. The public will fully agree with the Commissioner that it would be a great misfortune to destroy any part of the influence which the memory of Col. Waring has on the Department. Besides this, the reasons which, in spite of the ridicule of the fun-makers, brought about general approval of the white uniforms when first introduced, are as convincing now as ever. By all means let us retain our "white wings," and let them remember to clean the streets in the way which Waring taught them.

The most striking feature of the passage of the new Excise Tax bill by the

New York Assembly on March 31, was the weakness of the opposition as shown both in the test vote taken early in the day and also on the final roll call. Eighty-four of the eighty-nine Republicans were recorded in favor of the bill. Doubtless this was largely due to the peculiar methods adopted by the protesting liquor dealers. They began by extravagant threats of political retribution, and ended, according to common report, by cynically sending a corruption fund of huge proportions to Albany. As a result, such arguments as they might have presented were hardly brought forward at all, and were accorded practically no consideration. Action on the bill was unexpectedly hastened, and the doors were closed against the lobby. This was justified, if for no more definite reason, by the impression which the dealers themselves, with their open talk, had created. The bill is primarily a revenue measure. As such, it is expected to bring to the localities a total annual revenue of $9,000,000, and to the State treasury a like sum, which is $5,000,000 more than the present excise tax yields.

The March number of the *Economic Journal* of London has a long article on the New York money market, in which some acute observations are recorded. Among the causes tending to stringency the writer mentions the fact that some of the largest city banks are not really independent entities. "They are inextricably drawn," he says, "into arrangements for carrying through vast operations in which their directors are not only interested but controlling factors." This is certainly true, and it goes far toward explaining the present situation. There are single banks and groups of banks of the first magnitude controlled by "promoters," or so much so at least that their executive officers are not quite free agents. Every bank ought to take care of its customers first—that is, to make advances to and discount the business paper of its depositors; but its ability to do so is dependent upon its cash reserves. If the reserves are too heavily drawn upon for "vast operations" of a non-mercantile character, which turn out to be more or less permanent investments, the bank cannot discharge its prime function of taking care of its customers, or can do so only partially. When a pinch comes, then, if it is dominated by promoters, it will curtail its loans to the smaller depositors. On the other hand, if the magnates do not get what they want, they can turn the bank officers out of their places. The National Banking act aims to prevent large advances of money to single individuals, or single interests, by a provision that no bank shall lend more than one-tenth of its capital to one person, corporation, or firm; but probably no person, corporation, or firm is ever prevented by that rule from getting any amount of money that a bank can supply if the applicant is a controlling factor in the management.

In the evidence on the Union Pacific injunction mere hearsay played as large a part as it does in a fairy tale. It is "a man in high standing" who tells a well-known Republican politician that a notorious operator would sell to a great railroad operator certain shares of Southern Pacific stock at a price, and a smaller number of shares at a higher price. One is given to understand that the larger offer at the lower price was of pool stock, while the smaller offer at the higher price was of the individual holdings of the manager of the said pool. This duplicity of price and management has been emphatically denied, but the denial brings out strikingly the fact of an uncomfortable issue of veracity between prominent gentlemen supposed to be men of their word. One who attempts to take moral soundings in speculative pools will need a long line, and then may find no bottom. It is significant that a prominent Republican politician could believe that a great Wall Street operator was selling out his associates. In short, there seems to be a tendency to pool not only money and stock, but business honor as well. The stock and the honor, the whole contents of the pool in short, may apparently be sold out at various prices, like lemonade at a fashionable bazaar.

As there is good reason to believe that the Danish Government will make another attempt to dispose of its West Indian possessions to this country, it is well to call attention to a report of the Danish Bureau of Statistics on the last census of the islands, taken at the same time with the census in Denmark, in February, 1901. The decrease of population on the three islands has been marked. In 1890, when the previous census was taken, the total population was 32,786; in 1901 it had fallen to 30,527. The loss was greatest on St. Croix, only one town, Frederiksstad, showing an increase. Of special interest, in connection with the possible annexation of the islands, are figures relating to illegitimate births, which constitute 70 per cent. of the total number. The census offers no particulars regarding the distribution of races, but it has been estimated that on the island of St. Croix the white people constitute only 3 per cent. Only 427 of the population are of Danish birth, and only 53 are from this country. The largest foreign population is found on St. Croix. Church affiliations are: Church of England, 36 per cent.; Roman Catholic, 28 per cent.; United Brethren (Moravian), 20 per cent., with only 2 per cent. belonging to the Lutheran, the Danish State Church.

During the great Italian strikes of four years ago the assertion was freely made that a revolutionary movement was masking in the guise of industrial agitation. The truth turned out to be that, while the strikes were of Socialistic origin, the dangerous form they assumed was due to tactless repressive measures on the part of a reactionary Government. While the parallel should not be unduly pressed, the general strike in Holland seems to be of somewhat similar origin and growth. The Dutch proletariat is protesting against Premier Kuyper's rigid labor laws, just as the Italian proletariat resented Rudini's stern application of military law. It will be remembered that the Dutch Premier some weeks ago, when a general strike seemed imminent, introduced bills authorizing a special brigade for service on the State railways, and appointing tribunals to pass on the legality of labor agitations. The laws themselves seem to be good laws. The plan, particularly, of putting the employees of State railways under military discipline has much to be said for it. It was the prompt mobilization of the Italian railway operatives, under this system, a year and more ago, that gave time for mature deliberation and the adjustment of grievances, thus averting a formidable strike.

Government officials can never be permitted that freedom to drop their work without notice which is perhaps too readily accorded to private wage-earners. Premier Kuyper's bills do little more than apply this unquestionably sound principle. But it seems that they were introduced at a time and in a way to provoke precisely the situation they were intended to make impossible. The working people of Holland are striking to-day not, as they declare, on a matter of wages or general conditions of employment, but simply to secure the withdrawal of these obnoxious bills. When the tenacity of the Dutch character is considered, and the wealth of the working class and its consequent ability to maintain a long fight, the situation looks very serious. The talk of German intervention seems merely journalistic. The Kaiser can hardly mean to make unwelcome proffers of aid which would stamp him as the deliberate enemy of the peace of Europe. It looks as if the Dutch Government must pass through a stormy season, yet no one need doubt that the tight little kingdom is abundantly able to handle its own difficulties. But it is hard to see how Premier Kuyper can long keep his place in the face of a general strike, any more than Rudini could in Italy; and the solidarity of trades as remote as the railroad men and diamond cutters in the present movement attests the strength of the new industrialism in one of the most conservative of the European nations.

THE PRESIDENT ON HIS TRAVELS.

Mr. Roosevelt's speech at Chicago on Thursday was an unnecessary preaching of the gospel to the already converted. The West certainly does not need to be taught swagger. At the very moment when superheated national jealousies on the subject of foreign complications were beginning to cool down, the President chose to inflame them again. It is like giving whiskey to a man in danger of sunstroke, instead of putting him in an ice pack. And if the speech errs sadly in point of taste and timeliness, its manner is surely of a sort to make the judicious grieve. Deprecate the inference as the President's friends may, his language went echoing across the sea as a rude defiance. His words were blows. He is the reincarnation of that quarrelsome Pole who, when remonstrated with and told that he had not really been insulted, replied, "Yes, I know that, but I thought it safer to knock him down."

President Roosevelt has the air of an enthusiastic discoverer of the Monroe Doctrine. He utters his vows with all the ardor of a lover at the feet of a blushing damsel, and as if she were not really a lady of a certain age who has had many suitors in her time. "I believe in the Monroe Doctrine with all my heart." We knew that, but what we doubted was whether his head had been sufficiently involved. That doubt cannot but be heightened by some of the strange statements of fact and sorry gaps in reasoning which appear in this latest Monroeizing of the President's. Mr. Roosevelt proceeded to construct his history of the Monroe Doctrine and its application to the interoceanic canal and to the question of national armaments. In his account of its beginnings, he said that it was purely our "primacy in strength" which led us to warn European Powers not to encroach upon American territory. This is to ignore entirely the fact that what John Quincy Adams and the men of his time objected to was the extension of the European "system" to this hemisphere—that is, government from a distance, arbitrary rule of people unrepresented. Our doing the same thing now in the Philippines might make us ready to be silent about all that; but if we speak of the matter at all, it is just as well not to pervert the historical fact. Time was when Theodore Roosevelt was full of this correct view of the Monroe Doctrine as a protest against colonial government. Hence it was that, in his magazine article of 1896, he wrote: "Every true patriot, every man of statesmanlike habit, should look forward to the day when not a single European Power will hold a foot of American soil." There spoke an enthusiasm for self-government which the writer, as little as his countrymen, then dreamed that the events of two years later would quench.

It was also the Monroe Doctrine, went on the President, in his easy improvisation of history, which made the United States determine that the isthmian canal should be built "by no foreign nation, but by ourselves." Thus summarily is blotted out the record regarding that French enterprise, the Panama Canal, to which the United States, by the hand of President after President and Secretary of State after Secretary of State, quietly assented. That the country turned a sharp corner and finally took the canal itself, is scarcely historic warrant for what the President now says we have "steadily believed." As little exact is his reference to the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, which, he says, "stipulated" that the United States should have the right to take "any measures which it found necessary to secure by its own forces the defence of the United States and the maintenance of public order." He was apparently thinking of the first treaty, which was, indeed, amended to that effect, and then rejected by Lord Lansdowne, partly on that very ground. In the treaty sent to the Senate by President Roosevelt on December 4, 1901, there is no such stipulation, but, on the contrary, a provision that "the canal shall be free and open to the vessels of commerce and of war of all nations."

One might pass over some of the President's slips in logic. He praised the "good faith" of Great Britain and Germany in the Venezuelan affair, yet went on to say that nothing but our superior naval strength could make the Monroe Doctrine "respected by any strong foreign Power." Was, then, our navy stronger than the combined fleets of England and Germany? Mr. Roosevelt explained that the reason we won so easily from Spain was that we were fully prepared; but shortly argued that "if we only prepare sufficiently, no war will ever come." Perhaps he meant this as an exercise in faulty reasoning for the Chicago students to correct. But there is no need to dwell upon minor defects when we have a speech which was one long blazing indiscretion from beginning to end. The worst of it is that President Roosevelt's acts are so much better than his words. He flings about verbal firebrands, but, in practice, he works for peace. Everybody familiar with the inside history of the recent Venezuelan imbroglio knows that the President was the patient and long-suffering man who soothed and held back the hot-heads in Congress and the navy. Why he, who knows so well how wild the naval officers were then, and are still, for a war with Germany—why he, who rebuked them and kept them in—why he, a man who acts as if he desired peace, should speak like a man spoiling for a fight, is, we confess, a great puzzle. He does not need to do it for the sake of popularity—that he already has. He surely cannot wish to affront the sober sentiment of this country, or to put himself in the posture of challenging foreign nations. What can be his motive? We know not, unless it be to emulate the example of the Emperor William, who talks more about war and does more for peace than, perhaps, any ruler living.

PERAMBULATORY TARIFF NOTIONS.

If President Roosevelt's speech at Minneapolis were submitted as a thesis for a prize or for a degree in political economy, it would be rejected by any board of examiners in the world. It is so self-contradictory and so at variance with former protectionist arguments that it cannot be taken seriously. Such a jumble cannot be held to express any real opinions of the speaker himself, but rather those which he thinks will just now catch the greatest number of votes.

The general tariff policy to which Mr. Roosevelt adheres, and to which he believes the country is committed, "is," he tells us, "fundamentally based upon ample recognition of the difference between the cost of production—*that is, the cost of labor*—here and abroad." Here he came very near tripping himself. It is not true that our general tariff policy is based upon the difference between cost of production here and abroad, but if it were so it would be easy to show that the cost of production is lower here than abroad as to a countless number of articles—so many, indeed, that cost of production has long since ceased to cut any figure as an argument for protection. Most articles of agriculture are in this category. Most of the products of iron and steel are in the same class. Wood, glass, borax, coal, and a thousand other things might be named whose cost of production is cheaper here than in any other country.

This truth evidently flashed upon Mr. Roosevelt before he finished his sentence. So he injected the words, "that is, the cost of labor," thus saving himself from one horn of a dilemma, but immediately impaling himself upon the other. He affirmed or insinuated that cost of production and cost of labor are the same thing, whereas every tyro knows that they are not the same. The natural resources of one country may be so superior to those of another that the cost of labor is not worth considering as an element of competition. One country may have machinery so much better than another that cost of labor ceases to be a factor of importance. In one country, labor may be more intelligent than in another, and may therefore supply a greater output in a given time. Finally, when other things are equal—when natural resources, machinery, and intelligence are substantially the same in two competing countries—the very fact that one of them pays higher wages than the other often gives that one an advantage. The higher wage makes the superior workman in the long run. This fact is well recognized in all manufac-

turing industries. The workman who is only half fed and whose mind is distracted to pay his household expenses, cannot do the same amount of work as the one who has meat on his table at every meal and a growing surplus in the savings bank. It is a common complaint in both England and Germany today that they find it hard to compete with the United States in manufacturing on account of the high wages paid by us.

"It is a sign of a dogma in dissolution," said Professor Sumner, a quarter of a century ago, "to change its form, and to yield points of detail, while striving to guard its vested interests and traditional advantages." He was speaking of the dogma of protection, which was even then shifting its ground and trying to guard its vested interests while abandoning its old positions. It had gained its advantages by the "infant industry" plea, by telling us what a fine thing it would be for the country to build up manufactures, and how proper it would be to lower the tariff after this end was accomplished. Its advocates said, too, that when the time for revision came, the tariff would be revised by its friends. In their judgment the time for revision came twenty-two years ago. Their opponents were a good deal surprised by the announcement, and they welcomed the appointment of the Tariff Commission of 1882. This body, composed of the chosen leaders of protection, frankly declared that the duties on imports were too high, and that they ought to be lowered as much as 20 to 25 per cent. It seemed, for the moment, as though the beneficiaries of the tariff intended to keep their word; but when the bill which their Commission had prepared was laid before Congress, they rushed to Washington in droves and rent it into fragments. Since that time the tariff has been twice amended by the Republicans in the direction of higher instead of lower duties, and we now have the highest one ever known in the country's history, with possibly one exception.

Now, President Roosevelt tells us in substance that we have the mightiest and most prosperous manufacturing industry in the world (which is the truth), and for that reason ought not to abandon the policy of protection. The old arguments have been turned inside out and topsy-turvy. The dogmas upon which protection is founded are in dissolution, but the practice continues just the same. In one part of his speech Mr. Roosevelt seems to argue that the system ought never to come to an end, but, remembering at an opportune moment that Gov. Cummins and Chairman Babcock and other influential Republicans hold contrary views, he says, parenthetically, that changes may be made in particular paragraphs or schedules "wherever and whenever necessary." Then he introduces another saving clause—"if such change is demanded by the interests of the nation as a whole." Who is to determine when a change is necessary? Who is to decide whether the interests of the nation as a whole demand that our protected manufactures shall be sold as cheaply to domestic consumers as to foreigners? Until now we have allowed the producers of the goods to answer these questions for us, and we see no sign that President Roosevelt contemplates any different way of reaching a decision.

EXPLOITING THE PHILIPPINES.

A frank confession, or perhaps we should say brutal exposure, of our commercial dealings with our colonial possessions is supplied in the March number of the *Journal of Political Economy*, from the pen of Mr. Robert F. Hoxie. He points out, with chapter and verse, that we have enacted laws to exploit the Philippines for our benefit and their detriment, that we have already violated our treaty with Spain, touching her right to equality of trade there, and that we are estopped by our own acts from demanding from other Powers an "open-door" policy in other countries of eastern Asia. This climax, or succession of climaxes, was no part of our purpose when we took the islands, nor has it been the result of deliberation at any time, but it was inevitable that private interests would be alert for gain; that they would go to Congress and to Departments in Washington and to the public authorities on the other side of the ocean, and that, by pushing here and there on the lines of least resistance, they would finally get what they wanted. As the Filipinos themselves were not consulted, it was quite natural that they should not be protected against exploiters. Does anybody ask why the Government of the United States did not protect them? The Government of the United States consists of persons who are engaged in protecting themselves. Their first and principal task is to prevent other persons from supplanting them in the places of power. That is Mr. Roosevelt's chief undertaking, and so it would be that of any President except one of a higher type than we are likely to see. That is the reason why the Filipinos have not been, and never will be, protected so long as they remain the subjects of a distant people who have none too much time to bestow upon their own government and to keep it in working order.

The first movement for the exploitation of the Philippines was made through tariff duties like those of the colonial system of the eighteenth century. The object of colonies, as then understood, was to have "outlets" for goods, where exclusive trading privileges should be enjoyed by the merchants of the mother country, or where they should be favored by discriminating duties. This idea was broached by Gen. Otis in a letter dated April 14, 1900, in which he innocently suggested a revision of the Philippine tariff by reducing the duties on articles imported from the United States. Such a reduction, he said, would be beneficial both to the business interests of the United States and to the Philippine people, while a similar reduction for European products would reduce the revenue of the islands without any compensating advantages. Authority for such a revision was granted at Washington. Presently there came a great number of petitions for reductions of the Philippine tariff for the benefit of our export trade without any regard to Philippine interests. A schedule of duties based upon this conception was adopted.

But that was not all. It was discovered that in our treaty with Spain we had agreed that she should have equal trading privileges with ourselves in the Philippines for ten years. Plans to circumvent this clause of the treaty in behalf of our exporters were brought forward. For example, the wines of Spain were entitled to admission on the same terms as our own, but it was found that Spanish wines contained a larger percentage of alcohol than those of California, and the shrewd suggestion was made that the duty should be a sliding scale based upon the alcoholic test, so as to give the California exporter an advantage. This cheating device was adopted. Mr. Hoxie reproduces a naïve correspondence on this subject between Mr. E. R. Lilienthal of the Crown Distilleries Company of San Francisco and Col. Clarence R. Edwards of the Insular Division of the War Department. The former expresses his thanks for the "patriotic impulse" which prompted our officials to "prefer American interests which have been hampered by the treaty with Spain." He concludes by saying, "All admit that, as the tariff is now framed, a decided advantage has been gained and will be realized." Col. Edwards replies, under date of October 14, 1901, without any apparent suspicion that a dishonorable act has been committed, saying: "To receive such recognition of effort made, from those interested, cannot be otherwise than gratifying to those who have participated in the framing of the tariff." Numerous other subterfuges were adopted to evade the Spanish agreement, and Col. Edwards was so well satisfied with the success of the plan that he assured the Republican members of the Ways and Mean Committee that "while no different duty in favor of American products is openly mentioned, the articles were so described as to allow an advantage to American goods."

The next chapter in the shameful record is the American tariff on Philippine products. We had made the Philippine tariff on American products to suit our-

selves—that is, to suit the protected interests. Now we turned our thoughts to the other end of the bargain. The Philippine Commission had urgently requested a reduction of one-half of the Dingley rates of duty in favor of Philippine products. Congress allowed only 25 per cent. reduction, but at the same time it abolished certain Philippine export duties on goods coming to the United States, while maintaining them as to the same goods going to other countries. Among these was Manila hemp; the effect of the act was to give our manufacturers an advantage over those of Europe in the cordage trade. Thus we killed two birds with one stone—the Filipino taxpayer and the British rope-maker. But we did something more. We trampled under foot Secretary Hay's "open door" policy in China before the ink was fairly dry; for it is not to be supposed that any Power will consider itself committed to a trade policy in China which is not observed by ourselves in the Philippines.

"Given the conditions," says Mr. Hoxie, "the result was inevitable." So much was foretold by the Anti-Imperialists at the start. They said that if we seized the islands certain forces in which human greed bore the largest part, would be let loose with no effectual check upon them. These objectors did not, indeed, foresee the "felonious homicides" and all the barbarities that we should practise upon the unhappy people of those islands, but they did foresee that whenever a dollar could be made out of them, by fair means or foul, somebody, wrapping himself in the American flag, would find a way to get it.

ARMY STAFF PROBLEMS.

It is fully two years since the system of line and staff details was established in the army by act of Congress. Up to that time the staff officers—paymasters, quartermasters, commissaries, adjutants-general, ordnance officers, and inspectors-general—were men selected from civil life, or from the line of the army, who served permanently in the corps to which they were appointed. The Spanish war having brought out the grave evils which resulted from this permanent divorce of the men who did the fighting and those who kept them supplied, Congress decreed that after February 2, 1901, officers should be transferred to the staff for four years only, and should then return to duty with troops for at least two years, in order to prevent their becoming mere bureau officers without experience of the needs of soldiers. In the period that has elapsed, the new system has been an unqualified success in the Adjutant-General's Department and in the Inspector-General's, and, so far as the army is concerned, in the Quartermaster's and Commissary Departments.

Yet the present head of the Pay Department, the Commissary-General, and the Chief Signal Officer, who have grown gray under the old system, have recently condemned the workings of the four-year details. The Paymaster-General, for instance, finds great difficulty in getting the line officers, of which he has six, to conform to the requirements of his bureau. The chiefs of the other bureaus have not as yet made their complaints specific, but are content to advertise their belief that, before the first four-year detail period is over, "the demonstration of the failure of the system will be conclusive." There can be no doubt that in their minds the wish is father to the thought. The staff and line transfer act dealt a fatal blow to the prestige of the staff, previously the all-important part of the army. As the permanent officers go on the retired list, the disappearance of the staff prestige is very marked, and with it goes that considerable political power which was the ruling influence in army politics until the incumbency of Secretary Root.

It may well be that Paymaster-General Bates's six line officers have had some difficulty in mastering the intricate and often old-fashioned methods for which the Pay Department has long been famous. But, even so, it cannot affect the reform at issue, which has unquestionably worked well in the other departments. It will take a much longer period than two years, and the failure of more than six officers, to impugn the admirable principle which underlies the new system. And if it should really be impossible to simplify the pay methods so as to bring them within the comprehension of the average officer, it would still be feasible to instruct line candidates at Washington, West Point, or a post-graduate school, before turning them over to the complexities of Gen. Bates's red tape.

A more serious consideration is the fact that there seems to be some difficulty in getting officers to accept staff positions. Before the war with Spain, there were hundreds of candidates for every staff position; at present the chances of active service in the line are more attractive. The Ordnance Corps, for instance, needs sixteen lieutenants, and the Signal Corps eleven. But the latter's needs have only just become known, and vacancies in the Quartermaster's Department, the Commissary-General's, the Adjutant-General's, and the Inspector-General's do not go begging. The trouble with the Ordnance Corps is that the work is so extremely technical that by no means every graduate of West Point is fitted for it. Moreover, nine-tenths of the lieutenants of the line are untrained civilians or former volunteers without even a comprehensive knowledge of purely military duties. This was well illustrated by the failure of half the student officers at Fort Leavenworth in their recent mid-year examinations. Every ambitious lieutenant is just at present bent on developing into a line officer, and few have time to give any thought to preparation for more technical work. But these are conditions growing out of the enlargement and reorganization of the army which are certain to pass away, thanks to Secretary Root's barrack and service schools. And as they disappear, the Secretary's wisdom in bringing about the staff and line transfer will be more and more evident.

The discussion, however, has brought out again the need of further staff legislation. The preposterous state of affairs still obtains by which the quartermaster supplies the table at which the soldier eats, the commissary the food which he eats; the ordnance officer the utensils he uses, while the paymaster gives him his clothing allowances. Until this can be done away with, Secretary Root's reforms will not be complete. Last year he introduced a bill consolidating the supply departments into one bureau known as the Quartermaster's Department, subdivided into a supply and construction division, a commissary division, a finance division, and a transportation division. The plan was by no means a perfect one, yet it represented a vast advance over present conditions, under which, as was illustrated every day during the Spanish war, the heads of departments carry on their business without the slightest information as to what is being done in the adjoining offices. The bill was held up, largely by staff influence, and was not pushed during the session just ended because of other important legislation. It is safe to say that Secretary Root will return to the subject with, it is to be hoped, an even more drastic consolidation measure. The only proper system is the navy's, in which the paymasters do all the work of the army quartermasters, commissaries, pay officers, and part of that of the Ordnance Corps.

"RACE SUICIDE" IN FRANCE.

The declining birth-rate, which is now attracting attention here in the case of our educated classes, is in France a much more portentous phenomenon. During some recent periods the annual increase of population has been as small as 35,000. For the last fifty years of the last century the total increase in France was 3,340,000; in Italy it was 8,833,000, in Austria-Hungary and in Great Britain over 14,000,000, and in Germany nearly 21,000,000. In 1900 the deaths in France exceeded the births by 20,330. In Germany the births exceeded the deaths by 795,000; as Moltke said, in this way Germany wins every year a great battle. Were it not for immigration, there would be every year fewer inhabitants in France; there are every

year fewer Frenchmen. There is no excessive mortality; the death-rate, both among adults and among infants, compares favorably with that of other nations. Nor is the marriage-rate, although declining, much below that of neighboring countries. The decrease in population is due simply to the fact that marriages are not fruitful. In one-sixth of the families there are no children; in one-quarter there is but one; in one-fifth there are but two; the average for all is but three.

Is France overpeopled? It has less than 72 inhabitants per square kilometre, while Austria has 78, Germany 98, Italy 110, England 120, and Belgium 206. The price of wheat has fallen regularly for thirty years, so that we cannot regard famine as a cause of depopulation. On the other hand, we cannot accept the theory of M. J. Bertillon, who contends that prosperity changes "prolétaires" into "propriétaires"; for prosperity is greater elsewhere than in France. It may be a cause, but it cannot be the chief cause in France. Neither the poverty of the poor nor the wealth of the rich is a sufficient explanation.

But the reason is not far to seek. M. Henry Clément, in a recent number of the *Réforme Sociale*, shows us clearly enough where to look. In spite of many admirable and beautiful features, French civilization is seriously defective. Considering the paucity of births, we might expect that the lives of young men would be held sacred, but they are sent off to die of malaria in Tonquin and Madagascar. Since more people are wanted in France (where every Frenchman wishes to live and die), nothing could be more imbecile than to pour out treasure in maintaining worthless colonies—colonies which are really ulcers on the body politic. In its international relations, France is absolutely secure. It has no jealous neighbors; all they ask of France is to be let alone. But, in the face of a yearly deficit, with a debt of more than seven—according to some estimates more than eight—billions of dollars, the rulers of France continue to force the peasants into the barracks and to squander their savings in military and naval preparations.

When the average tax per head amounts to 130 francs, when the deposits in the savings banks are falling off and the value of property is declining, there is certainly some excuse for men who hesitate to bring children into the world. If these are many, they must sink to a lower station in society than that of their parents—a possibility which even in this country causes parental shuddering. But the great cause, the permanent and constant cause, as M. Clément shows, is the law regulating the devolution of property. The reformers of 1793 were so eager to break up the great estates of the nobility that they shattered the small holdings of the peasants. As Sir Henry Maine said, they created a system of petty entails, and rendered it impossible to keep property together except when there was but one heir. They destroyed primogeniture and established soligeniture (if the word may be allowed). To compel the partition of all property, real and personal, great and small, at the death of the owner, is obviously in many cases ruinous; and when the property is small and those who succeed to it many, the succession taxes and legal expenses amount to confiscation. Of course, the rural population suffers the most, for actual partition can be generally enforced, and the unity of small holdings is thus destroyed. Where there is but one child, the home may be preserved; when there are several, it is torn to pieces. The evils of this system have been often explained. Edmond About described the situation long ago:

> "The father establishes an industry and dies; everything is sold and partitioned; the house does not survive its master. A son has courage and talent; with his fraction of the paternal capital he founds another house, succeeds, becomes well off, and dies. Another partition, another destruction; everything has to be begun again at fresh expense. Agriculture suffers from this, commerce suffers, common sense blushes at it."

Such a condition is not to be improved by the absurd devices of imposing fines on bachelors and on childless married men; nor is the expedient of paying bounties to large families deserving of attention. Such measures do not go to the root of the matter. Nothing will avail except a reduction of the discouragements to the accumulation of property, and of the restraints on the right of distribution. When Frenchmen can feel that their savings will go to their children, and not be wasted by their Government; and when the right of testamentary disposition is restored, the size of French families will increase. So long as the Government lays a heavy fine on children who are bereaved of their parents, it need not expect that its subjects will multiply. If men are heavily taxed on their earnings and savings, and forbidden to divide them according to their judgment, they will prefer to spend them while they live rather than struggle to provide for posterity. This truth appears plainly enough in France; but it is in the way of being illustrated in the experience of other countries.

SUB-VESUVIAN TOPICS.

POMPEII, March 12, 1903.

Old Luigi has occupied week by week for twenty-two years his little sentry-box on the topmost point of the highest heap of ashes and scoriæ that the excavators have cast up out of Pompeii to the northward. There he sits, and smokes in peace his diminutive pipe of execrable but not cheap tobacco. While the other guards are hurrying through the gaping ruins below him successive groups of drooping travellers, apparently just come from the building of Babel, old Luigi's only duty is to keep a weather eye open for the unduly inquisitive stranger who may want to make his way into the forbidden area of the excavations still in progress, or for the more pertinacious native who advances a hundred plausible reasons for similar transgression from the beaten paths of the adjacent vineyards and orchards. For the troublesome native, Luigi has short words and but scant courtesy. Toward the ignorant foreigner he is more affably disposed, and a pipeful of imported tobacco and a few friendly words open both his heart and his lips.

Luigi has a magnificent view from his high perch. Behind him is the lord of the landscape, Vesuvius. He has been wrapped for an hour in a private mantle of cloud, and that has just lifted to show his great gray shoulders white with unaccustomed snow. Luigi says it will be a hard afternoon for the travellers at the summit. Immediately in front are the roofless, ashen walls of the ruins of the ancient city, sloping down to the very edge of that prehistoric lava-stream that marks the earlier and greater rage of the monarch who visited sudden destruction upon the people that ventured to build upon the skirts of his trailing robe. Beyond, stretches the almost level plain of the Sarno, laid out in rectangular garden patches all the way across toward the rugged, towering heights of Monte Sant' Angelo now capped with the late snows of departing winter. In a sheltered nook half-way up the steep, nestle behind the frowning outpost of a ruined castle the pink and yellow and white houses of the little village of Lettere, whence, just 1,350 years ago, the last king of the Goths marched down to meet defeat at the hands of Narses in the plain below. Further to the left one can just make out the castle of Nocera, where Helena, Manfred's widow, wept her life away in captivity after the lamentable slaughter at Beneventum. At the right, beyond the clustered buildings of Castellamare, the blue Mediterranean glitters out to the twin heights of Capri and the massive dome of Ischia.

Old Luigi lives with his wife and little granddaughter in a single room at Torre Annunziata. "But, Signore," he explains, "it is a very large room, with most elegant furniture, and a truly beautiful kitchen with a stove after the French style. You put in the charcoal, and open a draft, and apply the match, and *ecco!*" And Luigi stretches out both hands wide apart with upturned palms, and lifts shoulders and eyebrows with a smile of illuminating joyousness. "And the grand balcony opens out upon a view incomparable! And about it are set pots of flowers, and in the summer one has the shade of a muscat-vine from which one may pick grapes! And as for the air, figure to yourself! It is veritably a miracle!" For all this luxury Luigi pays a rental of only eight lire a month, and every month he gets from the Government one hundred and twenty lire for his work as *custode* in Pompeii, and from travellers a good sum in addition as gratuities. Eighteen years hence, when he has served forty years, he can retire on full salary. It is, as he says, a good post.

Luigi has, like so many Italians, an artist's eye. But he busies himself not merely with watching the familiar and ever beautiful panorama before him. He meditates, as he sits up there alone, on the serious things of life. One cannot survey Pompeii for twenty-two long years and still think only of the day. "Does it not appear to you, Signore," he asked suddenly the other morning, "that these men of Pompeii were much like the men of the world today—and indeed that all men, all over the world, are made mostly of the same meat? And that is why they are trying in these days to make wars cease? Of a truth, what do wars mean to our poor people? They mean just the pouring of so much blood, and the spending of so many *quattrini*, and all just on account of the caprices of the great. They make their advantage out of it, but the poor people suffer. There was our affair in Massowah—just the caprice of that Sicilian! ["Crispi?" I inquired. "Già."] He said England had done some great things in Africa, and Germany had done some great things in Africa, and now we must. But what happened? Just more blood and more money to be spent. And all because Crispi saw the way to put money in his sack." "But," I ventured timidly, "perhaps Crispi really believed that it would be a good business venture for Italy." "No, no," he retorted (and here, in his eagerness, he dropped out of his polite Italian into dialect), "don't you believe it! It was to feather his own nest. Everybody knows it. Look at him! What was he? Just a commonplace poor lawyer, without a soldo to his name. So he turns to politics for a living, and finally gets himself elected a Deputy to Parliament. And then he manages the trick, and becomes a Minister, and then the head of the Ministry. And then he brings on a war, and fills his own pockets, and goes home rich! *Ec'!* And he said the poor Africans needed civilizing. [I couldn't help thinking of the Philippines!] What was there there? Nothing but sand! And why not save the blood, and spend the money in schools and in civilizing a little bit the people of Calabria? There they need civilizing more than in Africa! *Ec'!*" And Luigi halted for some meditative puffs.

The condition of the people in Calabria is indeed unspeakable—from all reports quite as bad as in the Middle Ages, if not worse. In almost every point of economic and social progress southern Italy, including the old Bourbon kingdom, stands far behind northern Italy, but Calabria is as far below the province of Naples as hell below purgatory. The Italians themselves shake their heads over it, but apparently the problem is too great for the Government to face. Every one has heard of the notorious southern brigand Musolino, who was finally rounded up. Only yesterday a well-known captain of the Royal Carbineers, who has recently achieved a reputation by detective service against other members of Musolino's band, was testifying on the witness-stand. His precise words are enough to give some notion of the conditions that prevail in parts at least of the interior of Calabria.

"In all my service, in Sicily, in Sardinia, in Calabria itself, I have never seen so wretched a region as this where I have recently been. There are no roads, no means of communication with the outer world, no resources of any kind; nothing but the most debasing poverty. There are human beings who herd with their cattle, in roofless pens, muddy and pestilent. The bread they eat is made of vetches. They never taste meat unless they can manage to steal a bit. The utmost that a workman can earn in a day is forty centesimi (eight cents). Civilization has not yet reached those regions. Life is in its primitive stage, and morality as little developed. When I went to one place on duty I found they had no cemetery at all. The bodies of their dead they wrapped in a sheet and threw into the cellar of an old ruined church—a sort of a fleshpit of rottenness—where the hogs used to go to feed on the corpses. It is a torture for officials to serve in such a region, and it is well known that a brigadier of Royal Carbineers committed suicide because he had been assigned to duty there."

There is indeed much poverty in southern Italy, especially in the towns, but in general nothing like such horrors as have just been mentioned. As in ancient times, people have drifted into the towns, and it is difficult to devise any scheme for settling them elsewhere. In our little neighboring city of Torre Annunziata, for example, there are said to be many hundreds of men (some say thousands) absolutely unable to find a stroke of work to do. And Italy is notoriously a prolific country. Most of these men have large families of small children. "How do they manage to live?" I inquired of a native. "Oh, simply and solely on charity, on the little sums that their children can beg for them. And it is surprising on how small a sum they can manage to subsist." And so southern Italy is raising up a generation of beggars. At present, however, things are improving a trifle. Southern Italy lags about fifty years behind Piedmont and Lombardy, but even here one begins to see more and more the chimneys of factories, unlovely to the eye of the sightseer, but pleasing to that of the philanthropist, and so the problem of work for the unemployed in the towns is gradually being solved.

In the country, the condition of the peasants is relatively better. They are a hard-working class. Men, women, and children of a family work together on their very small holdings of land, and almost all the work appears to be done by hand, with primitive but effective tools, except the carrying of produce to market. Then the sturdy little donkeys and almost equally diminutive horses are pressed into service. Frequently the donkey and the family cow are harnessed together. I have seen no ploughs in use short of the region of the Silarus, in the neighborhood of ancient Pæstum, where the other day yokes of sturdy white cattle were dragging through the rich soil wooden ploughs not very different in shape from those in use two thousand years ago. It was at Pæstum also that I saw, a few years ago, a lofty circular threshing-floor spread with sheaves from which the farmer was beating the grain by driving a yoke of muzzled cattle round and round upon it. And a short distance away his son was winnowing the grain by throwing it up into the air with a big wooden shovel for the wind to blow the chaff away. Other remnants of ancient methods prevail throughout the entire countryside, even here in the Sarno valley. Women still teach their daughters to card and spin with distaff and whirling spindle the threads of cotton, flax, or wool, precisely as their forbears did so many generations ago. And then they are woven at home on a wooden loom of antique pattern but surprising effectiveness into fabrics that appeal for fineness and regularity of texture even to my untutored masculine eye, while they have filled my Penelope with covetous admiration.

This Sarno valley is an unusually favored garden spot, because of the canalization of the river, effected some fifty years ago throughout its lower course, which has made it possible to distribute an abundance of water for purposes of irrigation from canals at three different levels. Thus the whole region is richly watered, and, as in the sandy plains of southwestern America, so here, nothing but water is necessary to make these deep strata of Vesuvian ashes wonderfully fertile. Indeed, a freshly thrown-up heap of débris from excavations will next season produce as fine a crop of potatoes as if it had always been addicted to an agricultural life.

The country people talk much of excavations in search of valuable antiquities, but do little in that direction. The risks are too great. They must work their land intensively in order to live, and a good cabbage patch is a more valuable asset than a precarious chance for treasure-trove, especially, also, as the holdings are so small that any part devoted to excavation would surely be a very considerable proportion of the entire farm. But every peasant appears to cherish a private hope that the Madonna may some day be as good to him as to the Signori who have now and then made more out of chance finds than out of a century of straight farming. Great interest was excited, some few years ago, among peasants as among archæologists, by the lucky discovery made in a cistern of a *villa rustica* in the territory of Bosco Reale, only a mile or so from Pompeii. There was found the skeleton of a man who had taken refuge in that place of fancied security from the fatal shower of ashes. He had with him a lot of gold jewelry, over a thousand gold coins, and a magnificent table service of wrought silver, of more than a hundred pieces. Best of all, to the untutored mind of the peasant, was the success that the discoverer had in bribing the Government inspector, and concealing the knowledge of his find till he could spirit it out of the country. The paternal Government of Italy has a way of granting no permission to excavate for antiquities, even upon one's own land, without demanding a specified share of the finds; and as to the rest, it retains the right to decline to purchase them itself, while forbidding the owner to sell to any other customer. The result is, that the stringent law against the exportation of antiquities is constantly evaded by means of bribery.

The discoverer of the treasure of Bosco Reale enriched himself by disposing thus of his plunder, which now reposes in the Museum of the Louvre. Every landowner in this vicinity would like to emulate his example. Indeed, the last discovery of similar sort is even yet the subject of litigation between the Government and the stubborn owner. A waterside tavern was partly excavated some months ago, close by the road that now runs from Torre Annunziata to Castellamare by the little church of S. Antonio, and not far south of the church. In this inn a considerable number of fugitives from the eruption had taken refuge, and, unable, like the elder Pliny, to find escape by sea, had perished there. Some of them were carrying with them, or wearing, their most valuable possessions—among them a

man with gold chain, bracelet, and rings, whom an Italian archæologist, Signor Canizzaro, forthwith identified by some mysterious mediumistic process as the elder Pliny himself! Worse than that, he heralded his discovery to the learned world. To say nothing about the simple fact that we are fully and authentically informed by his nephew concerning the circumstances of Pliny's death away the other side of the Sarno, and concerning the rescue of his body the day after the eruption ceased, it was amusing to have Signor Canizzaro identify as Pliny the skeleton of a man all tricked out with jewelry, when Pliny himself in his 'Natural History' satirizes unmercifully the wearing of such trinkets by members of the male sex. But the jewelry is now safely stored away, and further excavations suspended until the owner can have his legal rights in the premises established. Of certain other private excavations in the neighborhood of Bosco Reale it is yet too early to speak.

The sociologist as well as the archæologist finds his interest in this neighborhood at present. There is a most vigorous discussion going on at Naples concerning the "municipalization of bread"—that is, the proposal to establish bakeshops under the management of the municipality for the manufacture and sale of bread, on which the poor chiefly depend for food. Such socialistic experiments are by no means unknown in Italy, though it is in Sicily, at Catania, that the most successful effort of this sort has been carried through. Even though the statement of the prosindaco (acting Mayor) of that city, that the price of bread to the consumer has thus been reduced 30 per cent. and its quality much improved, is somewhat misleading, because certain other elements have contributed to that result, there seems to be no reason to doubt that a substantial gain has been attained in the amelioration of the condition of the poor. At Naples there has recently been a decided reduction in the price of bread, due partly to a reduction of the tax on flour, and partly, perhaps, to the fear among private bakers that high prices might bring about the realization of such municipal competition as they evidently fear. Up to 1902, bread of ordinary quality sold in Naples at 38 centesimi the kilogramme; it is now selling at 32, but it is claimed that this reduction is largely nominal, being balanced by scant weight and adulteration of flour. The friends of the municipalization of bread at Naples urge that the quality can be improved and the price lowered by the intervention of the commune in the business, and that, as bread is one of the chief necessaries of life, the community ought to undertake to furnish it at the cost of production. The opponents of the scheme plead the stock arguments—that private enterprise and competition might better be stimulated than suppressed; that it is doubtful whether the city could produce bread as cheaply or as well as private firms; that opportunity would be opened for all sorts of political jobbery, and the city might wake up to find itself saddled with heavy debt, and so forth. It is curious to notice that not much stress seems to be laid by the opposition upon the argument that the state should not, on general principles, undertake any such business schemes at all. The socialistic principle seems to be pretty generally admitted.

The outcome of the discussion is still uncertain. The municipal Giunta, with the Mayor at its head, presented to the city Council a report that was distinctly unfavorable in tone, though it apparently tried to avoid bitterness of controversy, and the Council has finally ordered the appointment of a special commission to study the subject in all its bearings, and report its findings and recommendations to the Council within two months.

As I write these last words, Vesuvius is firing minute-guns of heavy artillery, and throwing up, hundreds of feet into the air, brilliantly gorgeous Roman-candle-bursts of fire, mixed with white-hot stones that fall far down the mountain side, and glitter against its dark flanks for some time after they have reached their final resting place. I have seldom seen a more imposing spectacle.

E. T. M.

Correspondence.

AN OPEN LETTER TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
March 25, 1903.

DEAR SIR: The interest you showed in certain remarks of mine, encourages me to advocate the establishment of an Academy of Sciences in connection with the Carnegie Foundation. Of course, the word "sciences" is intended in the broadest sense. I mean an academy of natural sciences, philosophy, and letters. Let me say at once that the word "academy" need not appear in the matter at all. I suggest that the Carnegie Foundation shall gather about itself a body of men, distinguished in all forms of learned research, under the collective name, "Members of the Carnegie Institution."

What shall be the function of these men? Obviously, the direct action of such a body is in the main two-fold: to carry on the highest researches, and to advise, guide, and help others to carry on the same.

As regards the first point, even the most distinguished and unswerving investigators will find their hands strengthened by working coöperatively under the direct auspices, and with the financial support, of a great and strong foundation.

As regards the second point, it seems to me to lead towards a crying need of the Foundation. That great scientific plans of almost infinite variety cannot be fathered by such an institution without advice, is too clear to need pointing out. It seems to me hardly less evident that such advice cannot in the long run be asked from and given by private persons in their capacity as experts in a given subject. Publicity, criticism, and final agreement of the best opinions are as essential to the best choice of subjects for learned research as they are for the establishment of laws or the government of public bodies.

Restricting myself to the subjects of which I know most, there are sure to come requests for archæological expeditions, excavations, expensive facsimile reproductions of manuscripts, great critical editions of important texts, publications of learned lexical thesauruses, compilations of exhaustive bibliographies, and other undertakings of a similar sort. *Need I point out that it will be the glorious prerogative of the Carnegie Foundation to forward such undertakings?* And need I point out that it will be a lame and halting method to subject proposals of this sort to the scrutiny of the one or the other scholar, to stand or fall according to his individual, sometimes very personal, sympathies and inclinations? On the other hand, if proposals of this sort are brought before the Members of the Institution, I cannot easily conceive how they may fail to be judged on their just merits.

You are aware that quite recently the leading learned academies of Europe have allied themselves into a single body, in order that larger projects which cannot be carried out by a single member of this body may be dealt with fruitfully by all of them together. I am well informed, and I betray no secret in stating, that this union of European academies looks forward hopefully to the time when it may strengthen itself still further by an alliance with an *endowed* representative American body of this same sort. In one form or another the coöperation of the Carnegie Foundation with the largest and most significant undertakings of the allied academies will be, I venture to say, unavoidable. Or I should rather say, that it will be welcomed by the care-takers of the Carnegie Foundation as one of the best opportunities for fruitful action.

Let me illustrate this by a single concrete case. The united academies have sanctioned the project of a critical edition of the text of the great Hindu Epic, the Mahābhārata—it is a crying need of Indic science. I hope that in any case the Carnegie Institution will not withhold its aid, but such aid will come most effectively, most smoothly, and in justest proportion from the Carnegie Institution as a member of this union. What is more important, the Carnegie Institution will have occasion in its turn to request the coöperation of the European academies for its own plans.

There is at the present time in the University of Upsala, in Sweden, a manuscript on purple parchment, written in silver and golden letters. It is the most priceless manuscript in the world, the silver codex of Upsala, the main source of the Gothic Bible and the Gothic language. I hope to see this manuscript reproduced so that every Germanic seminary and every student of German antiquity may handle a perfect facsimile of the original. I have broached the matter to distinguished Germanic scholars; their response was invariably enthusiastic. The coöperation of the Swedish Academy, and, further, that of the united academies, is indispensable for this project. May we not some day desire in this matter the initiative of the Carnegie Institution as well as its financial support, to the special glory of American scholarship and American enterprise? Again, the smoothest way and the surest warranty of such an achievement lie with the Carnegie Institution as a member of this great federation of science.

Clearly then, the Carnegie Institution is designed to become the logical representative of America in the greater coöperative enterprises of the scientific world: it is in this matter a national representative and a national institution. It is hardly necessary to point out that it is even more a

national institution in its relation to the scholars and learned institutions of the United States themselves.

Here, I conceive, lies its greatest opportunity. When the Carnegie Institution shall have gathered about itself an organized body of distinguished scholars, it will be in the position to extend its financial aid in the most fruitful way. But, in addition to that and beyond that, it will also have created a body, membership in which will be prized as one of the highest distinctions which an American scholar may reach. Such a body will be a beacon light to guide and cheer onward the successive generations of scholars, so that they may be less tempted to lag by the way, or to be lured from the narrow and steep road that leads to scientific eminence.

This statement implies that the road which the American scholar travels towards the scientific heights is not at the present time too abundantly illumined by such lights. I think that it may be granted that this is so; that the measure of high scientific reward in the career of an American scholar is scanty; that the hope of membership sooner or later in the Carnegie Institution will go far to encourage high effort; and that this ideal reward will promote the highest endeavor, no less than the direct financial subsidies which are the more immediate purposes of the Institution.

I do not believe that there is any insurmountable or even serious difficulty in the way of this plan. The selection, organization, and propagation of the Members of the Carnegie Institution will need to be elaborated with care. The usual human frailties will tack themselves close on to the heels of the very best undertakings; they will not be wanting here. You and your associates will deal with them patiently and wisely. I would make a single definite suggestion as to ways and means: the members of the Institution should be recompensed for their services, either by a modest fixed income, or by regular stipends for their services as members of the Institution and attendants upon its meetings. This will impart to the undertaking an invaluable element of reality and steadiness; it will strengthen the sense of responsibility on the part of the choosers and the chosen.

The suggestion which I have the honor of making to you comes from one whose single aim it has been to be counted an American scholar and investigator. I am reasonably certain that these words voice a desire of the great body of American scholars and investigators.

Very truly yours,

MAURICE BLOOMFIELD.

President DANIEL C. GILMAN, LL.D.

MONEY AND HUMAN RIGHTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of March 26, referring to Senator Money's speech, you say, in effect, that he does not object to the enlistment of negroes in the army; that he is willing to have the negro fight for a flag that will not protect him. I think that this construction of the Senator's remarks is hardly fair. The *Congressional Record* (vol. 37, p. 146) states that he said: "Individually, I did and do object to any negro being in the army of the United States," which seems quite explicit.

I am, sir, most sincerely yours,

JOHANN HEILIG.

CHICAGO, March 3, 1903.

[*Summa injuria, summum jus.* We wrote in dependence on the Associated Press dispatch, which stated that the speaker said he "had no particular objection" to the enlistment of negroes. As reported in the *Record*, his reply to Senator Foraker's inquiry began thus: "I do not know that I ever heard any objection to a negro enlisting in the army, but there would be objection to his serving as an officer." And the passage cited by our correspondent is continued in these terms: "I think, in other words, Mr. President, that this is a white man's country and a white man's government. It was established by white men for white men. It was carved out of the wilderness and conquered from the Indians, not for the African, but for the white man." This is not new Southern doctrine, but, as the colored (not African, but American) population is now at its height in millions, so wholesale a reading of a people out of its birthright was never witnessed in the history of mankind.—ED. NATION.]

CHAUCER, THE PRIORESS, AND PROFESSOR CHILD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Friends of Chaucer will be interested in the appearance of a new comedy in verse called "The Canterbury Pilgrims," in which (we are told by the publishers) Chaucer is to appear "in the rôle of a lover of the Prioress whose motto *Amor vincit omnia* gave Chaucer opportunity to throw a spice of mischief into the picture he drew of the gentle little lady." It is interesting to find this suspicion of mischief persisting in this way, when it has long been known that Chaucer was describing a purely conventional ornament of the period, such as should have excited no uncharitable comment on the part of any but the most depraved Canterbury pilgrim.

For some of us, however, the matter is worthy of mention because it suggests a trifling but characteristic reminiscence of the late Professor Child, America's most distinguished Chaucer scholar. It is well known that Professor Child's incidental comments on questions of morals and manners formed no small part of the delights of his teaching; and he never hesitated to condemn a fault even in a favorite poet. Many of his pupils must recall his unflinching condemnation of Chaucer himself for the sly defence of plain speaking on the ground that

"Crist spak him-self ful brode in holy writ."

"A most unwarranted reference!" Professor Child would exclaim indignantly. "No defence at all, and quite unworthy of Chaucer." But on the other hand he was as ready to be indignant at those who accused the poet unjustly. In the very last year that he read the Prologue with a class at Harvard, the point was raised that some thought Chaucer meant by the "Amor vincit omnia" to insinuate that the Prioress was not as completely absorbed in heavenly things as was meet for a lady of her profession. The present writer recalls with vividness the look of the venerable teacher as he raised his head energetically from his desk, saying (with evident sincerity, yet by no means without appreciation of the humor of the question): "An outrageous suggestion! Chaucer never would have done such a thing, and there's not the slightest reason for thinking of it." It is pleasant to imagine Professor Child's comment on the imputation in the play which has given excuse for this bit of reminiscence.

R. M. A.

LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY, March 24, 1903.

PALGRAVE'S GOLDEN TREASURY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "F. M." is in error in asserting that the figures in the "Index of Writers" in the 1898 edition of Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury' have no relation to the book. The numbers which follow each writer's name in this index are the serial numbers given to the poems in the collection. Thus, "ALEXANDER, William (1580-1640), 29," the first entry, refers to the poem numbered in the text XXIX.

But while the book is under discussion, it may not be out of place to refer to certain other pitfalls which it presents, and against which the reader is rarely warned. Many of the titles are of Palgrave's own contrivance, especially those given to songs extracted from plays and to sonnets taken from sonnet sequences. The reader is thus left to believe that Shakspere named his sonnet cix. "The Unchangeable" (p. 11), or that Sidney entitled "Astrophel and Stella," 84, "Via Amoris," (p. 9). Again, some of the pieces are only fragments from larger works, the extreme example being "The Song of David," by Christopher Smart (p. 164), where three stanzas are selected from a poem containing eighty-six. In this case, it is true, a hint is given to the reader in a note at the end of the book. Finally, there are silent changes in the words of the poems themselves. Lodge's poem, "Rosalind's Description," is given on pp. 12-13 with the title "Rosaline," and with several arbitrary changes in the text, which may be discovered by comparison with the same poem as printed in any modern edition of "Rosalind," from the Hunterian Club facsimile to the reprint in Cassell's "National Library," while the one change that is emphatically called for, the substitution of "empyreal" for "imperial" in line 2, indispensable to any understanding of the meaning, happens not to have been made.

The 'Golden Treasury' has become a classic—one would not wish to see it in any way altered from the form which Palgrave has given to it; but would it not be well for some future edition to make perfectly clear to the reader in what relation, apart from modernizations of spelling and punctuation, its texts stand to their originals?

W. STRUNK, JR.

ITHACA, N. Y., March 31, 1903.

"LIBRARIES" AND THEIR METHODS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I find that I am being used by unscrupulous publishers as a sort of editorial

abstraction, and I wish publicly to protest.

A few years ago I was asked by the late Charles Dudley Warner to help him on "The Library of the World's Best Literature." I believe that such compilations may be very useful. I did my work there and was paid for it. A little later I was asked by Mr. Walter Jackson to edit another "Library of Literature," which was to be published by Messrs. Merrill & Baker of New York. I laid out a plan combining the topical and chronological arrangement of the selections; this was accepted by the publishers, and the compilation on the lines indicated was carefully and effectively made, mainly by Miss Ticknor and Mr. Forrest Morgan. The title-page assigned credit for "Introductions" by Donald G. Mitchell and Andrew Lang, but those gentlemen had absolutely no editorial direction. We were treated courteously and generously by the publishers; it was a legitimate piece of editorial work, and not to be ashamed of.

Some time afterward an attempt was made to increase the sale of this "Library." I need not go into particulars, for I know nothing of the circumstances or even the promulgators of the scheme. It was announced, however, that Richard Garnett of the British Museum, Léon Vallée of the Bibliothèque Nationale, and Alois Brandl of the German National Library were the sponsors for this new compilation of literature, and Dr. Garnett was credited with having originated the topical-chronological arrangement of the "Library." I immediately wrote to Dr. Garnett, asking him what authority the selling agents had for thus using his name. He wrote me a most courteous reply, entirely disclaiming the unwelcome distinction. Mr. Andrew Lang also repudiated any editorial connnection with the "Library." The new edition so elaborately advertised seems to have been practically the same compilation as that originally published, with possibly the addition of a few illustrations.

I have the honor of being President of "The Bibliophile Society," a private organization consisting of five hundred booklovers. We have published for private distribution among our members a nine-volume edition of the Odes and Epodes of Horace. We have in hand a reprint and partial reproduction of Major André's Diary, which a generous member of the Society, having purchased from Earl Gray at a cost of £1,200, has placed at our disposal. The mercenary commercial spirit is entirely wanting to our Society. There are no yearly dues, and the officers receive no salaries. The publications are offered to the members at cost. They are not even obliged to subscribe. Needless to say, the Society has had and is having remarkable success, as would be recognized if any one saw the list of members.

The publishers of this "International Library" now insolently seized the name of the "Bibliophile Society," and, in order to throw dust in people's eyes, claimed that I was one of their directors! It has caused me no end of trouble. No attention has been paid to my letters of protest, and I find that my only recourse is to apply for an injunction, an expensive protest.

This morning I receive a letter from Dr. Henry P. Bowditch, asking if I approve of the method of securing support for "the latest and most important publication" of "The International Library, Classics and Rare Manuscript Society," which had just been deluging him with circulars. I find that here again I figure among the Board of Editors which instructs the American Secretary, C. T. Brainard of No. 11 East Sixteenth Street, New York, "to secure a few individual testimonials," and offers Dr. Bowditch "a complimentary membership in this society."

As I said before, I am not at all ashamed of the plan which I originated for the compilation of the "International Library" or of its contents. For those who have little time for reading, such compilations are useful and instructive. But I confess to a feeling of indignation at the unauthorized use of my name, as having had any individual or collective part in any scheme for selling this or any other "Library." I belong to no editorial board (although I did last summer serve for a time with Mr. T. B. Aldrich, Dr. Van Dyke, and Dr. Mabie in revising "The Young Folks' Library"), and I sincerely hope that the many persons who have been (as I know to my sorrow) annoyed by the claims of these anonymous agents of the "International Library," will accept this disclaimer as final and conclusive.

NATHAN HASKELL DOLE.

"HEDGECOTE," GLEN ROAD, BOSTON, MASS., April 6, 1903.

"BLIZZARD," "JAYHAWKER," "UNCLE SAM."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I ask, through your columns, for information in regard to the above terms?

In the *Virginia Literary Museum* of December 16, 1829, will be found the following: "*Blizzard.* 'A violent blow'—perhaps from *Blitz*, [Germ.] lightning. *Kentucky*" (I. 418). In 1834 Davy Crockett wrote: "I started down the edge of the river low grounds, giving out the pursuit of my elks, and hadn't gone hardly any distance at all, before I saw two more bucks, very large fellows, too. I took a blizzard at one of them, and up he tumbled. The other ran off a few jumps and stop'd; and stood there till I had loaded again, and fired at him" ('Narrative,' p. 152). In 1835 Crockett again used the word (in his 'Tour,' p. 16), but in a sense which was misunderstood by Bartlett, and which has proved a puzzle to lexicographers. An examination of the entire passage (too long to give here), and a comparison with the extract just quoted, show that in 1835 the word was employed figuratively as meaning a sort of extinguisher, a "squelcher."

No instance of *blizzard* has been recorded between 1835 and 1880, but the word is said to have appeared in its now familiar sense in a Dakota newspaper in 1867. Prof. Cleveland Abbe calls my attention to the first use of the word in the *Monthly Weather Review* for December, 1876, as follows: "The very severe storms known in local parlance as 'blizzards' were reported on the 8th as prevailing in Iowa and Wisconsin, where temperatures of —15° and —20° prevailed, with violent northwest winds and much drifting snow" (p. 424). It may be added that in the sixties and seventies of the last century what we now call blizzards were on the plains termed *northers*—a word which apparently originated in Texas, where (as applied to a north wind) it is found as early as 1838. I should welcome examples of *blizzard* in any sense previous to 1880.

The noun *Jayhawk* is apparently not recognized in the dictionaries, while the earliest recorded certain example of *Jayhawker* is 1861, and of the verb *Jayhawk*, 1866. The words, however, were used in Kansas as early as November or December, 1858, at which time they were applied to James Montgomery and his men, who, in retaliation for the atrocities committed on Free-State settlers by the "border ruffians," raided the pro-slavery settlers and their abettors from Missouri. Examples of the terms before 1859 are desired. Statements are current as to the existence of the terms in California, Texas, and Australia previous to their appearance in Kansas in 1858; but such statements have yet to be substantiated.

The story connecting our familiar *Uncle Sam* with an obscure citizen of Troy, N. Y., named Samuel Wilson, who died in 1854, was given in 1842 by J. Frost in his 'Book of the Navy' (pp. 297, 298). Frost undoubtedly got the story from some newspaper. As for *Uncle Sam* itself, the term first found its way into a book in 1816, but had already run a career in the papers for three years —from October, 1813. Curiously enough, the sobriquet seems to have been avoided by the "war-hawks," as those who favored the war with England were called by their political opponents. I am anxious to obtain an earlier allusion to the Wilson story than 1842, and examples of *Uncle Sam* before 1814. ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, March 28, 1903.

ORANGE EATING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While all the ways of eating oranges are pleasant, my most favored way is to eat the whole orange except (sometimes) the seeds. In this way the delicious rind, the juices, the pulp combining to make the fruit, are all made food, easily digested, at least by yours truly, G. W. T.

Notes.

Six of the seven volumes of Mr. J. S. Farmer's dictionary entitled 'Slang and its Analogues' have now been issued, and concurrently with the seventh will be issued a revision of volume one, which the editor frankly pronounces inferior to the subsequent volumes. This is not obligatory on subscribers to the entire work. Mr. Farmer's address is No. 18 Bury Street, London, W. C.

We read in the current Proceedings of the New England Historic Genealogical Society of Boston that Mr. J. Henry Lea, who is in a sense Mr. H. F. Waters's successor abroad, is preparing for publication through the Society a volume of abstracts of the wills that are registered in the Prerogative Court of Canterbury. It begins with 1620. The Society has been urged to petition Congress to print, for the sake of the genealogical details involved, the identifying papers of the Revolutionary pensioners.

Fred Lewis Pattee is editing for the

Princeton Historical Association, in a limited edition of 1,250 copies, 'The Poems of Philip Freneau, Poet of the American Revolution,' in three volumes; the first now ready, and to be had at the University Library. There has been no collection made since Duyckinck's in 1865, and that was not exhaustive. Mr. Pattee essays a chronological arrangement, which "is virtually an autobiography, and furnishes a commentary upon the history of a highly important era." Some of the matter is inedited.

Longmans, Green, & Co., in connection with George Allen, London, will shortly begin the issue of Ruskin's Works in 32 volumes, not to be had singly, and limited to 2,000 copies for Great Britain and America, printed from type. Paper and letterpress will be of the first quality. The rate of publication will be monthly. Much unpublished MS., including letters, will be incorporated in the text, which will be edited, with introductions, by Mr. E. T. Cook, in collaboration with Mr. Wedderburn, one of Ruskin's literary executors.

Charles Scribner's Sons will bring out directly Henri Cordier's revision of Yule's translation of 'The Book of Sir Marco Polo,' in the light of recent discoveries.

'Two Centuries of American Costume in America,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle, is in the press of Macmillan Co.

G. P. Putnam's Sons are about to publish 'The South American Republics,' by Thomas C. Davidson; 'Danish Life,' by J. Brochner; and 'Divinity and Man,' by W. K. Roberts.

Thomas Whittaker will have the American market for a new work on the history of the Nonjurors, by Canon Overton of Lincoln.

A. Wessels Co. announce 'A History and Description of English Porcelain,' by William Burton, and 'The Riviera,' by Hugh Macmillan.

A. E. Gallatin's monograph on Aubrey Beardsley will appear directly through Godfrey A. S. Wieners, New York. Two portraits and examples of the artist's work will accompany a catalogue of it and a bibliography of Beardsley criticism.

McClure, Phillips & Co. have nearly ready 'Deep Sea Vagabonds,' by Albert Sonnichsen.

In a time of haste it is half-refreshing to witness deliberation even in the reprint of a classic. Sir Arthur Helps's 'Spanish Conquest in America,' introduced and annotated by M. Oppenheim, and published by John Lane, began to appear in 1900; the second volume bore date of 1902, and now we have the third, with one more to come. So the original appeared in 1855, 1857, 1861. The editor's part, though unpedantic as respects the notes, has been painstaking and scholarly, but the conspicuous enrichment of the work has been in the maps superadded to those of Helps. In the present volume these number seven, two from Wytfliet (1597), one of the Ptolemy of 1562, one from Lorenzana's 'Historia de Nueva España' (1541), etc. At the front is a facsimile of Herman Moll's North America, 1710-12, in which the peninsula of Lower California shows as an island. The letterpress of this edition, though compact, is clear, and the enterprise is in all ways justified.

There is no reason, except usage, why the English Bible should not be reproduced and labelled among the admirable "Tudor Translations" of David Nutt. Few know that of the Authorized Version of 1611 there were two editions showing very extensive variations, one of the least of which has been made a sign of bibliographic distinction. In the last line of Ruth iii., 15, "he went into the city" reads one of the black-letter folios; and "she went," etc., the other and presumably later impression. Mr. Nutt has chosen for his series the "He Bible," and has shown a commendable independence in the reprint. The division into verses has been abandoned in favor of rational paragraphing without numbers; poetry is given in verse type; the chapter headings are transferred to the margin, whose original references are dropped, while its English renderings of Hebrew names are relegated to footnotes; interpolated words are not distinguished by italic type. The old orthography is retained. This is a laudable reconciliation of antiquarianism with modern needs and convenience. Volume one ends with Joshua.

A year ago we made mention of the 'Letters of Mlle. de Lespinasse' in Miss Wormeley's translation for the Versailles Historical Series of Hardy, Pratt & Co., Boston. These publishers, taking advantage of Mrs. Humphry Ward's exploiting the Letters for her latest novel, have just brought them out afresh in a thin volume of 342 pages. The reflected interest is thus likely to give them a far wider audience than they appealed to in more expensive dress.

An entertaining and not unprofitable book is 'The Witchery of Sleep' (New York: Ostermoor & Co.), in which Willard Moyer has collected an anthology of his subject, together with a discussion of his own. He is especially enthusiastic on the importance of a certain kind of mattress. His disproportionate zeal on this point appears strange until one notes the name of the publishers. The illustrations of famous beds and sleeping places deserve commendation. In addition to the poetical extracts from eminent authors, the volume includes "A Symposium of Sleep," being "a collection of sleep thoughts and expressions especially contributed." Mr. Chauncey M. Depew declares that "the man who can have a natural slumber every night the year round, of eight hours, can move the world." The opinion of George H. Daniels, chronicled in the margin as "N. Y. C. R. R. views," is: "Sleep, next to waking, I think the most wonderful thing in life." The absence of any testimonial to sleep from the Pullman Car Company indicates an unpardonable ingratitude.

Mr. John Bigelow's 'The Mystery of Sleep' (Harper & Bros.) is a book of a very different class. The second edition, now issued, is a revision and expansion of a publication of 1896 to such an extent as to make practically a new book of it. The writer's object is to expose some "popular delusions," including the belief that sleep is at most a periodical provision for the reparation of physical waste. He maintains that it is rather a suspension of our consciousness, temporarily interrupting our relations with the phenomenal world, and sheltering us from its distractions and fascinations, so that spiritual growth and development may be possible. His position is fairly expressed by the motto he takes from Iamblichus: "The night-time of the body is the daytime of the soul." Mr. Bigelow's arguments will not appeal to most readers as convincing, as far as his main thesis is concerned, but there is much in them to provoke wholesome thought. His remarks on the connection between sleep and the loss of mental balance will also repay attention.

Many an educational moral may be pointed from the 'Republic' of Plato, and no theory of primary education can afford to ignore it. In his 'Theory of Education in Plato's Republic' (Macmillan), Mr. J. E. Adamson, principal of the Normal School, Pretoria, makes a somewhat close application of Plato's theories to the aims and methods of primary and secondary education. The difficulty of gauging the value of Plato's educational curriculum for present needs arises chiefly from the fact that Plato never envisaged an educational process that should cease in the early twenties and be crowned with the final sanction of a degree certificate. For him the whole of life was an education, to be adjusted and pursued on certain principles that to us seem narrow enough because we are even farther from his Utopia than were the Athenians themselves. Mr. Adamson could add nothing in the way of illustration and exposition to Nettleship's essay on this subject in 'Hellenica,' which is frequently quoted in this little volume, though the more detailed commentary in Nettleship's 'Lectures' is not mentioned. Mr. Adamson's effort "to show how Platonic ideas may illuminate modern educational problems" is intended for primary and secondary school teachers, and fulfils its purpose well enough. In tracing the "thought-ancestry" of Plato, he should have mentioned the influence of Heraclitus, which, though it was by way of reaction, is undoubted.

Whether the reader of 'Lettering in Ornament: An Enquiry into the Decorative Use of Lettering, Past, Present, and Possible,' by Lewis F. Day (London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners), cares for "lettering" or not, will be largely a matter of his personal needs in the past, as well as of his personal predilections. The probabilities are that this book will be used chiefly by the engravers and the architects' draughtsmen, and, indeed, that it is meant for them. It deals with European letters only, with "The Printed Page" in one chapter and with "The Written Page" in another; with monumental inscriptions, with conjoined letters, with monograms and cyphers; and in this way covers a very large part of the field of inquiry. Moreover, it appears that the author is in sympathy with the more delicate aspects of his subject, and speaks with a real enthusiasm of the charm of variety and of unexpectedness in the design possible to the utilitarian arrangement of letters. There are a great many illustrations in this book, some of them recording admirable pieces of old work; and not mere rows of letters, either, but pieces of architecture, majolica plates, jewels and implements, panels of carved wood, key-bows, painted tiles, any decorative art with which letters are skilfully combined; and some of those wonderful, engraved plates of the sixteenth century with the twining and interlaced scrolls such as were invented by Hans Sebald Beham and Israel Van Meckenen.

Professor de Sumichrast's translation of Théophile Gautier is now complete with four concluding volumes, of which the most

important contain the celebrated essays on Hugo and Baudelaire, and a version of 'Émaux et Camées,' by Mrs Agnes Lee. This last task, much the most trying in the whole work, it would be unfair to judge by any other test than that admitted by the translator, whose design is merely that of a fairly literal but occasionally free rendering, without any serious attempt at reproducing the facet-like glitter of Gautier's inimitable line. Of the editorial essays we may note the introduction to 'Jack and Jill' (Jean et Jeannette), which contains an interesting comparative study of the two comedies of Marivaux and Goldsmith that furnished the substance of the later tale.

That useful series, "Monographs on Artists" (Lemcke & Buechner), reaches its seventh number with J. Lohse's translation of Adolf Rosenberg's 'Leonardo da Vinci.' Like its predecessors, this is an admirable collection of illustrative material (127 prints) at a low price. It would have conduced to the reader's comfort if the numerous paintings and drawings erroneously or doubtfully attributed to Leonardo gave some indication of the fact in the explanatory note. This policy was the rather to have been followed in the present work because the English version is so unidiomatic as to be almost unreadable.

'A Woman's Hardy Garden,' by Helena Rutherfurd Ely (Macmillan), gives an exceedingly interesting account of a garden about seventy miles from New York city. The management of it, the selection of the plants, and their arrangement are all dwelt upon with sufficient fulness to make the little work a safe guide for amateurs. The photographic illustrations are charming, and possess great value from the unusual fact that they are dated as to the month and day. Throughout the book there are proofs that this garden-keeper has a mind of her own, and, for the most part, her preferences are based on sound sense and good taste. The volume is readable and instructive.

The 'History of Pre-Clusian Botany in its relation to Aster,' by Edward Sandford Burgess (New York: Torrey Botanical Club), is an exhaustive compilation of the innumerable references to the plants of the genus Aster from 400 B. C. down, two thousand years, to the time of Clusius, 1601. Professor Burgess appears to have examined conscientiously the references and descriptions of these interesting plants, noting especially what has been said as to their differential characters and their possible uses. In a study of variation, this compilation, if, as we believe, it is trustworthy, will be of value as indicating recorded changes in the plants. Owing to the fact that the older descriptions are, for the most part, crude and insufficient, the utmost discrimination must be exercised in utilizing such material. By the eye of a master, like Darwin, who could find golden grains even in the chaff of the most ephemeral newspapers, it is likely that the course of changes may be discerned in such a compilation as this. Professor Burgess has apparently done his work with care throughout.

'L'Inde d'aujourd'hui: Étude Sociale,' by Albert Métin (Paris: Armand Colin), if not the *ouvrage remarquable* of the publishers' enclosed advertisement, is at least a conscientious study of life in India in its artistic, social, and political aspects. As the instructions given by the "fondateur des bourses" lay most weight on the latter factors, it is to be regretted that so large a part of the volume should be taken up with the description of well-known monuments and the iteration of oft-repeated facts and ideas. In truth, the first half of the book might have been written without leaving Paris save for an occasional personal reflection on spectacles often noticed by other travellers. Chapters six to nine (the last) contain, however, much that is good, a student's well-weighed observations on the English administration, the native Opposition, the cost of living, and the condition of industries, with reliable statistics. Criticism of the administration is not spared, but the Opposition is not lauded as a band of disinterested patriots. Here and there an item is already rendered doubtful by later statistics. If we are not mistaken, the railways, said on page 211 to cost more than they earn, are now reported to be making more revenue. The fact that *l'Angleterre impérialiste* spends more than it gives, and cares less for India than when it was *l'Angleterre pacifique*, is well brought out; but M. Métin should not have allowed himself the pleasantry of repeating such nonsense as that on page 243, the idle slander of malcontent Bombay, to the effect that a town's taxes are raised when it sends a delegate to the Congress of Liberals. Owing to the increase in prison industries it has become native slang to say that a prisoner is *un homme aux tapis* (the original is not given). But the child labor in the carpet industries that have to contend with this prison labor! According to M. Métin all laws of inspection are a dead letter; English and Hindu alike regard them as a farce as applied to women and children, and valid only as applied to the merchandise. A child of six, toiling all day, scarcely earns six cents. But when her money is needed for Africa, starving India must work.

The cumulative Quarterly Bibliography of Books Reviewed in Leading American Periodicals, which is edited by George Flavel Danforth, librarian of Indiana University (Bloomington: Index Publishing Co.), completed its first volume last year, an octavo of 207 pages, in very open typography. Speaking for the *Nation*, which is on the list, we can say that it is more minutely indexed than is customary with similar enterprises. The publisher's name and the price of the book are commonly subjoined to the reference to the review.

The Bostonian Society's Proceedings at the annual meeting contains the President's address on the antiquities of the city, and a biographical notice of John Read, a distinguished lawyer and citizen of Boston in provincial days, which throws light on the life of the early part of the eighteenth century. We mention also an excellent copy of Paul Revere's famous hand-colored engraving of the Boston Massacre.

Mr. W. I. Fletcher's Summer School of Library Economy will hold its thirteenth annual session of six weeks at Amherst, Mass., from July 6 to August 14. Courses in French will also be available.

A correspondent writes to us: "In connection with the recent discussion as to the advisability of accepting gifts from donors whose wealth is ill-gotten, the following passage, taken from Miss Garnett's 'Women of Turkey' (vol. 2, page 226), will be possibly found of some interest":

"In a codicil to her will, Khamko [mother of Ali Pasha] directed that a *hadji*, or pilgrim, should be dispatched on her part to lay offerings on the tomb of the Prophet, and pray there for the repose of her soul. Such pilgrimages and offerings may, however, only be made when the expenses are defrayed with money lawfully and honestly acquired. And as it was found on inquiry into the estate of the late Veli Bey, Ali's ancestor, that the property to be sold for this purpose had been taken by force or fraud from a Christian, the pilgrimage was disallowed by the religious authorities."

—In the April *Harper's*, Professor Ely continues his researches among the abnormal developments of American economics and sociology with a study of the economic aspects of Mormonism. Their well-known industrial success he attributes largely to the Mormons' faith in their religious tenets, though he gives us to understand that their industrial superiority has been somewhat overrated. Their proselytes are not generally among the most vigorous and enterprising classes, and, were it not for their docility in following superior leadership, they would make but sorry work of it. In the work of irrigation for agricultural purposes he pronounces Greeley, Colorado, superior to anything found in Mormon territory. On the religious side he declares them strong in faith, but decidedly weak in spirituality, a combination which indicates low ideals and backward development. He makes the interesting suggestion that the growth of a desire for stylish living is in itself a strong curb upon the spread of polygamous marriage, since few men can stand the expense of plural marriage under such conditions. Brander Matthews writes again of Briticisms, which he defines as words, phrases, or usages generally accepted in the British Isles, or even throughout the British Empire, but not adopted in the United States. The definition may pass if the words "generally accepted" be not pressed too closely. Among various terms which he cites as sporadic British innovations are a few which may be met at home. There is nothing peculiarly British in the London *Chronicle's* assertion that Sir Martin Conway successfully *negotiated* a perilous pass in his explorations, for American college boys have been *negotiating* perilous curves in baseball and troublesome crises in similar lines of effort for some years past. Mr. Matthews will also find the term *historicity* familiar to many of his American readers in the same sense in which he quotes it from the London *Times*.

—In the April *Atlantic*, Charles A. Conant combats vigorously the popular conception that operations on stock and produce exchanges are simply forms of gambling. The function of such exchanges in securing mobility and divisibility of capital is clearly set forth, as well as the advantage to the investor in being able to know, from the quotations of the exchange, just what is the average opinion of large numbers of experienced men as to the value of any listed security at any given time. It is also shown that the existence of a large mass of salable securities tends to prevent panics in the money market, or at least to minimize their violence. Mr. Conant makes a convincing defence of the exchange system, though he perhaps minimizes the abuses to which he admits that it is liable. The num-

ber is particularly strong in its literary interest. Mr. Trowbridge continues the story of his life, dealing largely with Emerson and Alcott; Frederick W. Holls contributes a dozen letters from the Emerson-Grimm correspondence; Brander Matthews writes of the Makers of the Drama of To-day, and Alexander V. G. Allen presents a warm-hearted, though not undiscriminating, appreciation of the late Horace E. Scudder. It will be a distinct revelation to most readers, for Mr. Scudder was not the man to allow modern methods of advertising to be applied to himself or his achievements. Professor Matthews is distinctly optimistic in his consideration of the drama. We pass over into the new century, he thinks, with clear evidences of dramatic reinvigoration everywhere except possibly in France, and even France has playwrights of promise. To Norway, however, Ibsen carries the palm for actual achievement; other countries are simply advancing hopefully on the right road. The fertilizing principle at the bottom of this new dramatic growth Mr. Matthews finds in the great development of prose fiction during the past century.

—Mr. G. F. Hill of the British Museum has arranged and edited a useful compilation called 'Illustrations of School Classics' (Macmillan), most of the pictures and maps in which have appeared scattered through the volumes of "Elementary Classics," issued by the same publishers. To them he has added brief descriptions, as well as a good bibliography, in which teachers and students are told where to find the originals, with still fuller accounts of them. The aim of this book is to do for school classics in general (that is, for the classics read in English schools, a far larger list than that of which American schools can boast) what has already been done for Homer in particular by the album of Engelmann and Anderson. These illustrations, now that they are seen together, instead of in their former scattered form, turn out to be a very careful selection, and they ought to add much by way of inspiration and living interest to the texts and commentaries over which boys and girls are set to pore. While we still find among them some of the outline cuts of the style commonly used in American school editions, yet many are reproduced by photography (and some in color), a form which does far greater justice to the originals, and offers less of a temptation to the ever-ready pencil of our young barbarians. The descriptions in the letterpress are in general thoroughly accurate and trustworthy, but we have been surprised to find a curious theory advanced in that of the picture of the last day of Laocoön, taken from the Codex Vaticanus of Virgil (the illustrations from which, by the way, are in this book photographed from the recent papal facsimile, instead of from the old and unreliable engravings still reproduced in our school editions of the Aeneid). Here Mr. Hill suggests that as the name "Laocoön" did not appear over the head of the sacrificing priest "in a reproduction of this picture published in 1835," it may be a recent addition in the MS. A little searching in the Museum Library would have shown him that it appears in Bartoli-Bottari (1741) and in D'Agincourt (1823). The "Edition of 1835" is, no doubt, that of Cardinal Mai, and for faithfulness it by no means deserves what the Cardinal claimed for it. Perhaps he left out the word because he did not understand that in this one picture (as so often in ancient and in mediæval art) we have two scenes in the life of the same man; the first being his sacrifice of the bull, and the second the fatal attack made upon him by the serpents. This, at least, would be our explanation of the double occurrence of the name, although Dr. Nohlac believes that it was erroneously inserted in the first case, but, of course, not "recently."

—Apropos of Gen. Chaffee's remark, before the Methodists in New York, that he had met no intelligent Chinese who desired Christianity in the empire, and the discussion of "Christophobia," it does not seem to be generally known what the official attitude of the Chinese Government really is, and always has been, toward any foreign religion. So long as alien cults are confined to poor and obscure converts, China may be indifferent or even liberal, but in case of any growth which means power, it is far different. China has a definite state religion. It hardly admits of a doubt that Confucianism, which stands above all else for order, and has been the fundamental law of China for twenty centuries, is intolerant. China has never yet officially granted religious liberty in the public schools or examinations, or to men in official positions. As matter of history, the Chinese Government has often persecuted Buddhistic and Taoist sects, under the suspicion that their aim was dangerous to the principle of authority, and thus to the welfare of the state and society. Mohammedanism has held its ground only after bloody contests. The full story of the official persecution, and what might be called the Inquisition, in China, is one which some Western scholar should investigate and set forth. It is a curious fact that, after the outbreak of a sort of Populism in the eleventh century, and the entire reëxamination and restatement of Confucianism by Chu Hi, in the twelfth century, the new creed, or philosophical Confucianism, which has for over seven hundred years furnished the opinions of most cultivated men in the eastern half of Asia, became increasingly intolerant. In its tremendous reaction against the liberality and freedom of the Mongols, it reached the point of bigotry. In Japan, after the fall of the Ming dynasty, Confucianism, under the influence of the Chinese refugee scholars, became the official religion of Yedo, and was made the special engine of Government in keeping out all foreign creeds, cults, and science. It was directly responsible for the imprisonment, torture, and death of not a few natives who, through Dutch learning or otherwise, sought to change the moulds of social or political Japan.

—The truth is clearly brought out in an essay in English by Professor De Groot of Leyden University, published last year in the Report of the Oriental Seminary at Berlin, on the question "Is There Religious Liberty in China?" The famous author of the standard work in Dutch on the Religious Systems of China, a lifelong student of the official religion in China, is easily the first authority in the world on the subject discussed by him. In his remarkable paper he gives a survey of twenty centuries, showing what is the Chinese law against heresy and sects, naming also the victims of oppression and persecution. He makes Confucius and Mencius responsible for the outbreaks of persecution manifested in Chinese history. But it has been shown that while his facts reveal the true Chinese political point of view, yet the text of Confucius and Mencius, both of whom taught before the special teachings of the sage were incorporated into a policy of government, do not justify persecution. As Dr. Faber correctly translates the passage in the Analects (II., 16), it reads, "To fight strange doctrines is indeed injurious." Mencius said: "If one by force subdues men, they do not submit in heart. Force is not sufficient; but if one by virtue subdues them, they will with joy in their hearts submit, as the seventy disciples submitted to Confucius" (II., 1; III., 2). In order, then, to gain an intelligent idea of the real attitude of the Chinese Government and literati, apart from any sentiment, friendly or hostile, one must know the historical attitude of official religion in China, while the man of culture must discriminate between the true and original Confucianism and that of later centuries. It is almost self-evident that, until full religious liberty is granted, as it is in Japan, by the fundamental law of the land, the animosity between Confucianists and Christians will tend rather to increase than to decrease, possibly even to an outbreak greater than that of 1900. The principle of opposition to Occidental religion, backed, as to the Chinese mind it seems to be, by commercial covetousness and political greed, will always have the sympathy and connivance of high Chinese officers.

—Dr. F. Eulenburg, privat-docent in the University of Leipzig, has published in the *Jahrbücher für Nationalökonomie und Statistik* a lengthy article dealing with the age of the active full professors in the Universities of Germany, as also of the German universities in Austria and Switzerland. It is practically exhaustive, only about 2 per cent. of the complete data being wanting, so that it covers 1,288 professors for the winter term of 1890-91, and 1,429 for the winter term of 1901-02. According to these statistics, the average age of the full university professors at present is 53.4 years, which is two years above what it was a decade ago, when it was 51½ years. The highest average age is found at the ten Prussian universities, where it is 54.5 years, and the lowest average in the three universities of Switzerland, where it is 51.8. It is significant that the smaller universities exhibit a smaller average than the larger; this is explained by the fact that usually men do not gain an entrance into the faculties of the larger until they have been tried and found approved in the smaller. In different departments the average varies considerably. In the case of the 201 theological professors it is 54.2; of the 226 law professors, 54.2; of the 295 medical professors, 54.8; of the 707 men in the several departments of the philosophical faculty, 53.1. That the average among the medical men should be the highest is readily explained by the fact that the rush to this department is especially great, and that the number of assistant professors and privat-docents is very large. On the other hand, the law faculties have not been attracting so many candidates, and the chances for earlier promotion are accord-

ingly greater. The highest averages are reported from Berlin, Königsberg, Munich, and Leipzig; which can readily be explained in the case of the first, third, and fourth, as these leading universities are the Ultima Thule of the German savant's ambition. The youngest full professors are found in Bonn, Heidelberg, Vienna, and Strassburg, in the non-theological faculties, and in Tübingen, Marburg, Innsbruck, Erlangen, and Giessen in all departments. There are only two full professors under thirty, both in the law department, one in Tübingen, and the other in Bern. About 4 per cent. of the professors continue in the harness after they have passed their seventieth year, but it should be remembered that in Austria, as in the German provinces of Russia, professors are retired by law when they reach this age. Eulenburg suggests that the German states pass a law giving the incumbent of an academic chair the right to retire at the age of sixty-five with a pension, and making this compulsory, except in rare cases, at the age of seventy, but in each instance, in the latter case, making the incumbent Professor Emeritus and giving the "Lehrauftrag" to a younger man. This, he declares, would be justice to both students and professors. His discussion has an added interest when compared with the paper published in 1876 by Laspeyres on the same subject.

PRESIDENT KRUGER'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

The Memoirs of Paul Kruger, four times President of the South African Republic. Told by Himself. The Century Company. 1902.

These memoirs were (in 1901 and 1902) dictated by Mr. Kruger to his own private secretary, and to a former Under Secretary of the South African Republic; and were afterwards revised and brought into a more finished shape by a clergyman (Dr. Schowalter), who published them in German. Though the latter did this work in personal communication with Mr. Kruger during the latter's residence in Holland, the process has naturally taken away a little of the freshness which an autobiography entirely written or dictated by the old President would have had; and the English translation, being made from the German version, itself rendered from the Dutch original, stands at two removes from the *ipsissima verba* of the author. This circumstance slightly reduces the directness and raciness of the narrative, making it less characteristic of the man than the conversations which various persons have reported with him. Nevertheless, the book has its individuality, and remains a valuable record of the important events in which its author bore a part.

There is comparatively little of his private life in it; indeed, hardly any except some stories of hunting adventures in early days and of experiences in expeditions against the Kaffirs. There are very few reflections, and few descriptions of the life and society of the Boer settlers. No literary art has been employed, and one sees that the narrative flows from a mind that does not know what literary art is, and has not got that kind of imaginative quality which, in the absence of literary training, is nevertheless able to produce matter that appeals to the imagination or the emotions of the reader. Neither does the humor which Mr. Kruger undoubtedly possesses (for it emerges in the similes and illustrations he has often employed in his talk and his speeches) come much to the surface in this book, as may, indeed, be deemed natural when one remembers the circumstances of sorrow and depression under which the work was composed, in exile, after the news of his wife's death, and while hearing, day by day, of the events which heralded the overthrow of his country's independence.

The story begins with the youth's departure from the Colesburg district in Cape Colony, in 1835, when his father and his uncles left their farms to cross the Orange River into the wilderness, then almost unexplored, which lay to the northeast and was inhabited only by a few Kaffir tribes. The boys tended the cattle on the march, but were soon called upon to join in the fighting against the formidable chief Moselikatse, who attacked the emigrants and was ultimately driven by them far away to the north into what is now called Matabililand. Young Kruger took part in one of these military expeditions when only fourteen. When one thinks of the training given to a man's capacities by the kind of life these people led, fighting the Kaffirs in small parties (of course always against greatly superior numbers), pursuing such formidable wild beasts as the lion, the elephant, and the rhinoceros, all then abundant in a region whence they have since been exterminated, and striving against one another in their numerous public meetings and civil commotions, one is reminded of the life of the early settlers in Massachusetts, Virginia, and Kentucky, and one is not surprised that a training so stimulating and so varied should have produced the race of men whose military aptitudes and whose heroic tenacity have excited the admiration of the world during the recent war of the English against the two Dutch Republics. The citizens of early Rome and the Greeks in their great creative ages had similar experiences of war as well as of civil struggles—experiences one-half of which the modern world of Europe and the United States wants; and it is partly because the modern stay-at-home citizen does not know what the realities of war are like, that he shows himself so prone to the Jingoism of newspapers and music halls.

Mr. Kruger's public life began when he was elected a Field Cornet in 1852. This post, primarily military, carries with it civil duties also in the local government of South African States. Thenceforward he played a conspicuous part in all the wars and civil struggles of the Transvaal, being for a time Commandant-General in the days of President Burgers. In one expedition against the Kaffir chiefs Mapela and Makapaan, he had an adventure which displayed his fearless spirit. The Boer commando had driven the Kaffirs into some caves in the mountains, where they suffered severely from famine, but obstinately refused to surrender. Kruger, wishing to bring the siege to a close, crept in the dark into one of the caves where a large body of Kaffirs lay, and began to talk to them in their own language, suggesting that it would be better for them to surrender than to die of hunger, and offering to go to the white men to negotiate. Suddenly a Kaffir who recognized by the voice that it was not one of his own people who spoke, exclaimed "Magoa" (White man). Kruger gave himself up for lost, but at the cry all the Kaffirs rushed suddenly into the back of the cave. He followed them, and was not killed because in the darkness they could not distinguish the intruder. Finally, he again addressed them, simulating their accent, and succeeded in bringing 180 women and children out of the cave, himself remaining undiscovered till they had emerged.

In 1872, when M. W. Pretorius resigned office, some of the Boers wished to run Kruger for the Presidency of the Transvaal, but he refused to stand, though he opposed the election of Burgers, whose religious opinions he disliked, for Burgers was believed to be a free thinker, and Kruger has always belonged to the straitest sect of Calvinistic orthodoxy. When, in 1877, Theophilus Shepstone, a British envoy, acting on the discretionary instructions which the British Government had given him, proclaimed the annexation of the Transvaal to the British dominions, Kruger took a leading share in resisting this change; and was sent shortly afterwards to England, along with Jorissen, as a delegate from the Boers, charged to represent the unwillingness of the people to be annexed, and to induce the British Government to revoke Shepstone's act. The embassy failed, and the other Powers to whom the envoys went refused to interfere. Three years passed, during which the grant of self-governing institutions promised by Shepstone in 1877 was delayed. Then came the outbreak of December, 1880. Kruger was elected one of a triumvirate to administer the government of the reëstablished republic, and was one of those who signed the Convention of 1881, by which the British Government conceded a qualified independence to the Transvaal. In 1883 he became by popular election President of the Republic, and was reëlected in 1888, 1893, and 1898, so that from 1880 onwards the record of his life is practically a record of the history of that State down to his quitting it for Europe in 1901, when the English forces had occupied Pretoria. He departed at the wish of the Council, in order that he might endeavor to obtain some help, or at least some promise of intervention, from the European Powers.

The memoirs describe succinctly the chief events of those twenty troubled years, the wrangling with England over native territories, the negotiations of the convention of 1884, the various dealings with Cecil Rhodes, the discovery of the Rand gold field, and consequent inrush of foreign settlers, the visits of Sir Henry Loch, the British High Commissioner to Pretoria, the attempt to pacify the Uitlanders by the establishment of the Second Volksraad, the Johannesburg "Reform Movement" and Jameson Raid of 1896, the quarrel with and dismissal of Chief Justice Kotze, the Bloemfontein Conference of May, 1899, the negotiations with the British Colonial Office, and outbreak of war. About the course of the war itself little is said, for Mr. Kruger did not take part in the actual fighting, being seventy-four years old when the war began. It cannot be said that much new light is thrown upon all these transactions, of which the outline is, of

course, already well known to the public, and which have been repeatedly discussed in England with great bitterness. Severe reflections are made upon Mr. Rhodes, who is represented as the chief source of trouble, upon Lord Milner, and upon Mr. Chamberlain, but the language used is not violent, and there is less of passion than might have been expected from one whose feelings are naturally strong. Indeed, the narrative generally reminds one in its dryness of Cæsar's 'Commentaries'; and we get a more lively impression of the writer's personality when we turn to the speeches (printed in the appendix) delivered by the old President at his inauguration in 1898, and to the Volksraad or Legislative Chamber, on several occasions in 1899 and 1900. In the religious tone that pervades them, and in their constant references to Scripture, as well as in their clumsiness of style and their forcible sincerity, they remind one of some of Oliver Cromwell's discourses.

The Transvaal Boers have often been compared to the English Puritans of the seventeenth century, and Kruger is a typical Boer in his tenacity, his astuteness, his courage, his religious fervor, his indifference to all that savors of culture. As is natural, he justifies his own action throughout, yet with a quiet dignity which shows no sensitiveness to criticism. One admission of error he does make when he says (page 183), in referring to the complaints made by the mining population at Johannesburg: "Much exception has been taken to my attitude, and perhaps I should have been wiser had I shown more consideration for the feelings of the foreigners." He adds, however: "But we must not forget the elements of which the population was composed, nor the fact that a population of the same class at Kimberley had caused a rebellion which obliged the British Government to send a considerable force to hold it in check; nor lastly, that a former accusation of inherent weakness had cost the Republic dear. I was determined, therefore, to do all in my power to avoid a renewal of that accusation." He regards the memories of the annexation and war, and the gold fields, as the source of all the later misfortunes of the Transvaal. "The words uttered by the late Gen. Joubert, when a burgher came gleefully to tell him that a new gold-reef had been discovered, were prophetic: 'Instead of rejoicing, you would do better to weep, for this gold will cause our country to be soaked in blood.' "

Though it chronicles a long tragedy, the tone of the book is not tragic. Though it comes from the chief actor in events which may be described as great, because they have affected the general history of the world and have fixed the world's attention, comparatively small as is the theatre on which the action went on, it does not exhaust even Mr. Kruger's own share in those events. Some day a life of him will have to be written which will present more fully in the setting of its singular social environment a powerful character and a remarkable career. Even poetry may perhaps occupy itself with figures in their way so dramatic as Paul Kruger and Cecil Rhodes, the protagonists of the races which have for a century been intermingled, and too frequently opposed, in South Africa.

THE "UNKNOWN" AND THE KNOWABLE.—II.

Unknown Mexico: A Record of Five Years' Exploration among the Tribes of the Western Sierra Madre; . . . Tepic and Jalisco; and among the Tarascos, etc. By Carl Lumholtz, M.A. 2 vols., illustrations and maps. 8vo, pp. xxxii., 530, 496. Scribners.

It is nothing short of a calamity—perhaps it is even so bad as a blunder—when an adequately financed scientific expedition, headed and controlled by a man so sympathetic, so earnest and so observant, sets forth as if the world had been finished day before yesterday. It would not have been dangerous to know and note, once and again, that now the scene of the explorer's activity is just where the Nebomes gently entreated the very first transcontinental travellers in North America (Cabeza de Vaca and his comrades) in 1536; nor yet that another spot in focus is where that obliging Spaniard Nuño de Guzman, who hunted slaves as Spaniards are expected to do (and was punished as by law provided), made his human drive in 1530, and a bit later founded a city, which Mr. Lumholtz visited, precisely as a buffer between civilization and one of the "Chichimec" tribes wherewith Mr. Lumholtz was seriously concerned; nor that another locality explored is where fell that gigantic, prehistoric meteorite, so long famous in legend and record, first made known to us parvenus by the soldier-poet Villagran, in his 32-canto heroics on the Conquest of 1598; nor that over some identical trails trudged the first discoverer of Arizona, Fray Marcos of Niza, in 1539, with his historic darky, and next year again with Coronado's brilliant army going to discovery and exploration not only of New Mexico, but so far as Kansas; nor that these same tribes (the Tarahumares and Tepehuanes) figure notably in the little affair of the first settlement of New Mexico, and the founding of the second and third towns within the limits of the United States, by one Juan de Oñate; and that these are also the very fellows who "invested us face to face" as chronicled by Fray Alonso de Benavides, author (1630) of the rarest and most precious "source" on the early ethnography of the Southwest; nor that yonder the neo-discoverer trod the very landscapes which interest some people because there the yellow-haired hero of the "Salto" came to succor the beleaguered Cristobal de Oñate (discoverer of the first great silver bonanza in the world, save one), and there perished, in one of the most remarkable cliff-stormings in history—a chapter finished *in situ* by the greatest administrative genius America knew in the three centuries following Columbus. It is unlikely that even the casual subscriber would "stop his paper" for reference by name or fame to Alvarado, Los Tajos, Mendoza, or the Peñol of Mixton; or for finding, along with the author's comfortable shiverings at seasonal austerities of climate in the upper Sierra Madre, confession of the fact that so recently as 1554, during one of his Indian campaigns in this now "unknown" land, Capt. Francisco de Ybarra lost forty horses frozen to death. Even in acute *magazinitis* it is a business blunder to ignore the fascinating associations of history and romance in which—and in their most brilliant sort—the entire field of Mr. Lumholtz's labors is so enormously rich. From only the most "marketable" and readable of these, the two volumes might have been thick-studded; or as large and fully as salable a volume iii. easily added.

"Of most of these tribes but little more than their names were known." Of none of these tribes was *anything* known—to some people. To say nothing of their modern scientific classification by linguistic stocks, or of the vocabularies, numerously printed, scattering along down from the very generation of the Conquest, all these tribes have been Christianized since before Plymouth Rock. Michuacan was the very first *Provincia* of the Santo Evangelio in Mexico, being erected to that dignity in 1535. It had more Franciscan missionaries than any other *Provincia* (v. Mendieta), beginning in 1525. Its Father Provincial in 1539 was none other than Fray Marcos—a student of the Tarascos 365 years ago. It lacks less than six years of three full centuries since the "American cave-dwellers of the present age" were summarily and permanently husked of their primitiveness. In 1598 the people Mr. Lumholtz reckons practically unsophisticated by European contact, were recorded as "very apt in reading, writing, counting, and the catechism"—all of which it is not unfair to account colorably European. The clothing he pictures and describes was imposed by the Jesuits upon his "primitive tribes," which, when they *were* primitive, mostly went stark. One is tempted to quote gems from the multitude of witnesses that record—sometimes in delightfully human fashion—their clerical sufferings in modesty, and the seriousness of the task they had in teaching the Indians to "dress honestly." But it would take space. It is enough to quote, as to the Tarahumares and Tepehuanes, Fray Nicholas Arnaya, in the *Anua* of 1601: "andan desnudos"—they go naked.

The towns and pueblos the explorer dwelt, studied, and confided in—these were the reform work of the missionaries whom he has to thank that he found so beggarly an account of empty cave-dwellings. It is not sufficiently remembered how enormous a change in this particular was wrought by the Jesuits and Franciscans over a vast part of the continent—more than a million square miles. Even among the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico, our great example of sedentary cultures, a very extensive and important concentration of villages was brought about by the pioneer missionaries. In 1601 Mr. Lumholtz's Tepehuanes began to be gathered by the Jesuits from their "burrows" into towns. Arnaya specifies 2,000 of them already in that year centralized in one pueblo. By 1607 these same Indians had six missionaries; and 4,000 of them had been Christianized and diverted from their caves to dwelling in twenty pueblos. As to the Tarascos, by 1577 there had been only seven books that we know of printed in their tongue in the City of Mexico. The Sierra Madre proper has been a missionary field ever since 1645. Among the "unknown" Coras, Father Diego de Guzman began his apostolic labors in 1619; and, long before him, Father Arnaya was much in evidence. By 1752 the one State of Sonora, with which Mr. Lumholtz has much to do, had a little matter of twenty-nine missions, conducted in four aboriginal languages, and with generic "reduction" of the tribes from nomadry to formal pueblos. In the same year the Tarahumares had sev-

enteen Jesuit missions—and four notches on their stick of martyrs. And so on.

The report of still-inhabited caves to the northward was already old in Mexico at the Conquest; and, in its legendary form of the "Seven Caves" and Chicomoztoc, had much to do with the actual discovery of New Mexico and Arizona. It figures, for instance, in Motolinia (1540), Zumarraga (1547), and the 'Anales de Cuauhtitlan' (circa 1550). By the Indian historians Camargo, Duran, and Ixtlilxochitl, all before 1600, it is mentioned as a long-time tradition; and it is even referred to in the 'Popul-Vuh' of Guatemala. Closer knowledge began with the Conquest. In 1531, Espiritu Santo de Tepic was founded by Guzman as an outpost against the "Chichimecos" (not a tribe-name, but general for wild Indians) dwelling to the northeast; "a barbarous folk that live scattered in caverns and woods like savage beasts. They maintain themselves by the hunt and wild fruits. They make wine of certain roots wherewith they get themselves drunk." The *Anua* of 1596 speaks of a Tepehuan: "in a cave set amid crags, where he dwelt like a wild beast." The *Anua* of 1597, on the same locality: "Our Lord hath pleased to get them out from those caves and crags, which seem altogether inaccessible." On the same page: "Another spot, or, better said, habitation of wild animals, as they have their burrows *(madrigueras)* in the apertures of the cliffs." Again: the priest "sought them in their caves" and persuaded them to come down and form a pueblo. The *Anua* of 1601 mentions the Tepehuanes "in their peaks and ancient burrows." Torquemada, writing in 1610 his magnificent 'Monarquia Indiana,' tells of these Indians that they "had no Clothing, nor Houses, and contented themselves with only living in Caves." "There are many Caves, and Caverns, ordinary dwellings of the Chichimecos." Of the "Tepeguanes": "los mas bellicosos de la Nueva España." And much more. Ribas, in his important 'Triumfos' (Madrid, 1645), quotes Father Juan Fonte on the Tarahumares in 1608: "The dwelling of much of the people is in caves, which are many in their land, and some so capacious that in one live a whole kindred *(parentela)*, making their divisions of little houses within." The book of burials of the mission of Bacadehuachi, 1655, records the killing of the people of the Sierra Madre in their cave-dwellings by raiding Janos and Jocomes. Tello, 1653, mentions their sacred caves (p. 775 of his 'Conquista . . . de Xalisco'). And so on. Incidentally, in the weighty Final Report covering his travels in the Sierra Madre in 1883-84, Bandelier notes (II., 521) "the well-known fact that part of the Tarahumares dwelt, and dwell to-day, in caves."

The Peyote-cult and ceremonial intoxication are indicated, for example, in Herrera (1601), Torquemada (1610), Ribas (1645), Tello (1653). In the *Anua* of 1598 the Demon Cachiripa is said to have ordered these Indians to "make Mitotes (dances) wherein they intoxicate themselves and take the Peyote." Vetancurt's rich 'Teatro Mexicano' (Mexico, 1698) furnishes a possible clue to the puzzling name Mr. Lumholtz gives the Peyote. Along with the latter plant, Vetancurt mentions its variety the "Ololiuhqui, which means 'round leaf,' also called Coaxihuitl, which is 'snake-herb.'" "This is esteemed by the Indians because the Priests of their Idols used to take it to receive the answers to their doubts." And again: "Peyote, Root of the Peyotl. Although the natives esteem it, the Spaniards abhor it as Superstitious, since the Indians are wont to take it for divination and to know the occult in dreams. It is mixed with Zacazili and Ololiuhqui. They take it that they may not feel weariness." A century earlier yet, in his famous 'Historia Natural y Moral,' 1590, Acosta mentions that "when they would see visions they take Oliliuhqui." The famous 'Apostolicos Afanes,' otherwise 'Historia del Nayarit' (including Sonora and Sinaloa), 1754, in describing one of the ceremonial dances about as clearly as Lumholtz does, and the musical bow with it, says: "They put close there [to the master singer] a bowl full of Peyote, which is a diabolic root that they drink ground, that they may not droop under the lassitude of so long a function." That classic of Sonora, the 'Rudo Ensayo' (written in 1761-2), describes the native drinks, of which "the worst is the Sauco, on which they get drunk for three and five days at a time." The 'Estado de la Mision de San Lorenzo . . . de Zumas' (MS. about 1750) tells of these Indians (the people of the Casas Grandes): "It is a folk given to intoxication; and the worst is not that of wine and aguardiente, but that of the herb they call Peiote. This transports them in such sort that it renders them mad. It is among them a mystic herb, and they use it in their religious gatherings." It is of course needless to refer to Bandelier's characterization of this herb, or to the familiar historic fact that it was also employed by the Pueblos of New Mexico to produce wilful trances; and that its use was prohibited, centuries ago, by the Spanish authorities.

The sacrifice of arrows? Even Castañeda, the dyspeptic member and scribe of Coronado's expedition in 1540, mentions them in the Sierra Madre; as does the 'Apostolicos Afanes' of 1754. The peculiar cult of deer and their heads? It is in the *Anua* of 1598; to say nothing of that of 1607, 'El Nayarit' in 1754, etc. The musical bow is frequently mentioned by early sources, at least as far back as the *Anua* of 1598. So is the rain-dance, and with no little particularity—as in the 'Rudo Ensayo,' and in the anonymous Jesuit letter of 1658: "a dance truly diabolic, which they call Torom-Raqui, to procure rain." The shamanism is very reasonably described in Vetancurt, Herrera, Torquemada, Tello, 'El Nayarit,' Ribas, the 'Rudo Ensayo,' the *Anuas* of 1596 *et seq.* And so on to a tiresome list. Even the ability of the sorcerers to change themselves to animals—so familiar to folklorists throughout the Southwest—is detailed by the first historian of America, Oviedo, 1535; by Mendieta, writing in 1596; by Herrera, 1601; and innumerable others, as by Ribas 258 years ago, with the further coincidence with Lumholtz that these Indians called their fetishes "abuelos" (grandparents).

The almost ubiquitous aboriginal mode of "healing," by a sleight-of-hand "sucking out" from the afflicted part the stone or thorn or other foreign substance supposed to cause the disease, has, of course, been familiar to scholars ever since Cabeza de Vaca took his involuntary medical course *ante* 1535; and is so innumerably described in the old sources—and in some of them so well—that there seems no need to quote. Even in so fragmentary a matter, it is of interest to note that the marriage custom mentioned by Lumholtz among the Tarahumares (I., 270), and the Huicholes (II., 94), has prior explication in the 'Cosas' of Sahagun (II., 270) who died 1590; in Mendieta (1596); and in other sources (not forgetting the 'Estado de . . . Sonora,' 1730), wherein is described the aboriginal tying up of the bride and groom in their two *petates*—a ceremonial of which he has fallen upon the dwindled relic. Generally, in reporting such things as "mountain-worship," it would be worth while to give a reference hint of the *apachetas* and other features of this well-developed cult in Peru and our Southwest. It surprises the initiate reader—and deprives the uninitiate—to find no reference from the rattlesnake cult (of which Mr. Lumholtz mentions traces) to the extraordinary ophism once common to all the Pueblos, and still so notorious among the Moquis; or from the ceremonial races of the Tarahumares to the closely related *Juib* of the Pueblos—particularly as a specified object of the trip was to "shed light upon the relations between the ancient culture of the valley of Mexico and the Pueblo Indians." In these volumes, at least, that opening promise seems to have been forgotten altogether. The making of "a kind of beer called in Mexican Spanish tesvino" is described, and the extensive ceremonial use of this drink of fermented corn has much attention, but no correlation. It is, of course, the well-known "tizwin"—accompaniment and "bracer" of Apache outbreaks. Its general name "in Mexican Spanish" (as well as in Peru) is *chicha;* "texgüino," as it is properly spelled, being a provincialism of Sonora, Chihuahua and Sinaloa. The author's "shirgo" is an Hidalgo local word, of Otomi parentage, and written "xirgo." "Macuchi" is not exactly "as tobacco is called in Mexico," being a rather limited Coahuila term.

A critical knowledge of Spanish—particularly as to its historic readjustments and enrichments in the provincial Americas—would be to the explorer in these lands not only a living spring of recurrent delight and suggestion, but a safeguard in many sorts. Mr. Lumholtz has by pure pains avoided more pitfalls than one would have expected, but finds some needless ones. "Vecinos," which he uses with frequency, and always translates "neighbors," has indeed this meaning, but, in the relation in which he encounters it, is a specific word. The people of a town, and not their neighbors, are its "vecinos." Again: "The regard the Indians have for their Mexican masters is shown in the name by which they refer to them—Coyotes" (II., 330). What it "shows" depends somewhat on one's eyesight. Coyote, indeed (Aztec *coyotl*), is now universally familiar among us for the "prairie-wolf"—though we ordinarily butcher it with almost any other pronunciation than the correct co-yó-te. But his Indians were not calling the Mexicans "wolves" nor "dogs." For centuries the word has been in common use in Spanish America as an adjective, meaning native, *del pais*, or sometimes wild in the cognate sense—as we say "wild currants." The common expression "Indio coyote" is not "wolf-Indian," but merely native In-

dian—and in his native state. The "Criollos" (from which our "Creole," often as ignorantly abused), or people of Spanish parentage born in America, were often called "Coyotes," not contemptuously, but in this ancient sense; and *xocoyote* was the regular Aztec term for the youngest child—a word still current and an endearment (as *pet* child) in old California families.

Eminently absurd is the etymology attempted for "Papasquiaro" (Papáscuaro). "The name possibly means *paz quiero* (I want peace), alluding to the terrible defeat of the Indians by the Spaniards in the seventeenth century, . . . the uprising of 1616." There is no such possibility, linguistically; and in fact the town was founded by the Jesuits by 1597 in the valley of that aboriginal name. The author's place-names sometimes limp, but perhaps not elsewhere so seriously. It is late for sober praise of "the Aztec Empire"; and a pity to lose that fine Mexican Indian, Fray Diego Duran, who died in 1598, but left us two big tomes of aboriginal history, in "Diego Duran, a Spanish missionary." "Chilicote" (I., 440, etc.) is a blunder meriting not so much reprobation as gloss. So far as we recall, this not uncommon word has not yet found its deserts in any dictionary. The Century gives it "Chilli-Coyote"—a monstrous absurdity, yoking pepper and the coyote. The Standard does not give it in any shape; and among such American writers as use the word it is almost invariably distorted beyond all hint of its parentage and real meaning—as, "Chilicote," "Chilicothe," "Chili-Coyote," "Chili-cajote," and many more. The word has nothing to do with chile or coyote. It is Chilacayote, from the Aztec *xilacayotli*, compound of *xilotl* (young ear of corn) and *ayotli* (gourd). The plant is of the gourd family, and the name is used in the Southwest and in Mexico for several varieties—otherwise called megarrhiza, cucurbitus lagenaria, echinocystis, wild cucumber, big-root, bottle gourd, and what-not. Vetancurt ('Teatro Mexicano,' 1698) writes it Zilacayote, and mentions other gourds of related name, as the Tlalayote.

Utter worthlessness of the index cannot be too strongly deplored in a work of this character. Not only does this omit the important aboriginal terms which have become part of scientific nomenclature and are particularly vital for reference here—as mitote, Tequila, jacal, Nayarit, vecino, tarima, chuchupate, and the like—it does not even enter birth, marriage, or death customs, races or running, medicine, etc., nor yet Peyote, the most considerable single word in the book. The illustration is liberal, and the items in color are very good. There wholly lacks, however, any such ethnographic portraiture as Professor Starr's example (also in Mexico) has made the privilege and rather the duty of other students. The vice of redrawing photographs into "artistic treatments" is particularly out of place in books whose pictorial responsibility is less to decoration than to truth.

FOUR BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

Musicians' Wit, Humor, and Anecdote. By Frederick J. Crowest. Scribners.

Reminiscences, Musical and Other. By Fanny Reed. Boston: Knight & Millet.

Orchestral Instruments and their Use. By Arthur Elson. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

Johann Sebastian Bach, the Organist, and his Works for the Organ. By A. Pirro. Schirmer.

The eccentricities of genius are nowhere more abundantly illustrated than in the realm of music, and it is therefore easy to compile a readable volume of amusing traits and anecdotes. Nearly a quarter of a century ago Mr. Crowest brought out two bulky volumes of musical anecdotes. They were soon out of print, despite the prohibitive price. They have been recast and enlarged for the present issue, which is practically a new book; and illustrations have been added by J. Philip Donne. There is no attempt at classification, and it cannot be said that the compiler has always been mindful that brevity is the soul of wit. His own attempts at humor are pitiable, and his knack of spoiling a story by the manner of telling it is manifest in the case of Chopin at the dinner party. Being asked to play, the musician replied, according to Mr. Crowest, "Ah, Sir, I have just dined; your hospitality, I see, demands payment." What Chopin really said was, "Ah, Madam, I have eaten so little." Mr. Crowest talks of "pandering to the taste of the *vox populi*," and does other queer things; but he partly atones for them by his industry, which has enabled him to bring together some of the best of the old stories and some new ones. We get a glimpse of Beethoven "at home" through extracts from his diary: "The cook's off again—I shied half-a-dozen books at her head"; of Gluck, who, when asked by Marie Antoinette how his new opera "Armida" was getting along, replied, with the usual modesty of musicians; "Madame, il est bientôt fini, et vraiment ce sera superbe"; of Handel, who remarked to his prosperous publisher: "My dear Walsh, as it is but just we should stand upon an equal footing, you shall compose the next opera and I will sell it"—and so on.

A woman who has sung for, and been on friendly terms with, Liszt, Massenet, and Paderewski, not to speak of Paul Déchanel, Benjamin Constant, Munkacsy, Coquelin, and King Edward VII., has reason to write her reminiscences, as Fanny Reed has done. Her opening chapter gives us glimpses of war time. She sang a battle hymn on the Fourth of July, 1864, at the American Embassy in London. Some time later she met the Prince of Wales at Cowes, and sang for him. After an interval of eight years she again met him, when he asked her if she remembered singing for him one evening at Cowes, and showed his "truly royal memory" by mentioning the names of all the songs he had heard on that occasion. Liszt she first met in W. W. Story's rooms in the Barberini Palace. "All Rome is talking of your voice," he said to her, on being introduced. She sang an aria from "Le Prophète," and he accompanied her on the piano. He, too, had a royal memory, for when, a few years later, she again met him and wondered whether he recalled her, he went to the piano and began playing the Meyerbeer aria she had sung on her first visit to Rome. He taught her some of his own songs, then new. In describing his appearance at the piano, the author says: "I remember being in after years greatly struck with the resemblance of Mme. Wagner's eyes to her father's—clear, bright, piercing, and full of intelligence." She also met Liszt one evening in Paris. "When he came into the room, every one rose, as if at the entrance of royalty." In Paris she also witnessed the first triumphs of Paderewski. Concerning his appearance at the piano, she says that he, while playing, "from time to time lifts and drops his eyelids in a dreamy way, showing two wonderfully sad eyes full of pale blue light, with an expression seemingly oblivious to everything about him." In the final chapter the writer expresses the opinion that those for whom American life has been too strenuous may find in Paris the "rest and harmless diversion" so much needed by them.

Arthur Elson's book on the orchestra gives a description of each instrument now employed by civilized nations, a brief account of its history, an idea of the technical and acoustical principles illustrated by its performance, and an explanation of its value and functions in the modern orchestra. All this the sub-title tells us, and the promises made therein are redeemed not only conscientiously, but entertainingly. One can enjoy a good orchestral concert without knowing the names of the instruments, but every frequenter of concerts must feel interested in the sources of the sounds heard; and the more he knows about them, the more he will be able to realize a composer's ingenuity or genius in clothing his thoughts in appropriate colors. There have been combinations of instruments at all times, but it has been only gradually (since the sixteenth century) that musicians have learned to group them together intelligently, and to make each speak a language of its own. The greatest masters of this art were Schubert and Weber, Berlioz, Liszt, and Wagner. Mr. Elson would hardly, on sober second thought, defend his own assertion that Richard Strauss is "the greatest of all orchestral writers." Apart from a few rather cheap realistic tricks, there is very little in his scores in the line of coloring that was not anticipated by the five composers just named; and as for polyphonic complexity, none of Strauss's scores compares with the last acts of "Siegfried," "Tristan," "Götterdämmerung," and "Parsifal." Nor can we echo Mr. Elson's assertion that "Beethoven stands out as the foremost figure in musical history." He is the greatest writer of symphonies, no doubt, but in all other branches he has been surpassed. In orchestration he is inferior to half a dozen others, and it is not true that there is "hardly a passage in all his scores which would be improved by any change." If Schubert, Liszt, or Wagner had orchestrated these symphonies, they would be more beautiful even than they now are. But these are details; Mr. Elson has written a book admirably suited to the needs of music lovers. He makes the violin, the oboe, the clarionet, the horn, the trombone, etc., as interesting as if they were living persons. One of the odd and inexplicable facts mentioned by him is that the fathers of the New England Church in the eighteenth century approved of the violoncello, and paid a player as much as $70 a year, "while regarding the violin as a device of Satan, and the organ as the most utter abomination in the eyes of the Lord."

If there is one book which every organist ought to have it is Pirro's 'Johann Se-

bastian Bach, the Organist, and his Works for the Organ.' Wallace Goodrich has made a readable translation of it, and there is a valuable preface by C. M. Widor, the eminent French organist and composer. Bach is probably as un-Gallic as a man could possibly be; yet some of his most ardent and intelligent admirers (including Saint-Saëns) are Frenchmen. Pirro's book will add many to the number. Widor gives the history of the Bach cult in Paris, which began sixty years ago. He treats at length of Bach's technic as a virtuoso, and makes an interesting comparison between the organ and the orchestra in the matter of expression. While denying that the organ is capable of as much expression, he holds that it is "the only instrument which can prolong the same volume of sound indefinitely, and thus create the religious impression of the infinite." The art of organ playing, he says, has not changed since Bach, but our organs are growing distinctly better. As for M. Pirro, he prefaces his able and useful analysis of the organ works with a reference, which is hardly an exaggeration, to "the man who suddenly surpassed all that had been done before him, while at the same time anticipating all that was to be written in the future." His declared object in writing this book is to make it easier for the student to play Bach "in the Bach spirit." There are also short sketches of Bach's predecessors and of his life, besides an appendix containing a catalogue of his complete works as printed in forty-six volumes by the Bach Gesellschaft.

Horace Greeley, Founder and Editor of the New York *Tribune*. (Historic Lives Series). By William Alexander Linn, author of 'History of the Mormons.' Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. 1903.

That Mr. Linn was connected with the *Tribune* for a time, as a member of its editorial staff, is not an important factor in his life of the great *Tribune* editor. The wonder is that he was taken on, considering Greeley's rule, "Horned cattle and college graduates need not apply," for he was just out of college. If there was much intimacy between him and his chief, there is little indication of it here, but he writes with the ease and confidence of a man widely familiar with the facts of Greeley's life and with his political environment, and not with the timidity of one who has crammed himself for a piece of writing foreign to the habit of his mind. There is scant endeavor to analyze the qualities which constituted Greeley's character from the biographical psychologist's point of view. The nearest approach to anything of this kind is the fifth chapter, "Sources of the *Tribune's* Influence." For the rest, who will may hear the interesting story told, and discover for himself, as best he can, how Greeley's character was made up.

Taken as a whole, the book has a circumflex movement. More strictly speaking, Greeley's character as the book displays it has such a movement. It mounts by painful stages from his birth and early childhood in New Hampshire, his boyhood and apprenticeship in Vermont, his first discouragements and successes in New York, through his various experiences as editor and publisher with the *New Yorker* and other papers, to the establishment of the *Tribune*, and still mounts for a dozen years or more with the steadily increasing influence of the paper which was to him his best-loved child. Even while it mounts, there are intimations, more and more pronounced as time goes on, of those defects which gathered strength during the two closing decades of his life. We receive the impression that his was a nature for which the uses of adversity were sweeter than those of prosperity; that the politician subordinated the reformer more and more as he advanced in his career, and that political ambition got the better of his generous social aims; and in general that decadence was the most characteristic note of his personal development once he had made the *Tribune* a first-rate political force. But even as the ascending series of his years had intimations of his ultimate decline, the descending series knew much of fine insurgence and eruption of the man's better self. The main effect is not exhilarating but depressing. It is made more so by the contrast of the later with the earlier period. It is as if Mr. Linn had painted-in a luminous background for a figure of pathetic and even tragical significance.

There is praise for Greeley's *Tribune* as a good newspaper, and there are stories of heroic feats accomplished by his reporters, while still one cannot but wonder whether it was worth while to spend so much energy and horse-flesh to bring a Governor's message from Albany to New York a little quicker than the other papers did. Greeley's "isms" are viewed as sources of his strength. A chapter on the tariff is the shortest and least satisfactory in the book. That on Greeley's part in the anti-slavery contest is much better, and exhibits his moral detestation of slavery as generally subordinate to political considerations. His preferring of Douglas to Lincoln in 1858 and after is barely touched. His relation to the civil war exaggerates, quite certainly, the sillier side of that relation, which nevertheless went far to justify the sentiment of Garrison that he was "the worst of counsellers, the most unsteady of all leaders, the most pliant of all compromisers in times of great public emergency." Mr. Linn tells a shocking story of a brutal editorial assaulting Lincoln which Greeley wrote the day before Lincoln's death and would have printed the day after; but his authority permits us to doubt the truth of it. Greeley's Presidential campaign was a tangled skein of worse and better elements. Grant's opponents had a good cause, but the injection of Greeley into it was fatal, resulting, as it did, from a triumph of political chicanery. He should have known and heeded the advice of Sir Thomas Browne: "Pursue virtue virtuously." Dreadful the penalty of his absurd ambition—an untimely death and with a broken heart. The pity of it, for the erring man was fundamentally a child.

The Poets of Transcendentalism: An Anthology. Edited by George Willis Cooke. With introductory essay and biographical notes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903.

That unwearied and accurate literary laborer, Mr. George W. Cooke, has published a book which aims to contain examples of the poetry of the American Transcendental period, or, more strictly speaking, of the type of literature swayed by the Emersonian influence. So marked was this influence, and so interesting the period, that the existence of this manual justifies itself; and it is peculiarly timely amid the general recognition and prospective celebration of Emerson's hundredth birthday. The obstacles in the way of such a competition lie chiefly in deciding which literary men of a period fall really within a certain influence, and, furthermore, in determining the point where that influence could be said to wane.

It is obvious that all writers in Emerson's *Dial* might fairly be included, yet it is doubtful whether the few sonnets published in that magazine by Lowell quite justify the prominence here given him, as second to Emerson only. Among the younger writers of the book, it might perhaps be doubted whether Sill, Burroughs, and others were quite to be classed with the Transcendental or Emersonian authors. Still, it is difficult to draw the line, and it could scarcely be better done, on the whole, than has been done by Mr. Cooke. We note with some surprise the omission of the late Octavius Brooks Frothingham, whose fine hymn, "The Children of the Cross," has secured a place in the hymn-books. We note, also, the usual want of uniformity in designating the name of married ladies among Mr. Cooke's authors. For instance, one of the most valuable features of the book is the fullest collection we have ever seen brought together of the remarkable poems of Ellen (Sturgis) Hooper, which ought long ago to have been printed in a volume; but her middle or maiden name is omitted, as also in the case of her younger sister, Caroline (Sturgis) Tappan. Mr. Cooke says in his notes of this lady: "She was called 'The American Bettine,' probably because of a poem she printed in the *Dial*." But this did not proceed from any single poem; it grew rather from a general parallelism of gifts and habits between her and that German child of genius whose correspondence with Goethe was then very widely read. On the other hand, Mr. Cooke prints the maiden name of Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, as is usual, and follows the too common practice of assigning to Mrs. Helen Jackson a name which she would peculiarly have disapproved, by introducing the patronymics of both of her husbands and making her appear as Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson.

These, however, are mere technicalities, the essential thing being that Mr. Cooke has done well to bring together work purely and originally national; and quite as distinctive, for instance, as that of the Lake School in England. Perhaps in some instances, as in that of Mrs. Helen Jackson, the editor has selected too exclusively the religious poems, but he has in general shown excellent taste and judgment. The closing paragraphs in the introduction, in which he views the so-called Transcendentalism from the point of view of the present day and shows its limitations, are exceptionally just.

English Pleasure Gardens. By Rose Standish Nichols. The Macmillan Co. Pp. xxii., 324. 11 plans, 300 ills.

Surely there was no burning need of another history of gardening in England, yet so strong is the Englishman's love of gardens and so great his wealth of admirable

examples, that it is small wonder the tale is repeated. There is at least some excuse for it, since such exhaustive treatises as the one prefixed to Loudon's Encyclopædia (1834), or the still older history by George W. Johnson (1829), are rarely seen, and not quite what one wants nowadays. Were it not for the altogether excellent 'History' by the Hon. Alicia Amherst, which appeared some eight years ago, Miss Nichols's book would have filled an actual need, and would have been a more original contribution to our garden knowledge. As it is, it follows very closely the method of Miss Amherst's book, and produces, as a whole, a marked impression of similarity—an impression which, however, is scarcely confirmed by an examination of the book in detail.

It is a far cry from the English garden of the twentieth century to classic pleasure grounds, yet from the Greek and Roman garden, by way of the Romano-British garden, Miss Nichols would have us think our modern formal garden derived. And it may be that some of its general arrangements come from classic precedents, but one would rather suspect those precedents of having been transmitted through the Renaissance in Italy and brought over the Alps at a later day, than of having survived through the dark ages from a time when the ancient Romans themselves carried them to the far-away island colony. Be this as it may, Miss Nichols manages to descant very pleasantly for half a hundred pages upon classic pleasure grounds and their somewhat remote relation to the subject. Her chapters on "Monastic Gardens" and on "The Mediæval Pleasaunce," which are delightfully illustrated by reproductions of miniatures from a fifteenth-century manuscript of the 'Roman de la Rose,' serve to bridge a long gap, and bring us to the firmer ground of "Tudor Gardens." Of such gardens, although the remains may be scanty enough, we have accurate descriptions and a very complete idea, but it is when we reach the "Elizabethan Flower-Garden" that we begin to find (in spite of the destroying hands of two centuries of landscape gardeners) examples which show with certainty the very kind of gardens described in Sidney's 'Arcadia,' "not fairer in natural ornaments than artificial inventions." The story carries us on through "The Garden of the Stuarts," past the time of French and Italian influence, through the days when the landscape school carried all before it, and down to the revival of formal gardening at the present time.

The book deals not alone with garden design, but with the influences, political or social, that make the garden in any age an expression of the life and thought of the people; with the herbs and flowers and shrubs and fruits that grew therein; with the old herbalists and their wise saws; and with those who made gardens in England or wrote about them from Tacitus to Tennyson.

Mediæval French Literature. By Gaston Paris. Translated from the French by Hannah Lynch. (The Temple Primers.) London: Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1903.

This little book possesses a sad interest as the last by Gaston Paris. In a measure, it reveals the sources of his strength: his wonderful erudition, his broad outlook, his good judgment, his perfect honesty, his orderly and philosophic mind. A scholar without reproach, possessed of extraordinary knowledge gained by a lifetime of earnest devotion to a subject that he loved, an expositor of singular skill, Gaston Paris was fitted, as no one else has ever been, to write a monumental history of mediæval French Literature. Would that he had lived to perform this task on the large scale which he conceived. The "cyclopædic primer" before us is an excellent compendium of fact, arranged systematically, with due proportion and admirable perspective; but it is too succinct an account to show the master at his best. The plan of the series allowed him little opportunity to reveal the imaginative and literary power so richly his. Perhaps he held himself in too strict restraint. Will his death in the fulness of his power serve to remind others who likewise have much to impart, of the danger of delay in attempting to fulfil their cherished hopes?

The translation of the primer is, we regret to say, painfully inadequate. It is merely a bit of hackwork, always mechanical, often absurd. A glance at the proper names (they are written every which way) would alone suffice to prove the translator's incompetence. Nevertheless, those who cannot use the 'Manuel' in the original must be satisfied with it as it is. Though brief, and too informative for easy continuous reading, it will be found to be the most perspicuous as well as comprehensive and authoritative survey of French literature, from its earliest beginnings to the Renaissance, that is now accessible to English readers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Lyman. The Other Room. The Outlook Company. $1.
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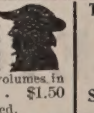

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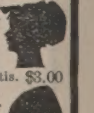

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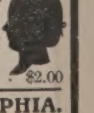

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 16, 1903.

The Week.

The average reader of President Roosevelt's Fargo speech would get the impression that every officer guilty of cruelty to Filipinos had been punished. But the President himself has disapproved the verdicts in the cases of Brig.-Gen. J. H. Smith, Major E. F. Glenn, Capt. J. A. Ryan, First Lieut. E. A. Hickman, First Lieut. J. E. Gaujot, First Lieut F. T. Arnold, and others who were tried for cruelty to prisoners or natives, on the ground that justice was not subserved by the trial courts. First Lieut. E. Hagadorn, who tortured natives by depriving them of water, was never punished until he was landed in the penitentiary for vulgar embezzlement. First Lieut. George DeG. Catlin was never tried for offences against natives, on the ground that he was unbalanced; but he is now on duty again. Capt. Howze has thus far escaped punishment for his offences at Laoag. Gen. Chaffee officially disapproved the acquittals of Major Waller and Lieut. Day, the marine officers, tried for cruelty in Samar, and Gen. Davis has just disapproved the findings in the second trial of Major Glenn. We believe we are correct, therefore, in saying that in every case except that of Capt. Preston Brown, found guilty of murder, the findings of the court have been practically set aside by the highest reviewing officer—a sufficient commentary on the efficiency of the present court-martial system. But President Roosevelt has stepped in where the courts have failed, and, as we have frequently pointed out, upheld the honor and ideals of the service in a courageous and manly fashion (except in the Brown case), declining to be led astray by tales of Filipino barbarities. That any offenders were punished at all is, we believe, due to him alone.

A cablegram from Manila brings the news that Gen. Davis has rebuked still another court-martial for failure properly to punish an officer charged with manslaughter in killing two prisoners of war. Lieut. Joel R. Lee, Tenth Infantry, is the officer accused. The offence was committed in a small town near Misamis in Mindanao. Lieut. Lee took the two prisoners into his quarters for examination as to their alleged connection with a Filipino leader named Rufino Deloso. After questioning the first man, Lieut. Lee turned him over to a corporal with orders to confine him in Lieut. Lee's kitchen, and to shoot him if he "tried to escape." This man was shot within five minutes, and the second met precisely the same fate, having also "tried to escape" from the corporal, although aware of his companion's fate, and himself unarmed. In this case, like that of Major Howze, the charges were preferred by officers, those of the constabulary having reported Lieut. Lee to his superiors. An attempt was made to turn him over to a civil court, where he should have been tried. Instead, he went before a court of his fellows and was acquitted—illegally and in flagrant contradiction of the testimony, according to Major-Gen. Davis, who holds Lee unworthy of acquittal.

The eagerly expected list of army officers selected for duty on the new general staff, as announced on Thursday, will, as a whole, give great satisfaction to the army. Every man chosen is a graduate of West Point, twenty-two classes being represented, from that of 1867 to that of 1897. Thirty of the officers have been graduated since January 1, 1879, and represent the younger and progressive element in the service. Of the other twelve, three saw service in the civil war before entering West Point, and nearly all have been eminent in one way or another—Lieut.-Col. Charles Shaler in the Ordnance, Major Knight as head of the Torpedo School, Major Duvall as a most excellent regimental commander in the Philippines, Col. J. B. Kerr as military attaché in Brussels and Berlin, etc., etc. The excellent character of the selections is best seen in the list of captains. Not one of these belongs to the class of political officers or notoriety seekers, of which there are still too many in the service. Capt. P. C. March, for instance, showed admirable traits as commander of the Astor Battery and lieutenant-colonel of a volunteer regiment in the Philippines; Capt. J. T. Dickman earned an enviable reputation in Panay, as lieutenant-colonel of the Twenty-sixth Volunteers; Capts. Ramsey and Gallagher were respectively the best quartermaster and commissary developed by the China expedition and by service in the field in Cuba and the Philippines. Capt. J. J. Pershing is the humane cavalry officer who is trying to maintain peace with the Moros without further loss of life, and Capt. C. D. Rhodes, an excellent duty officer, has won by his pen the gold medal of the Military Service Institution. These selections (together with the names passed over) will convince the army that the board which made them lived up to its promise to consider merit only. It is undoubtedly the flower of the service which will enter upon its important duties on August 15, and it is noticeable that no charge of cruelty or misconduct in the Philippines has been made against any army officer on the list. There will, however, be some criticism of the fact that seven officers, or one-sixth, came from Corbin's department—the Adjutant-General's.

The full review of the first eleven months of President Palma's rule in Cuba published in Monday's *Sun*, confirms all reports received from independent sources in regard to the progress of the island. So far from coming to the end of their independent career at the end of six months, as was expected by most of the American officers in Cuba, the people, to quote a recent traveller, "seem to have developed a real genius for self-government." President Palma himself has won praise from many sources by his tact and dignified bearing, and finds himself supported in Congress by a safe majority. There has been no disturbance of law and order except one strike, promptly settled, and the country is so evidently peaceable that the Washington Administration properly contemplates reducing the American troops in the island by one-half, and sending the remainder to the new naval stations. In this connection it is interesting to note that the *Sun's* correspondent believes any armed revolution or warlike insurrection to be "quite as improbable as it is in any State in the American Union." The finances of the island have steadily improved under President Palma. Starting with an alleged balance of $540,000 left by Gen. Wood, the republic had in bank on April 1, 1903, $2,638,000—a striking contrast to the years of Gen. Wood's régime, in which he overspent his income by some $1,400,000.

The *Sun's* observer also points out that the recurrent low price of sugar again threatens the industrial safety of the republic. For a time last fall, conditions were so favorable that the leading planters saw a small margin of profit before them, and began operations with that expectation. Now the market is glutted, and only a few of the estates will make a profit. Some may even be ruined. Fortunately, the imports into the island have shown no decrease whatever, and this has permitted the republic to keep up its sanitary work, to increase its Rural Guard, and to continue to employ the large number of teachers left by the Americans. Indeed, in his last message to Congress, President Palma was able to make a most excellent report upon the progress of the schools, including needed consolidations and the cutting down of the alleged enrolment to real figures of average attendance. Even the *Sun's* correspondent sees clearly that the weak point of the last few years has

been the failure of this republic to foster the industries of the island. He is able to speak enthusiastically about the Cuban people's "patience under adversity, their pluck, their industry, their charity toward each other, and their mutual helpfulness." To them, and not to the United States, belongs the credit of averting predicted disaster. "The special pity of it all is," this writer continues, "that the past year has cost the United States a distinct loss of Cuban confidence and respect." It is gratifying to note that talk of annexation is now being indulged in only by the rich plantation owners. Their motive is too plainly that of personal gain.

The municipal election in Chicago was nearly a drawn battle, for although Mayor Harrison is reëlected, his previous majority of 28,000 has been much cut down. The Republicans put their best foot forward when they nominated Mr. Graeme Stewart. Mayor Harrison is quoted as saying after the returns were in, that he regarded the election as a victory for municipal ownership and for the referendum, rather than as a personal triumph for himself. It may be so, and yet Mr. Stewart might have made a similar claim if he had been the successful candidate. The platform on which he was nominated called for legislation which would enable the city "to own and operate street railways and other public utilities," the question of exercising the power to be submitted to the people. The Democratic platform did not differ materially from this. Thus we may assume that Chicago is committed to municipal ownership of public utilities, so far as voting can commit a city. It is perhaps fortunate that the municipality is short of money, and is so hampered by a debt limit that an amendment of the State Constitution will be required to carry the plan into effect. In St. Louis the election resulted in a signal triumph of the Democratic machine which has so long held the city captive, and against which Circuit Attorney Folk has made so splendid a fight in the courts of justice. None of the convicts nominated by Mr. Folk for the State Prison, however, were put up by their party for any other office at this election. Yet, though both parties named good men for the Council, the House of Delegates is stuffed again with representatives of the boodlers. Every candidate endorsed by Mr. Folk was defeated. A very poor showing this as a preliminary to the opening of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition.

A primary election under the new direct-nominations law has resulted in the selection of an anti-machine man as the Republican candidate for Mayor of Baltimore. He had no organization behind him, merely announcing his candidacy and making a personal canvass for the nomination. On the Democratic side, the candidate of Boss Rasin secured the Mayoralty nomination, but in at least one Council district the choice of the primary was a man who made his canvass in the face of machine opposition. These are the results which the advocates of the direct primary have ardently hoped for and confidently predicted. They are certainly more favorable than those recorded in Minnesota, where the notorious "Doc" Ames was a successful candidate for Mayor of Minneapolis at the time of the first experiment. Further details of the Baltimore primary will be awaited with great interest. New Jersey is also to furnish an opportunity for renewed observation of the system. A law enacted by the Legislature which lately adjourned, provides for the nomination of candidates within small political divisions by the direct primary system, and also for choosing in a similar manner delegates who in convention will nominate candidates for the more important offices. This is a variation of the Minneapolis system, but the essential features are retained.

A new libel law, protested against by almost every newspaper in Pennsylvania, has just been passed by the Legislature of that State, and is now before the Governor. The aim of the measure is to protect the pure patriots attached to the dominant party in Pennsylvania from criticism or ridicule, by cartoon or otherwise, in the public press. It prescribes punitive damages to heal the wounds of statesmen whose lapses of conduct are made the subject of the satire of the newspaper artist, and, in the words of a Philadelphia newspaper, strikes a blow at a free press by "opening the door for speculative shysters and unprincipled curbstone followers who may set up factitious complaints." The Republican Philadelphia *Press* calls loudly upon the Governor to veto the bill. Of course he may do so, but he has already shown himself in sympathy with something of the sort. In his first annual message he alluded feelingly to the injustice of criticism of men in high station. Indeed, the descriptions of this bill sound to us very much like echoes of his initial state paper. Opposition to the bill seems especially ungracious to Quay, the reformer. When he took his new vows he had a right to expect better treatment from the newspapers. If they do not accord it to him, what wonder that his Legislature seeks to compel them?

Three business agents of labor unions in this city are under indictment for corrupt practices; in two other cases District Attorney Jerome has proved to his own satisfaction that money has been paid to labor leaders to have grievances "called off"; and in another the District Attorney has produced conclusive evidence of the guilt of a union official. These are the facts upon which a committee of the Central Federated Union bases its report that charges of irregularities on the part of labor leaders have utterly failed of substantiation. It is true that in the three instances last mentioned the District Attorney does not hope to secure convictions in the courts, owing to the timidity of witnesses or the lack of complete legal evidence. But it would seem to us that the information furnished by Mr. Jerome was enough to urge the labor committee very definitely upon inquiry. It is not likely that they really desire to uphold corrupt representatives merely because thus far they have been able to evade the sheriff. Yet this would be a natural inference from the report submitted on Sunday. The Central Federated Union should realize, if its committee does not, that mere whitewashing of walking delegates and other leaders will not do.

Union against union is the formula that explains the strike of some 9,000 carpenters and joiners in this city. The United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, a powerful national body, aims to put the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, a local organization with 2,000 members, out of business. The Brotherhood has absolutely no grievance against any employer on the ground of wages and hours of labor. It strikes because it will allow no "Brother" to work on any job with which a member of the Amalgamated Society is associated. This phenomenon of rival unions is most interesting. It seems to show, first, that the union business is too profitable to permit of monopoly; second, that labor does not as yet trust any union sufficiently to make it sole agent for any trade. The unions can afford to fight it out comfortably and to a finish if, like the Plasterers' their constitutions provide that in case of a dispute with an employer he must pay all the unionists for their "waiting time." Both these Carpenters' unions belong to the American Federation of Labor.

Combinations adjudged to be in restraint of trade are not confined to corporation mergers, as the master plumbers of St. Louis have just discovered. The Association of Master Plumbers was organized, as the local court, under instructions from the Court of Appeals, has decided, in violation of the anti-Trust law. The specific offences were attempts to fix prices, and to restrict the sale of plumbers' supplies to master plumbers only. The suit was brought by a workman who was unable to secure materials, and the decree of the court is that the association must be dissolved. Thus we learn that what is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander. As

there are hundreds of similar associations throughout the country, the influence of the decision, which appears to be based on excellent reasoning, is likely to be far-reaching.

Mr. Henry James, as an admitted expert on the expatriated American, should be called in to settle a case that is troubling our consular service. The question in brief is, When is an American citizen no longer an American citizen? The Consul at Quito finds that business men who speak not a word of English, have lived for forty years or more in South America, and meanwhile have maintained no relations of any sort with the United States, flaunt their American citizenship, and in time of disorder claim the protection of the American flag. Consuls, habituated to all manner of absurd and illegitimate appeals, hardly know what to do in such cases. They cannot afford to treat an American citizen like an impostor, and they naturally do not wish to treat an impostor like an American citizen. In a lesser degree the same condition of things prevails at every large consulate in Europe. The Consul and the generally needy and frequently doubtful American are seldom long parted. No remedy immediately suggests itself, though patience and a sense of humor will alleviate such consular troubles. Possibly as our population becomes less homogeneous and such dangerous elements as the foreign criminal societies are added to the ranks of mere swindlerdom, we shall have to forego some of our happy-go-lucky republican ways and adopt such European fixings as the card of identification, and some form of registration for travellers. The present passport does not help our consuls much. It is too easily obtained by any applicant.

The International Agricultural Congress at Rome turns out to be, in part at least, a high-tariff convention to protect the wheat growers of Continental Europe against American grain and meats. At all events, that is the significance of it, in the view of the leading German representative, Count von Schwerin-Loewitz, who said in an interview on Monday that he contemplated a common understanding between European countries to safeguard their agricultural interests by means of protective tariffs. These tariffs, he thought, should be based on differences in the natural conditions of production. By this he meant that if the cost of producing wheat in America was two-thirds of the cost in Germany, then the German producer should be protected by a duty of 33 per cent., and that the percentage should be computed for each country and the tariff fixed in each accordingly. This would not imply a European Zollverein, yet it would be necessary for each country to act on the principle of the Zollverein, since otherwise American wheat might be introduced into Holland or Italy at low rates, or free of duty, and consumed there, and a corresponding amount of Dutch or Italian wheat be shipped to Germany, to the discomfiture of the Agrarians of the latter country. We remark in passing that this theory of cost of production is the same that was announced by President Roosevelt in his speech at Chicago the other day, except that the latter referred more particularly to manufacturing industry. Mr. Roosevelt said that the difference in cost of production was the true measure of the Republican tariff system, and he assimilated this to the cost of labor, but he did not say how this difference should be computed and reduced to figures.

Chancellor von Bülow's recent boast that Germany is of all European Powers the most eligible for alliances, seems to find ironical confirmation in the report that with Germany, France and England are to control the Bagdad Railway. In this settlement of a long disputed question, one can only see a desire on the part of France and England to limit the ascendency of Germany in Asia Minor. France has little but a sentimental interest in this enterprise as traditional protector of the Holy Land; Germany has the stake of a great and growing trade, as well as a diplomatic position as friend of the Porte; England has prospective commercial gains to consider, and has every interest in a road which strategically touches the Russian lines of advance towards the Persian Gulf. Regarded from any point of view, it is a strange partnership—complicated at the outset by the relations of France and Russia, and subject to all manner of confusion should the Russo-German *entente* into which Bismarck entered regardless of existing treaties, ever be renewed. The tripartite management is no more likely to be stable than the receivership of Egypt under an international commission, and this time it may not be England that will enjoy the honor and emoluments of surviving partner.

The complete collapse of the general strike in Holland is something of a surprise to those who have watched it gathering through many weeks. It appears now that the General Committee of the laborers' unions merely took a desperate chance in the hope of heading off Premier Kuyper's anti-unionist bills. The firm attitude of Parliament in enacting these laws in the face of a general strike has apparently taken the heart out of the labor leaders, who have had the grace to withdraw an empty proclamation. Alarmist reports had evidently credited them with greater power than they enjoy. This is clearly shown by the refusal of many classes of workmen to obey the strike order. Through the imperturbable courage and good sense of the Dutch Parliament and of the Dutch laborer, a very perilous situation has been handled with astonishing promptness and success.

It did not need the death of the Russian Consul at Mitrovitza to make the Macedonian situation critical. It was already so, though the demand of Russia that her slain official be avenged will freshly embarrass the Sultan, and exacerbate a state of affairs which is obviously causing the European Foreign Offices a great deal of anxiety. Mr. Balfour's tone, when last referring to the matter in the House of Commons, was exceedingly grave. Letters from missionaries of the American Board in the troubled region were printed on Saturday, and show how acute the situation is. What is immediately most depressing is the poor success of the programme of reforms, as urged by Russia and Austria and ostensibly accepted by the Porte. On one side is a settled doubt of the Sultan's sincerity; a reforming Sultan is almost a contradiction in terms. This is felt with peculiar conviction by the Albanians and Macedonians, who have had so long an experience of the tender mercies of Turkish rule, and it is their very incredulity and resolution to be quit of the Turk at any cost which, on their side, make the wheels of Austro-Russian reform drive so heavily. The chronic insurrection may be blanketed, for the time being, by some such plan; but that the flames can be permanently extinguished in that way, is least believed by those who know most of the unhappy countries torn by the agitation.

For a really business-like Constitution, commend us to the Servian. A ruler suddenly finds that bad laws have been passed. Under any ordinary form of government he would have to await the slow processes of the courts in a Constitutional case, or work for repeal. All this means time and trouble, and the results at best are uncertain. Where should we be to-day if the Supreme Court had given one more voice against the insular bills? They do things better in Servia. King Alexander finds that Parliament has passed too liberal suffrage laws. Where a mere President must grin and bear it, the Servian monarch abrogates the Constitution for about five minutes, turns out all the offending councillors and lawmakers, and provides for new, denounces the distasteful laws by proclamation, and then proclaims the Constitution once more. All this has an unmistakable—a fairly Balkanic—directness, beside which our habit of passing unconstitutional laws, in the hope that the Supreme Court will decide for the *status quo*, seems cheap and shuffling.

THE MERGER CASE.

Divested of all technicalities, the question presented to the United States Circuit Court in the so-called merger case was whether the union of the Northern Pacific, the Great Northern, and the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroads, by whatever means accomplished, was in conflict with the anti-Trust law passed by Congress in 1890. If it was so, then the combination was null and void, and was liable to be resolved into its original elements, while the persons engaged in it as promoters and participants were punishable at the discretion of the court by fine and imprisonment. The Circuit Court has decided that the combination was of this very kind. An appeal will be taken to the Supreme Court, but there is small probability that the judgment will be reversed. The Circuit Court rests its decision in this case mainly on decisions of the superior tribunal in previous cases which are considered substantially parallel.

The anti-Trust act was reported by the Finance Committee of the Senate on March 21, 1890, on which day Senator Sherman, the Chairman of the Committee, made a speech explanatory of its provisions. He asserted that the aim of the measure was to declare unlawful the trade combinations usually called Trusts, and to prevent them from monopolizing various articles of common necessity, or from putting prices up and down at their own pleasure, to the detriment of the community. It has been assumed by certain persons since the decision was rendered in the Northern Securities case, that the anti-Trust act of 1890 was not intended by Congress to be applied to railways at all, but only to industrial Trusts. The intentions of Congress in passing laws are to be learned from the laws themselves, though in cases where the interpretation of a statute is open to doubt the debates may sometimes prove useful by throwing light upon dark places. Since no exception was made of railways in the terms of the act, they are necessarily included in its prohibitions and penalties; but, as a matter of fact, Senator Sherman, in his opening speech on the bill at the date mentioned, referred to monopolies of transportation as though they were embraced in it. Thus he said: "If the combination affects interstate transportation, or is aided in any way by a transportation company, it falls clearly within the power of Congress, and the remedy should be aimed at the corporations embraced in it, and should be swift and sure." Another point, much discussed both in the arguments of counsel and in the opinion of the court, was anticipated by Senator Sherman in his introductory speech—the point relating to the intentions of the parties to the merger. The Senator said that the intention of those who form such combinations is immaterial. The intention of a corporation cannot be proved. "It is the tendency of a corporation and not the intention that the courts can deal with."

There is one element in the case, over and above its narrow legal features, which points strongly to the affirmance of the opinion just rendered. It relates to the practical results of the merger as a part of railway development, if it goes on unchecked. If a holding company can bind together the three railroads named, is there any limit to such combinations? It is well known that while this combine was in the process of formation, the Union Pacific people were reaching out for the Northern Pacific, and very nearly acquired it. They came so near getting it that the opposing party thought it best to make concessions to them instead of pushing them to extremity. In fact, the Union Pacific interest is even now represented on the Board of Directors of the Northern Securities Company.

The moral to be drawn from the situation is that there is no limit to such mergers except the inclination of the parties in control. Another New Jersey company can be formed to take over the stock of the Northern Securities Company, and of the Union Pacific and its belongings, including the Southern Pacific. This might fitly be called the Central Securities Company. It would control all the trunk lines to the Pacific Coast except one. This one could, of course, be obtained on some terms, and then the monopoly would be complete. Nor is there any apparent reason why mergers should stop when they reach the Pacific Coast. It is as easy to merge eastward as westward. Prudence might suggest that merging should stop short of a consolidation of all the railroads in the country, but the question whether it should have any assignable limits would be a question of profits only. Mr. Morgan and Mr. Hill will not hold their hands if they think that Mr. Schiff and Mr. Harriman may get ahead of them. Conversely, Schiff and Harriman will not be good if they suspect evil of their rivals and competitors, in the business of preparing undigested securities for the American and European public. Hence the future to be faced by the courts, by Congress, and by the people is that of a merger of railroads without any assignable limits. Confronted by such possibilities, we need not wonder that the court sitting at St. Louis rendered the decision now before us.

Not only did these menacing facts and prospects tell strongly against the Northern Securities Company, but the presentation of the law by Attorney-General Knox and his assistant, Mr. Beck, was extremely cogent. Their argument was so arranged as not to strike at other interests, where it was possible to avoid them. The Government's case was not handicapped by unnecessary weight, and yet it omitted nothing essential to success on the main point of dissolving the illegal combination. The law officers of the Government are to be congratulated on a notable victory gained against very able men, backed by a combination of railway capital in excess of one billion dollars—the largest, perhaps, that the world has ever seen. To President Roosevelt this is much the greatest success, not merely accidental, that he has ever gained. It was an accident that made him President, but it was no accident that he directed the powers of the Government into the channel which it took in this judicial proceeding. The United States could alone take the initiative in challenging the legal status of the Northern Securities Company, and it lay in his power to set the machinery in motion to that end, or to withhold it. It is a matter of doubt whether the political bosses who favored Mr. Roosevelt's nomination as Vice-President in order to get rid of him as Governor of New York would do their job the same way again.

There is no reason to suppose that the owners of shares in the Northern Securities Company will lose any money by the dissolution of the company. The underlying securities which they will receive in exchange are of exactly the same value as their present holding. The income derivable from the one class is the same as from the other. Therefore, any apprehensions of financial disturbance from that quarter may be set at rest. A more important question is how far the present decision, if affirmed by the Supreme Court, may be applicable to other mergers. Upon this point it is impossible for anybody to speak with authority, since circumstances are likely to vary more or less in each case.

In the *Political Science Quarterly* of December last Mr. H. T. Newcomb published a long catalogue of railway mergers, which derives fresh interest from the decision in the Northern Securities case. The control of the Central Railroad of New Jersey, for example, was acquired by the Reading Company (not the Reading Railway Company) in 1901 by the purchase of a majority of the shares of the former. The purchase was paid for in cash, which was obtained by issuing collateral trust bonds secured by the purchased shares and by a small amount of other property. The Reading Company controls the Philadelphia and Reading Railway Company through the ownership of its stock. In 1898, the New York Central Railroad Company obtained substantially all the stock of the Lake Shore Railroad Company by exchanging therefor its collateral trust bonds. These were not, however, parallel and competing roads. The New York Central had previously acquired the Harlem and the West Shore Roads, both of which were competing lines, but operating in only one State. In 1885, the Lake Shore Railroad acquired the New York, Chicago

and St. Louis (the Nickel Plate), a parallel and competing line, operating in three States. The New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad in 1898 acquired the New England, a parallel and competing line in three States. The Louisville and Nashville has lately been absorbed by the Atlantic Coast Line. The means by which mergers are accomplished are various: by the purchase of the shares of one company by another; by the leasing of one company by another; and by the creation of a "holding company" to purchase the shares of two or more companies and to lease others. It would seem as though all of these methods of merger were alike obnoxious to the anti-Trust law of Congress, if the roads were parallel and competing and were engaged in interstate commerce.

NO PHILIPPINE "FLINCHING."

President Roosevelt's latest speech on Philippine policy shows that, in the main, he is in accord with the majority of Americans. They feel, as he does, that the subject is a most disagreeable and painful one. Like him, they cast about to find excuses for having violated in the Philippines all their professed principles of humanity and liberty. Only, as he is a rather more ingenuous man than the average of his countrymen, and does his thinking aloud a little more impetuously, he is in danger of pushing the argument further than it can fairly be made to go. He did this in his Fargo speech April 7. Advancing beyond any of his predecessors in apology, and even beyond his own previous utterances, he maintained, not simply that our course in the Philippines was necessary, though unpleasant, not merely that it was really good for the Filipinos, though they might not think so, but that it is exactly what their national leaders really wanted. But this, we submit, is to add insult to injury. It is also to fly in the face of history.

The President cites the language of José Rizal, in 1896, protesting against the rebellion then directed against Spain, and saying that, while he desired "liberty for our country," he desired first a "development of the people." There, said Mr. Roosevelt, you have exactly our "avowed policy" in the Philippines. The martyred Filipino hero was sighing for what "American sovereignty" is doing. The true leaders of the people, the President implies, did not desire Filipino independence. But, to say nothing else of this contention, it is a flagrant case of special pleading. Mr. Roosevelt "claims to be an historian," he has said. As such he knows something about the way popular movements often pass beyond the first intent or avowals of their promoters. Because he could quote from Franklin or from John Adams before the Revolutionary war expressions of loyalty to the English crown, would he argue that the American colonies did not really want independence? Because the Republican party in 1860 disclaimed any intention to interfere with slavery in the Southern States, would he maintain that emancipation was not a legitimate Republican policy? It is nothing short of an affront to the Filipinos to tell them to-day that the noble man whose name was on their lips, and the inspiration of whose example was in their hearts, throughout all their ill-fated struggle for independence, was really against independence! Rizal died, like Nathan Hale, regretting that he had not more lives to give for his "beloved country." He was, at any rate, spared the bitterness of living to be told by his conqueror that the "patria adorada" of his passionate "Last Thoughts" was really a foreign sovereignty!

If President Roosevelt truly wished to produce historical evidence of what the educated Filipinos really desired in 1898, why did he not take the testimony of our own naval officers? Paymaster Wilcox and Naval Cadet Sargent travelled extensively through Luzon late in that year. They bore witness to the good order and efficiency of the Government which the natives had set up; said that nearly all the officials were "men of intelligent appearance and conversation"; and added that there was but one sentiment among "the large number of officers, civil and military, and of leading townspeople we have met." "They all declare they will accept nothing short of independence." But historian Roosevelt sweeps all this aside in favor of a detached saying of one man, two years before. He also sweeps aside the fact that the people did develop sufficiently after Rizal's death to set up an independent government at Malolos, which commanded the admiration of Americans who observed its ability and dignity. That nascent republic the Great Republic destroyed. The beginnings of national life in the Philippines we drowned in blood. If Spain had done it, if any monarchy had done it, America would have flamed with indignation, and Theodore Roosevelt would have been foremost in denouncing it as a crime against liberty. But because we were the ones who did it, we have to justify ourselves; and the latest hypocritical way of attempting that is to maintain that we were only doing what the seers and martyrs of Filipino liberty hoped and prayed and bled to accomplish.

All this, the President tells us, was but our "duty" in the Philippines, and from that duty, he adds, "the American people will never flinch." Well, we hope they will never flinch from telling the truth; and what is the truth about the attitude of the great mass of Americans towards the Philippines to-day? Most of them take no interest in the subject whatever. They dismiss it as something of which they are thoroughly tired, and of which they wish to hear no more. Indifference and neglect are already the lot of the unfortunate islanders, so far as concerns the general sentiment in the United States. And this gives the exploiter and the place-hunter just the opportunity from which they are not in the least "flinching." They are swarming to the archipelago in the spirit which Gen. Chaffee displayed with soldierly bluntness, when he said that he didn't know or care whether the Filipinos hated us, but was sure that the thing for us to do was to wring the last dollar out of them. As for the office-beggars, they are already, as the President knows, taking the position that it is an outrage to give even minor appointments to the Filipino, who, they frankly maintain, is in his own country "nothing but a d—d foreigner."

We, too, believe in a policy of "no flinching" about the Philippines, but the thing we would not flinch from is the hard fact. Let us clear our minds of hypocrisy. Let us say that we are strong enough to do what we like; that we are staying in the Philippines to exploit them; that we do not care a copper what the natives think or wish; and that if anybody interferes with us we will give him a good thrashing. That will be both frank and truthful. So let us march up to it without flinching. We ought to have dregs enough of conscience left, however, to flinch badly when it comes to putting such a Tartuffian gloss upon our conduct as the President attempted at Fargo.

THE POSTAL SCANDALS.

President Roosevelt and his Postmaster-General have a busy season before them if they attempt to calm down, between now and the meeting of Congress in November, the upheaval which has resulted from a quarrel among the lesser dignitaries of the Post-office Department at Washington. The situation there has not been so strained since the days when the notorious commission firm of Brady, Dorsey & Co. conducted under the Department roof their thrifty traffic in Star Route contracts. Then, as now, every responsible man in one branch of the postal service became suddenly afraid of his neighbor, and passed him with a chilly nod rather than be seen in familiar conversation with him; for nobody could guess whose name would be blazoned in the next day's revelations, and isolation and ignorance seemed to be the only isles of refuge. Then, as now, nobody could be induced to "talk," but bureau secrets and private backbitings from no discoverable source found their way every few hours into the public prints.

All accounts agree that the present trouble is not of mushroom growth. It is merely the eruptive culmination of a

disorder which has been going on beneath the surface for years. Gossip has long been rife with the good name of the Department, and veiled hints have been thrown out here and there as to the dreadful things that would be disclosed if a serious investigation should ever be set on foot. Clerks who have persistently been refused promotion have assured their friends that they were passed over because they "knew too much," without trying to explain how it happened that they were not expelled from office altogether lest they should add to their stock of fatal knowledge by a longer stay near the fountain-head. Any officer whose salary Congress has raised, has become at once a target for ambush fire from brother officers not likewise favored, since they could see in his good fortune only a sign that he must have connived at fraud with the lawmakers who engineered the increase, and was drawing his extra pay as hush money in instalments. Naturally, such comments, if they reached the ears of their objects, provoked appropriate retorts. Thus, from the top to the bottom of the Department, an antiphony of crimination and recrimination has been maintained, always in whispers, always by innuendo, to the demoralization of the service and the disgust of the listeners outside.

In justice to all concerned, it should be said that nothing thus far brought to light wears quite the vulgarly felonious aspect of the Star Route exposure. But in such matters ordinary citizens do not draw subtle distinctions. To them the fact that a man close to the seat of authority is interested in a corporation with shares of stock to sell, and that men and women whose livelihood may be dependent on his favor are found subscribing for these shares, is almost as disagreeable as a well-defined case of blackmail. If they learn that one manufacturer of postal supplies is patronized because he has "done right by the party," at the expense of other manufacturers who were only trying to do right by the public, the circumstance wears an ugly look. Prove to them that letter-carriers and delivery routes have been ladled out with great liberality to the districts where they will do the most good when the Department next goes in quest of favors from Congress, and they will condemn the practice, in spite of protestations that all dealings between the executive and legislative branches of the Government are conducted on the give-and-take basis. Show them that a post-office building has been rented of A at $100 a year more than B would have charged for equally good quarters, because A could bring a certificate from the party boss in his State that he had subscribed handsomely to the campaign fund, and those undiscriminating moralists, the common people, will not hesitate to denounce it as stealing.

It is such a state of affairs which the investigation now in progress seems to be bringing out. It will convict nobody of a penitentiary offence, but it will be just as damaging in its moral effect as if the whole crew involved could be railroaded to Leavenworth to-morrow. There were vague rumors in the air that the Postmaster-General, who was credited with having entered upon the inquiry reluctantly in the first place, intended to put an effectual damper upon it when he returned to Washington; but he has taken the first opportunity to refute them. However the disturbance may have begun, and regardless of whom it may drag into disagreeable prominence before it has ended, it has gone too far to have an extinguisher applied to it now, even in the interest of administrative harmony and the Republican party's welfare in the next campaign. The time to think of these things was before a Perry Heath was put into virtual command of the patronage of the Department, for the undisguised purpose of having some one at headquarters who knew the secrets of the campaign of 1896, and could tell whose claims to largess should be O.K.'d and whose rejected.

To take one backward step at this stage, no matter what cause might be assigned for it, would be to invite every possible assumption, by the public, of criminality and dishonor. If the Postmaster-General was really more prudent than the President in forecasting the possibilities of the inquiry while it was still under consideration, he can take to himself the poor consolation of saying, "I told you so"; but the work once started must go on to the end. Mr. Payne is too good a politician not to know that the Democrats in the coming session of Congress will be far less complacent in their attitude toward the Administration than they were in the last, when so many were soon to retire from public life and might wish to be remembered when an Opposition berth on some commission was to be filled. By one means or another, they will surely contrive to draw forth enough of the story of this spring's investigation to give a sensational color to their next year's campaign-book; and the Postmaster-General's only chance of meeting such tactics will be to make his own house-cleaning so thorough as to leave nothing for his foes to scrape up after he is done.

HOW TO FIGHT BRIBERY.

That the crime of bribery, electoral and legislative, is on the increase in this country, we have an accumulation of painfully convincing evidence. One deep of shame answereth unto another—Rhode Island to Delaware, Albany to Harrisburg, St. Louis to New York. Men whose right hands are full of bribes sit in the high places of government, go about the streets with heads erect, are in good repute in society and often in the church. Yet they are confessedly making the very pillars of our public life rotten. Popular elections they are turning into merchandise, and rendering the so-called "will of the people," as expressed at the polls, a thing for corruptionists to sneer at even while they manipulate their purchased voters.

To state the case thus strongly is not to confess it hopeless. Bad as our condition is getting to be, it is as purity itself compared with those sinks of iniquity, the English borough elections of a century or a century and a half ago. Read Franklin's account of the unblushing and colossal bribery in the English electoral contests of the time when he was in London as agent of the colony of Pennsylvania, and you would think that public virtue had ceased to exist. For a later testimony turn to that "Call upon the Clergy" to "come forward and assist in putting an end to Bribery, Corruption, Perjury and all sorts of Infamies," which William Cobbett published in his *Political Register* of December, 1816. His description of the case reads like a letter from darkest Rhode Island or deepest sunk Delaware, but is undoubtedly accurate. Cobbett wrote:

> "You know as well as I do that the land is filled with crimes in consequence of the present mode of election. You know that drunkenness, fraud, calumny, bribery, corruption, false swearing, and in short every species of infamy, are produced by this cause, and that, too, in degree and quantity wholly unparalleled in the history of the world. When I was at Honiton, in 1806, many of the wretched voters told me, in the hearing of witnesses now alive, that they knew how wicked it was to do what they did; but that they wanted the money to pay their rents, and that they should be starved if they did otherwise. Some abused me very foully, and said that in advising them to vote uninfluenced by money, I was endeavoring to *rob* them of their *blessing!* For this was the term they gave to the money which they were to receive. But, indeed, the bribery and corruption, the frauds and false swearings are too notorious to need particular instances to establish their existence."

England, we know, has shaken herself clear of that slough. She did it by means of Parliamentary Reform, Corrupt Practices Acts, and, above all, by a quickened public sentiment and a stern enforcement of the law at the hands of incorruptible judges. If we could adopt the English plan of having contested elections passed upon, not by Assembly or House of Representatives, but by a judicial commission without partisan bias, it would undoubtedly be a great check to the bribers. In some other respects, we do not doubt, our laws might be made more stringent. It might be enacted, for example, that political committees should be compelled to file an account of their expenses. Candidates might be required not merely to make public the sums they spend, but also to limit themselves, as in England, to a certain figure, varying with the constituency. Any or all improvements in

the laws against bribery we should welcome, provided they are simple, direct, and attainable. But in any complicated scheme offered as a panacea we cannot put our trust. The weakness of the remedy proposed by Gov. Garvin of Rhode Island, in last week's *Independent*, is that it contemplates an involved readjustment of our whole political machinery. If we wait for Constitutional amendments and proportional representation to rid us of the briber, we shall never get him down. Existing laws, if rigidly executed, would make prison doors yawn for him and all his abettors and beneficiaries.

To enforce the laws we have, rather than to fly to others that we know not of, is the first public duty of those who would set fire to the "tabernacles of bribery." We are glad to hear that such is the aim of those citizens of Rhode Island who are stung by the revelation of their State's shame and alarmed by her peril, and who, with the coöperation of the clergy and the college professors, are about to open a campaign against the corruption which stalks through their commonwealth. Prison stripes on a few of the agents of boss or candidate, punishment and ignominy for some who sit in public places only to take bribes and pervert judgment, would have a wonderfully clarifying and tonic effect. But neither in Rhode Island nor anywhere else must we make the mistake of striking at the tool and forgetting the principal. It is well that the agent of bribery should not go unwhipped, but what is to be done to the man who both provokes the corruption and profits by it?

Here is the opportunity for public opinion to wreak itself in a way more terrible than statutory punishment. Suppose a moral sentiment could be created throughout the land which would look upon every hole-and-corner briber, every petty corruptor, every local perverter of the suffrage, every retail purchaser of legislation, just as all decent men (even President Roosevelt, at last) have come to look upon Addicks. Of what avail would it be to them, then, to buy their way politically if they had to face on every hand the loathing of all who met them? This is the great weapon against the briber which the honest people of the land have in their own hand. Only, they must wield it unsparingly. When they read in the cynical confession of Boss Brayton that it is the protected manufacturers of Rhode Island who furnish the bribe-money, they must condemn and ostracize the men who give corruptly, as well as those who spend or receive corruptly. The United States Senator from Rhode Island, or from New York, or Ohio, who wins his seat as the undoubted beneficiary of wholesale corruption, must be put in the stocks alongside Addicks. They are all of a kind. And with them must be classed the men, no matter how high they stand in the financial or philanthropic or religious world, who put money into the hands of known corruptionists to obtain legislative favors. They are all tarred with bribery, and its heaviest penalties ought to fall on them. Only thus, by laying judgment to the line and righteousness to the plummet, by exposing and opposing every man, high or low, who has the smirch upon him, can we effectively fight and foil the briber.

MEMORIAL TO EDWIN L. GODKIN.

The files of the *Nation* would be incomplete if they did not contain the following letter, which President Eliot communicated to his colleagues of the Corporation of Harvard College on March 30:

NEW YORK, March 18, 1903.

To the President and Fellows of Harvard College:

Some of the friends of the late Edwin L. Godkin have desired to express their admiration and gratitude for his long and disinterested service to the country of his adoption by some suitable memorial, which should perpetuate his name, and stimulate that spirit of independent thought and unselfish devotion to the public good which characterized his life and distinguished his career.

In view of his scholarly tastes and acquirements, the establishment in some learned university of an annual lecture, or lectures, upon subjects to which he had devoted a large portion of his life, seemed peculiarly appropriate.

An appeal for contributions—very limited in extent—brought an immediate and gratifying response from persons of the highest character, indicative of the estimation in which Mr. Godkin and his work were held; and while the list of contributors included many of Mr. Godkin's friends, it included also many others not in general sympathy with his opinions, greatly enhancing the value of their tribute.

In the selection of a university to administer the gift, it was natural that the one should be chosen—itself an advocate of free speech and liberal thought—in which he was so well known and so highly regarded.

The undersigned, on behalf of the contributors, now have the honor of tendering to the President and Fellows of Harvard College the fund collected for this object—now in excess of $10,000. They leave its administration entirely to the discretion of the University, imposing no conditions other than that the income be used in providing for the delivery and publication of lectures upon "The Essentials of Free Government and the Duties of the Citizen," or upon some part of that subject, such lectures to be called "The Godkin Lectures," and of which there shall be at least one in every year.

It is our understanding, however, that no permanent appointment of a lecturer be made, and that the duty be not assigned to persons connected with the University—although such connection shall not be deemed a disqualification—but that the opportunity be employed from time to time to procure from varied and perhaps distant quarters lecturers of the highest distinction.

Enclosed will be found the check of Charles H. Marshall, Esq., the Treasurer of the Committee, for the sum of $10,500, and some subscriptions now unpaid will be hereafter forwarded.

We also forward a list of the contributors to the fund.

We have the honor to be, very respectfully yours,

(Signed) JAMES C. CARTER,
HENRY C. POTTER,
HORACE WHITE,
JOHN L. CADWALADER,
CHARLES H. MARSHALL,
Committee.

Charles Francis Adams, a member of the Committee, is now in Europe; for that reason his name is not attached.

The Corporation "Voted, that the fund to maintain 'The Godkin Lectures' be gratefully accepted on the terms and for the uses set forth in the above letter of gift."

The selection of Harvard College, it might have been pointed out by the Committee, had a specific fitness in view of the honorary degree conferred by that institution in 1871 on the founder of the *Nation*, then just completing its sixth year. It was Mr. Godkin's personal friends at Harvard whose active interest procured the necessary capital for the launching of his enterprise, and this journal has from the first been privileged to draw freely upon the best spirits and intellects of the oldest seat of learning in the country. The fund now bestowed and accepted will pay back the debt in a manner redounding to the just fame of Mr. Godkin and to the usefulness of the University. The prophet has not been without honor among his own kindred; and his works will follow him.

The raising of the fund and its acceptance set a seal upon character of no little import in a time of reaction from Mr. Godkin's ideals and striving. It would be easy to point to men—Harvard men, scholars, prominent in public life—to whom Mr. Godkin's name is anathema; who have never forgiven, and never will forgive, his preaching and illustration of independence of party; who regard his "Mugwumpism" with an abhorrence not to be excited by any symptom of party dry-rot, of that stealthy infiltration of the forms of republican government with the juices of oligarchy and corruption—a process analogous to fossilization, but which is far deadlier than a dull and stupid conservatism. It is something to have such detractors reminded that their Alma Mater became Mr. Godkin's, *honoris causa*, twenty years ago, and now engages to carry on his life-work in perpetuity.

In no country, however governed, will the theme prescribed for the Godkin Lectures ever become supererogatory. In the American republic it is a burning theme. The breakdown of the representative system with the growth of population; the practical abolition of popu-

lar nomination to office; the well-nigh universal failure to regard office first of all as a public trust; the shocking lapse of faith in the principles of the brotherhood of man enunciated in the Declaration; the spread of commercialism and the rise of the rich to the control of the Legislature; the intolerant and violent extension of protectionism through the trade-union—these are some of the phenomena in the presence of which the honest citizen has to ask himself not only, What ought I to do? but, What *can* I do? May the Godkin Lectures bring him help in this perplexity. May they direct the student's attention away from the Soldiers' Field to the sterner discipline of the closet in sober reflection upon current evils and current tendencies. May they also stimulate Harvard's undergraduates to aspire to as glorious a career in public journalism as the Founder's. If every gentleman's sword should have leaped from its scabbard to defend Marie Antoinette, much more should Mr. Godkin's inspiration for a whole generation have drawn to him battalions of young men eager to work beside him. That it did not, that they came not singly even—we mean with a conscious purpose in the choice of a profession while shaping their college education—is a mystery much to be wondered at and *valde deflendum*.

TELEPATHY.

CAMBRIDGE, April 4, 1903.

On the Italian side of the Alps there is a little chapel which is a type of many others scattered on the slope of the mountains. Its bell has for ages called together the peasants for their morning and evening devotions. It has its shrines for votive offerings, and its precious relics before which one can see the devout worshippers with countenances pathetically wrought with religious fervor. Around the picture of a saint are crutches and canes, mute testimonials of the cures wrought by an enduring presence in the minds of the believers. In the Middle Ages the only light before the altar was a dim taper. Now an electric light swings before the shrine, fed from a far distant waterfall, almost in the clouds, nourished from the eternal snows. My friend and I had been reflecting upon the possibility of transmitting energy from such abundant sources over the entire continent of Europe, and, as we rested in a corner of the chapel, my companion pointed to the electric lamp, and remarked that men in the Middle Ages would have regarded the possibility of lighting the chapel from a distant waterfall, by a mysterious influence transmitted over wires, much as the cynic now regards the possibility of telepathic communication with friends in China. "Just as the humble peasant," said my friend, "puts herself in spiritual communication with a higher power, so may we not find a way to telepath to minds that are attuned to ours?"

The thought thus expressed is in the minds of most of our acquaintances; and when we reason with them and apparently convince them of a lack of evidence, the conversation generally ends by their relation of a marvellous tale of telepathic communication which has happened to them, or more often to a friend, and the story is told with a frank disregard of the laws of evidence. The late advances in the subject of wireless telegraphy has led to a greater confidence in the truth of telepathy. One often hears the remark, "Why is the possibility of the communion of one mind with another without the use of electricity more marvellous than wireless telegraphy?"

It must be confessed at the outset that there is at present no evidence of telepathic communication which would be accepted in a court of law in regard to property, or in a scientific laboratory. The evidence which is adduced and submitted to societies of psychical research cannot be compared with that of the simplest analysis of a chemical compound, or that which gave men the suspicion of the electric action excited by the motion of a magnet. I shall return presently to the fallibility of so-called psychic evidence; at present I wish to dwell upon the utter lack of history in the subject of telepathy as a scientific fact. It is one of the chief characteristics of a science that it has a history, and no subject can arise to the dignity of a science unless it has at least the rudiments of a history. Wireless telegraphy has a past, and is the result of the patient study of almost countless facts, gathered by thousands of workers in laboratories. These facts and phenomena can be studied and the phenomena can be repeated by any skilled person. Telepathy has no history, and if it should be ascertained to-morrow that it is possible, it will be the first instance in the history of science of the discovery of a new manifestation of energy or of a new law of nature which had not been preceded by the patient study of repeatable phenomena. It is therefore safe to prophesy that telepathy will not be a fact until it has a history of repeatable phenomena.

It would seem that abundant opportunity has been offered for the accumulation of reasonable evidence of the action of one mind on another during the past hundred years of active intellectual scientific inquiry. Moreover, the hosts of card players, since the beginning of the powers of ratiocination in man, have been in an attitude of interested attention in regard to the action of one mind on another. Telepathic communication would be of great advantage to the gambler, and to the speculator who plays a larger game on the Stock Exchange. However the latter may romance in regard to telepathy at the club, he never relies upon it where dollars and cents are involved.

We must confess that there is no science in the subject of telepathy; it is a belief. When we examine the grounds of this belief, we naturally ask ourselves, How do we communicate with kindred spirits with even the full use of our faculties of seeing and hearing? Do we not judge of a friend's opinion more by the tones of his voice, the lifting of the eyebrows, the gestures of the hands, than even by his words? When he rings us up on the telephone, we gather his meaning by the accumulated memories of the look which habitually accompanies his speech—his smile, whether it be cynical or optimistic. Two deaf, dumb, and blind persons are not conscious of proximity except from the sense of touch. When we express a belief in telepathy, we indulge in a hypothesis of an occult radiation of vibration of a mind cell, far off in China, perhaps, which can affect another mind cell at the antipodes; and we profess a belief that this radiation, like that employed in wireless telegraphy, can set a mind cell in action and communicate the senses of sight, hearing, and the tactile sense. Otherwise, how can we recognize a friend or penetrate his meaning? This is a large hypothesis; it is not in consonance with scientific thought; it belongs to the realm of demonology and witchcraft. Remember, we are not stating our conviction that telepathy is not possible; we are merely saying that if telepathy becomes an acknowledged fact to-morrow, it will be an unprecedented fact in the history of the scientific advance of the human race. There are, doubtless, more things in heaven and earth than are dreamt of in our philosophy; psychic philosophy seems to have taken these words to heart, and is more than ready to substitute intuitions for strenuous scientific investigation. It must be remembered that there are no limits to scientific inquiry, but there are fatal limits to metaphysical speculation.

My friend, while we rested in the little chapel, dwelt upon the dim beginnings of all sciences, the mystical awakenings to the realization of the presence of new phenomena. He dwelt upon Faraday's seeking for the evidence of invisible lines of force seeming to stretch out from wires along which an electric current flows. We now know that such invisible lines emanate from Marconi's masts, and, passing through empty space, hold in their embrace the distant receiving mast. "Is not," said my friend, "the groping of Faraday to discover such lines of force like the groping of the psychical philosophers to discover the evidences of telepathy?" I answered: "There is no scientific resemblance between the methods of inquiry. Faraday consulted the history of preceding phenomena, and used instruments which had been perfected by systematic study, and without which his discoveries would have been impossible. Moreover, he was trained in scientific observation, and understood that when he entered his laboratory he must leave his intuitions with his coat and hat outside, together with his imagination—both, it may be, to be taken up on leaving, but never to be allowed in the strict limits of the workshop."

My friend, more than half a believer in telepathy, remarked: "Have there not been accidental discoveries? Did not Daguerre discover by accident the wonderful art of photography? Is telepathy stranger than the property of silver to hold for years an invisible image of a friend on what seems to the eye an absolutely blank surface; yes, to hold it for centuries in a sarcophagus on the bosom of a mummy, to be revealed by merely pouring a fluid over it?" Did not Röntgen find a mysterious image on such a photographic plate which had been exposed by accident to the mysterious light from an electric discharge?"

"It is true," I replied, "that many phenomena have been discovered by accident; but only those which have been recognized by scientific observers, or, what is much the same, skilful observers, have come to fruition. An untrained man would, doubt-

less, have attributed Daguerre's phenomenon to the spirits. Daguerre's method of following up the accidental discovery is much to my point. Having left a plate of silver exposed in his dark room for some hours, being interrupted by a caller—the blind instrument of fate sometimes called a bore—he returned, and, to his surprise, found an image on the plate. It had evidently been formed by something in the dark room. He proceeded laboriously to try every chemical or substance there was on his shelves, without effect; he then got down on his hands and knees and searched the floor. In a corner he observed some globules of mercury. He had arrived at the end of his research. Mercury was the substance which had quickly brought out the mysterious image. Röntgen also was a skilled observer, and his study of the accident is a model of accurate observation. The accident was followed by the scientific method of patient inquiry. How many accidents have fallen to men who have not seen their import! How many have come to men who have been intellectually asleep! Hawthorne, with his wonderful insight, has, in an allegory, depicted the opportunities that were offered to the sleeping youth, and the allegory fits the intuitional man who has no training to follow up an observation."

My friend was not converted by my reasoning, and I continued in a somewhat intolerant manner, using unguardedly the word Science in speaking of telepathic science. "I use the word 'Science,'" I explained, "for, under the name of 'absent treatment,' it is called science by certain persons. Absent treatment presents in a concrete form the popular belief in the action of one mind on another at a distance. It assumes what is totally unproved, and its believers employ the word 'Science' to give respectability and credence to what has no claim to be called a science. Absent treatment is credulity masquerading in the garb of Science."

Telepathy has no instruments for measurements; it has no reagents; it has no history of past phenomena leading up to a possibility. Its believers carry their intuitions into their study rooms, or what takes the place of laboratories. It is a subject generally in the hands of persons discredited as trained observers. The only methods of inquiry are listening to the stories of hallucinations, and what may be called the postal-card method of collecting information—a method which permits the romancing correspondent full scope, and results in the collection of a large amount of fallacious statistics. What weight should be given to the answers of untrained observers whose antecedents, early education, and environment are unknown to the collector of such statistics? Reflections upon the possibility of telepathic communication leads one in general to scrutinize severely the weight of evidence presented by the believers. Let us, for instance, contrast the evidence for the true value for the specific gravity of lead with the evidence for telepathy. Scores of scientific observers have measured the weight of lead in comparison with that of water, and have compared their results with the strictest impartiality. The faults of the instruments employed in the measurements are given, and complete information is afforded of the means that are taken to arrive at a result which shall not be influenced in the slightest degree by the personality of the observer. There has been no secrecy, no claims for the mystical effect of moods. Compare this method with that of the psychical observer who brings forward telepathic evidence. Suppose this evidence consists of a message between friends separated by seas and continents. In the first place, is the probability of coincidences given due weight? Is the astronomical difference in time between the places calculated? In order to be scientifically accurate, one must be able to measure this time to at least the thousandth of a second, and this measurement cannot be made by the ordinary psychical observers. How much credence can be given to what is called corroborative evidence, such as the description of a witness at the deathbed and the conversation of those present? How much of this is subsequent cerebration; and what care has been taken to prevent the unconscious collusion of the witnesses and the romancing after the event?

Scientific men are sometimes counted among the believers in telepathy. We must remember that laboratory investigation is so strenuous that many men who have made their reputations by accurate work, in advancing years abandon labors which yield at the best small, though precious, returns, for they find it easier to philosophize and to write out their thoughts than to put them to the test of experiment. When a scientific man takes to such work in psychics and philosophy, the death knell of his scientific career is rung.

My friend and I left the little chapel on the Italian side of the Alps; he with still a belief in telepathy, and I with the reputation of being more or less of a materialist. I have grown to regard this term as one more or less complimentary to one's discriminating faculty.

JOHN TROWBRIDGE.

MADAME DE STAËL AND NAPOLEON.—II.

PARIS, March 25, 1903.

On the 8th of May, 1802, the powers of General Bonaparte were prolonged for ten years. "This is the first step towards royalty," said Madame de Staël; "I am afraid that this man is like the gods of Homer: in three steps he will attain Olympus." The plébiscite of August 2, 1802, made Napoleon Consul for life. He was no longer the nominee of the Chambers, he was the nominee of the nation. At the instigation of Madame de Staël, Camille Jordan wrote a pamphlet on 'The True Meaning of the National Vote.' Necker published a book, 'Latest Views of Politics and Finance,' in which he proposed to establish constitutional laws, made a plan for a liberal Constitution, and expressed alarms on the progress of Prætorian ideas. Napoleon, on receiving Necker's book, exclaimed: "Never shall Necker's daughter come back to Paris." She was at the time at Coppet. The prefect of Geneva received orders not to give her a passport for Paris. She was writing her novel 'Delphine.' When it appeared in December, 1802, it had a prodigious success; in her preface, she addressed herself to "silent France." There was still an Opposition, chiefly in the salons; and to read 'Delphine' became a sign of opposition. Napoleon, who had France with him, never had Paris quite on his side. He said: "I hope that the friends of Madame de Staël have advised her not to come to Paris; I should be obliged to have her conducted to the frontier by the gendarmerie." He passed a severe judgment on the novel—"mental disorder, metaphysical sentiment, shocking mixture of love and religiosity, an appeal to insurrection against all social rules." Madame de Staël was a disciple of Rousseau; she held it as an axiom that the rights of society cannot be placed above the rights of the individual. Her heroine is in revolt against all social rules. Napoleon wished to rëestablish order everywhere. Though he did afterwards divorce Josephine, he was an open adversary of divorce, and 'Delphine' was a plea for divorce.

Madame de Staël was a great Anglomaniac, and she denounced Napoleon's projects against England. This, as well as her attacks on the Concordat, incensed Napoleon more and more. At all risks she left Geneva in September, 1803, and established herself, not in Paris, but in a village near it, Maffliers. She wrote to the First Consul, on her arrival, for an authorization to remain, which, it would seem, was not refused. Many people made visits to Maffliers. Benjamin Constant took a house near Madame de Staël's. Madame Récamier established herself at Saint-Brice, close to her. The police reported Madame de Staël as engaged in a political intrigue (Madame Récamier was a friend of Bernadotte and Moreau). An order to depart was sent to Madame de Staël; she stayed a few days at Madame Récamier's, when one evening an officer of gendarmerie arrived while they were at dinner, and showed a letter, signed Bonaparte, ordering him, within twenty-four hours, to conduct Madame de Staël a distance of forty leagues from Paris. All her friends had tried in vain to influence Bonaparte in her favor, among others Joseph, who offered her his house at Mortefontaine. All she could obtain was permission to go to Germany. She would not return to Coppet like "a bird in a storm." She had for some time longed to visit Germany. "I had," she says, "a desire to strengthen myself by the good reception which was promised me in Germany, and to contrast the friendly reception of the old dynasties with the outrage which the First Consul put upon me, and the impertinence of the upstart dynasty which was preparing to subjugate France." It flattered her to become resolutely before Europe the adversary of Bonaparte, and to organize against him a sort of moral coalition. She probably did not herself realize at first the part which she was going to play; but by degrees she became conscious that she represented liberty struggling against despotism.

On the 13th of December, 1803, Madame de Staël made her entrée at Weimar. She intended to stay only a fortnight, but she remained for several months. Weimar contained at the time the most brilliant intellectual circle of Germany, and Madame de Staël had the privilege of seeing familiarly Goethe, Wieland, and Schiller. Weimar gave her the first lineaments of her book on Germany, which was the idealized image of "poor and noble Germany." At Berlin she was welcomed by the beautiful Queen Louise, and became a sort of lion. The news of the execution of the Duke d'Enghien produced an immense impression in all the German courts; no event could

better serve the vengeance of Madame de Staël. Napoleon affected to laugh at the success obtained by Madame de Staël in Berlin. "What does she say of the Court of Prussia?" he asked one of her friends. "That she has recently seen Prince Louis? Is he still amiable? People are always amiable in the eyes of Madame de Staël when they admire her. Is the Queen still handsome, and the marvel of her sex? Undoubtedly the Prussians are much better than the French."

Necker died on the 10th of April, 1804. It was an immense loss to his daughter, who had always had as much admiration as affection for him. The event did not disarm Napoleon, who was proclaimed Emperor and became more autocratic. From her exile, Madame de Staël denounced the Jacobins, the *émigrés*, who formed the new court, the new dignities which were created; she made pleasantries on those "bourgeois et bourgeoises d'Ajaccio" who surrounded themselves with all the pageantry of an old dynasty. In 1805 she left for Italy, after having assured herself that she would not be molested there by French agents. Her first impressions were not favorable. She found nothing to encourage her in her struggle against despotism. The supersitition of the people horrifies her. She finds too many beggars, too many monks. "Can a people ever rise from this?" she writes to Monti; "what a miserable social state!" Art does not console her, and, as Goethe said, Schiller and Humboldt also, she was a stranger to art. Her daughter Albertine said afterwards: "Mamma liked two things alone in Italy—the sea and Monti." She would give the Duomo of Saint-Peter for a "good Constitution." She afterwards, in 'Corinne,' modified a little these first impressions, but even in 'Corinne' the wrongs of the Italian people produce more effect on her than anything else.

In June, 1805, she returns to Coppet. She wishes to go back to Paris, and her blue lake has a rival in the "ruisseau de la rue du Bac." Napoleon is at the camp of Boulogne, and, amid his preparations for war, he has time to write to Fouché: "Madame de Staël says that I have allowed her to stay in Paris, and she means to stay there. . . . Tell her friends that she must halt at forty leagues from Paris. I must keep out of Paris all the elements of discord. It is not possible that, when I am 2,000 leagues away, at the extremity of Europe, I should allow bad citizens to agitate my capital." Fouché immediately requested the prefect of Geneva, M. de Barante, not to give Madame de Staël any passport for France, and to have her arrested if she insisted on going to Paris. All M. de Barante could obtain for her was permission to reside in Geneva, which was French at the time. She remained in Switzerland during the close of 1805 and the first months of 1806, finding some consolation in the company of M. de Barante, who made frequent visits to Coppet and was the most agreeable of men.

At the end of April, 1806, she travels with Schlegel and her two children, goes to Auxerre, to Blois, to Rouen. At the beginning of 1807, Fouché allows her to reside at twelve leagues from Paris, at a château belonging to M. de Castellane. Napoleon had not complete confidence in Fouché, and wrote to him from Pultusk on December 31: "Do not let that *coquine* of a Madame de Staël approach Paris; I know she is not far from it." And again, in March, 1807: "See that my orders are executed, and don't allow Madame de Staël to be nearer than forty leagues from Paris." He never forgets her: some letters of hers fell into his hands:

"You will see by this letter what sort of a Frenchwoman we have in her. She would have done anything in the world to see Prince Louis, our enemy, madman, and author of the ruin of his monarchy. . . . To-day paying court to the great, the next day patriot, democrat, one cannot but feel indignant at seeing all the forms taken by this ——, and ugly besides. I don't tell you all the projects already formed by her ridiculous coterie in case I should be killed. A prefect of police ought to know that. All that comes back to me from this miserable woman shows that she deserves to be left in Coppet, with her Genevese and her Necker family."

The extracts from Napoleon's correspondence with Fouché are all in that style. In one letter he writes: "You would be astonished if I gave you the details of all she has done in her campaign, since, though 500 leagues from France, I know better what is going on there than the prefect of police."

'Corinne' appeared in the last days of April, 1807. Madame de Staël in vain said that she had written a mere novel, without touching politics. "Bah!" said Napoleon; "politics! Do people not make politics when they write on politics, on literature, on anything else?" He said also: "I cannot forgive Madame de Staël for having lowered the French in her novel." One of the personages incarnates French levity in contrast with the perfect serenity of the Englishman Oswald, the hero of the novel. Corinne is anti-French and an Anglomaniac, and Corinne is Madame de Staël. At Coppet, whither she had been obliged to return, she kept a sort of court; her guests were Madame Récamier, Elzéar de Sabran, Benjamin Constant, Schlegel, Sismondi, Barante. Guizot, still unknown, was presented there, and read to her the famous article which Chateaubriand had just published in the *Mercure* (July 4, 1807): "It is in vain that Nero prospers; Tacitus is still born in the Empire; he grows unknown near the ashes of Germanicus, and just Providence has delivered to an obscure child the glory of the master of the world." In the silence of Europe these allusions had an immense effect. In this autumn of 1807, Prince Augustus of Prussia, then a prisoner of France, obtained permission to stay on parole in Switzerland, and made a visit to Coppet. It is well known that he there fell in love with Madame Récamier, and made her an offer of marriage. Napoleon was informed of all the details of this visit, and complains in a letter of the "evil spirits" which the Prince met at Coppet.

In January, 1808, Madame de Staël journeyed to Vienna, where she was very well received in all the aristocratic circles and attended all the lectures of Schlegel, who had declared a sort of open war against French influence, French literature, and French art, and exalted the old glories of Germany. This communion with the enemies of France deeply offended Napoleon. He was aware that Madame de Staël corresponded with Gentz, the agent of Stadion and of the English policy, subsidized at the same time by Austria and by England, the declared enemy of the French Revolution and of Napoleon. He looked upon her as his mortal enemy, and considered her a dangerous ally and instrument of the coalition which was forming against him.

Correspondence.

THE CINCINNATI MUNICIPAL ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems rather unkind that the *Nation's* recent comment upon the failure to elect a respectable Citizens' ticket upon the 6th instant, in Cincinnati, should put into the mouths of the reformers the stock plea of the "machine," that it is not only a Mayor who is to be chosen but a possible Senator and President. The speakers for reform constantly ridiculed the proposition that any other interest was at stake than that of cleansing the foulness of an especially shameful city government, for which the Republican party management was wholly responsible; but, at the outset, Senator Foraker rushed to the conflict with the ancient alarm, "Elect Ingalls and you threaten Hanna," and all the machine papers took up the cry, which usually has a strangely powerful effect upon many otherwise fairly intelligent voters. The issue of reform was simple and clear, and was so presented by all the advocates of the Citizens' ticket. G. A. T.

Cincinnati, April 11, 1903.

SCRIPTURE FOR IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It has always been my conviction that the boycott was a device of the devil, but I did not know till recently that I had Biblical authority for it: "And he causeth . . . that no man should be able to buy or to sell, save he that hath the mark, even the name of the beast or the number of his name" (Revelations, xiii. 17, Revised Version). J. M. H.

April 7, 1903.

ORANGE EATING ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In one of my letters from Jamaica (*Nation*, No. 1966) I said: "A charming young woman once told me that the only way to eat an orange was to lock yourself in your room and eat it." That was twenty years ago, and the young woman is now a stately matron; but the method to which she thus covertly alluded forms (as my colleague, Prof. John Williams White, points out to me) the substance of what may be called the *locus classicus* on this subject, a passage in Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford,' which appeared just half a century ago. It occurs near the middle of the third chapter, and runs as follows:

"When oranges came in, a curious proceeding was gone through. Miss Jenkyns did not like to cut the fruit; for, as she observed, the juice all ran out nobody knew where; sucking (only I think she used some more recondite word) was in fact the only way of enjoying oranges; but then there was the unpleasant association with a ceremony frequently gone through by little babies; and so, after dessert, in orange season, Miss Jenkyns and Miss Matty used to rise up, possess themselves each of an orange in silence, and withdraw to the pri-

vacy of their own rooms to indulge in sucking oranges."

My words on this innocent subject have evoked so much comment, written or oral or printed, that I venture to think your readers will pardon my reverting to it, and the more readily if, in so doing, I remind them of a book the delightful reprint of which was justly praised in your columns.

C. R. LANMAN.

ORIGIN OF "CAHOOT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The origin of the colloquial word *cahoot* is a puzzle. It is used in the singular or plural in such expressions as "to be in cahoot (cahoots) with a person"—that is, "to be in partnership or to have a secret understanding." I have heard also "to knock out of cahoots," meaning, "to bring into disorder." Some authorities say the word may be a perversion of French or Spanish *cohorte*, "company," "gang," while the Standard Dictionary suggests the French *cahute*, "cabin." From a philological standpoint this derivation seems more reasonable. The word is attributed to Southern and Western United States, but I am sure it is used in central New York. Perhaps some of your readers can furnish information as to its etymology and the history of its use.

CHARLES BUNDY WILSON.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, IOWA CITY, April 4, 1903.

Notes.

A monument to Félix Gras is to be erected in Avignon by the Félibrige, the society—founded nearly fifty years ago by Mistral and Roumanille and Aubanel, with four other Provençal poets less widely known—of which Gras was the chief officer, the *Capoulié*, at the time of his death. The commission for the monument has been given to the author's son, Jean Pierre Gras, who already has ranged himself among the most promising of the younger French sculptors. The fame that Gras won at home came to him, curiously enough, from abroad. His 'Reds of the Midi,' with its sequels, translated from the Provençal by Catharine A. Janvier, was published first in English; and not until it had gone through several editions in this country and in England was it published in Provençal. Still later, he himself translating it, it was published in French. In the end, the work had its great success in France, and received official recognition in the grant to its author of the rosette of the Legion of Honor. Gras never received that decoration which to a Frenchman means so much. His rosette reached Avignon almost at the moment of his death, and he wore it in his coffin for the first and last time The hope is entertained that the fund now being raised to erect a monument to Gras in his home city may be increased by contributions from some of the many American readers to whom his work gave pleasure. In this hope the Félibrige has authorized Mrs. Janvier (who may be addressed in care of Messrs. D. Appleton & Co., No. 436 Fifth Avenue, New York) to receive subscriptions to the memorial fund.

M. L. Greenhalgh, 1135 Madison Avenue, New York, will publish next month for the Dibdin Club of this city 'Three Centuries of English Booktrade Bibliography (1595-1902)'; the first historical part answering to the title, from the pen of A. Growoll, and the second consisting of a bibliography of the catalogues, etc., published for the English booktrade in the period designated, by Wilberforce Eames of the Lenox Library. The edition will be from type, and limited.

The Diary of John Quincy Adams while a student in the law office of Theophilus Parsons of Newburyport, Mass., has been edited by his grandson, Charles Francis Adams, and will shortly be published by Little, Brown & Co., Boston, under the title, 'Life in a New England Town, 1787-1788.'

Ruskin's 'Comments on Dante,' with an introduction by Charles Eliot Norton, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., along with 'The Correspondence between Ralph Waldo Emerson and Herman Grimm,' edited by Frederick W. Holls.

The American Unitarian Association, Boston, announces for speedy publication 'The Founder of Christendom,' by Goldwin Smith; 'Pioneers of Religious Liberty in America,' "being the Great and Thursday Lectures delivered in Boston in 1903"; 'Religious Freedom in American Education,' by Joseph Henry Crocker; and 'The Influence of Emerson,' by Edwin D. Mead.

Emerson's noble essay, 'Compensation,' is to be centennially published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. in a limited edition. They have nearly ready the complete works of Alexander Pope, edited by Henry W. Boynton; 'The Flower Beautiful,' by Clarence Moores Weed; and 'Instructions concerning Erecting of a Library,' by Gabriel Naudé in John Evelyn's translation.

A revised and enlarged edition of Albee's 'Remembrances of Emerson' is to be issued in time for the centennial by Robert Grier Cooke, 70 Fifth Avenue.

'Evolution of the Japanese, Social and Psychic,' by Sidney L. Gulick, is announced by Fleming H. Revell Co., as also 'The Turk and his Lost Provinces,' by William E. Curtis.

Besides the first volume, "Macbeth," of Professor Liddell's Elizabethan Shakspere, Doubleday, Page & Co. promise the Memoirs of M. de Blowitz; a new volume of poems by Rudyard Kipling; a new book by Booker Washington; and a 'Color Key to North American Birds,' by Frank M. Chapman, with 700 illustrations.

D. Appleton & Co. will have ready by the end of May a posthumous novel by Frank R. Stockton, 'The Captain's Tollgate.' A memoir by the author's widow will accompany it, with a portrait and views.

From John Lane we are to have 'A New Portrait of Shakspere,' by John Corbin, with five illustrations.

'Oliver Cromwell, H. H. the Lord Protector, and the Royalist Insurrection of March, 1655,' by Sir Reginald Palgrave, will be shortly published by Sampson Low, Marston & Co., London.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, issue directly 'The Souls of Black Folk,' by W. E. Burghardt Du Bois.

Dr. Anton Bettelheim's 'Biographisches Jahrbuch and Deutscher Nekrolog' has been subsidized by the Prussian Government, and the four volumes 1896-1899 will now be continued uninterruptedly. For the intervening years, the editor and the publisher, Georg Reimer (Berlin, W. 35 Lützowstrasse 107), desire friendly contribution of data for the preparation of careful obituary notices of eminent Germans conformably to the original plan of this important and patriotic enterprise.

The recluse of Little Grange would heartily have approved the latest attempt to popularize his favorite Crabbe, whose poem 'The Borough' is now reprinted from the first edition of 1810, among the "Temple Classics" of Bell-Macmillan. Mr. Henry Williams, who supplies notes, has had in view a public needing to be told who Homer and Pope were; but, indeed, he had some difficulty in finding a pretext for notes to these village vignettes. The most welcome feature is Crabbe's portrait, from Chantrey's pencil sketch in the National Portrait Gallery — a rugged, weather-beaten face and fine forehead.

The same handy series further extends itself with Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome,' with nothing superadded from any other hand; and Goldsmith's 'The Bee, and Other Essays,' from the editions of 1759 and 1765, with Mr. Austin Dobson's oversight and annotation. There is a portrait in each case, Goldsmith's the familiar Reynolds; Macaulay's less well known. Mr. Dobson gives a list of the twenty-nine essays contained in the (second) edition of 1766.

A pocket volume smaller than the foregoing combines Matthew Arnold's General Introduction to Ward's "English Poets" and his critique of Stopford Brooke's 'Primer of English Literature' ('Essays on the Study of Poetry,' etc., Macmillan). The compound is worth taking.

Mrs. Gertrude Atherton's 'A Few of Hamilton's Letters' (Macmillan) is pretty certain of a favorable reception, we imagine, from a portion at least of the numerous public which has enjoyed 'The Conqueror.' The published writings of American statesmen belong, we fear, to the class of books much bought but little read, while the high prices which many of the standard editions command are, for most people, prohibitive. Mrs. Atherton's collection, of course, offers little to the specialist, but the eighty-four pieces —only fifty-five of them, by the way, of Hamilton's writing—give an instructive view of Hamilton's public activity. The most important letters are the one to Laurens telling of the André affair; the long letter to Duane, in September, 1780, pointing out the defects in the existing scheme of government and proposing remedies; the account of Hamilton's retirement from Washington's staff, in a letter to Schuyler; and the letter to Washington, September 9, 1792, apropos of the dispute between Hamilton and Jefferson while members of the Cabinet. The novelty of the collection is Hamilton's account, found in the Royal Library of Copenhagen, of the great West Indian hurricane of 1772. As the work of a boy of sixteen, the letter is remarkable; but the hysterical reflections, moral and religious, which make up the larger part of it, are a curious illustration of what, in that day, often passed for piety.

'Academic Honors in Princeton University' is a compilation of all such awards recovered from the records and the newspapers of the time. There are acknowledged and unavoidable omissions in the earlier years. To rehearse the names that afterwards became noted, especially those belonging to the first half of the life of the

college, would be merely calling a roll, for there is no space for comment; but it would be a distinguished roll. This compilation is a valuable contribution to a special class of records, with a direct interest for Princeton men. It has been carefully prepared and edited by John Rogers Williams, although, regardless of "the crime of 1896," the South East Club might find it difficult to identify the entry assigned to it (p. xxvii.). The publication reflects very high credit upon "The University Press" of C. S. Robinson & Co. of Princeton.

Justus Falckner (1672-1723), hitherto known as a minor hymn-writer, came from a line of Saxon pastors, entered the University of Halle in 1693, emigrated in 1700, lived for three years among the pietists on the Wissahickon, was admitted to the ministry at Gloria Dei, Philadelphia, by three Swedish clergymen "owning fealty to the archbishop at Upsala," and for the rest of his life was pastor of New York and Albany, with all the region between and outlying territory in New Jersey and Long Island. This pioneer worthy is now celebrated in a monograph by Dr. Julius F. Sachse (Philadelphia, printed for the author), offered as a "bicentennial memorial of the first regular ordination of an orthodox pastor in America." No reflection is perhaps here intended on the types of religion then prevalent in New York and New England, though Falckner's ministry aimed to protect his scattered flock from the errors of Calvinism, as his book of Instruction, printed by Bradford in 1708, sought "to uphold their faith and controvert the arguments of the Reformed"; yet "regular" and "orthodox" here evidently mean "Lutheran," for Dr. Sachse can hardly intend to lay stress on ordination by a distant bishop through a proxy. In 1703 considerations of doctrine might outweigh everything concrete and practical, but it is curious to see that view insisted on now. Apart from this peculiar claim, which is put forth as the *raison d'être* of the book, its quaint details and numerous illustrations have interest for students of early Pennsylvania history as well as for Lutherans.

There is no more devoted and patriotic work being done in America to-day than that of a group of teachers at Berea in the Kentucky hills. Every one who believes in expansion of the best type will therefore read with interest the account of the 'Birth of Berea College,' written by the Rev. John A. R. Rogers, himself one of the founders of the institution (Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.). Mr. Hamilton Wright Mabie, in his introduction, truly calls this story "one of the spiritual romances of American life." The temper of the pioneers is sufficiently indicated by the three questions they put to themselves at the meeting constituting the college: (1) Is there a demand for a college in this region? (2) Are we the men called by God to carry it forward? (3) Is it to be wholly for God, and not for our own glory? The spirit in which the task was undertaken goes far to explain the fortitude with which it was continued even through the perilous times of the Kuklux Klan. When we wish to impress the foreigner with our educational zeal, it might not be amiss to tell him something of Berea.

To reap the advantages of peace, the Government of Cape Colony has produced, through P. S. King & Son, London, a truly attractive volume, 'Cape Colony for the Settler: An Account of its Urban and Rural Industries, their Probable Future Development and Extension,' edited by A. R. E. Burton, F.R.G.S., an experienced South African journalist. A description of physical conditions is followed by a chapter on lands and land laws, statistics of population, public debt, revenues, trade, transportation, constitution, etc.; others on fruit and rice culture, wheat and rust, lucerne growing, irrigation, dairying, sheep and goats, animals (including ostriches), etc. To this succeeds a gazetteer of the several divisions of the Cape in alphabetical order; and various appendices complete the information desired by the settler. There are maps of rainfall, and others showing the distribution of animals. Add twenty-nine photographic views of a practical nature, *e. g.*, that showing an ostrich hooded for the plucking. The relation between these birds and the lucerne on which they feed, and again between them and irrigation which ensures the lucerne crop; between these two factors, again, and the lucerne butter "that fetches the highest market price"—is one of many interesting revelations in this well-written manual.

It is perhaps not too late to call attention to a work which possesses additional interest through the recent appointment of its author to the position of French Ambassador to the United States. M. Jusserand's 'Les Sports et Jeux d'Exercice dans l'Ancienne France' (Paris: Plon) is dedicated to the contention, which it sufficently justifies, that the modern interest in sport is of French rather than of English origin. Its five hundred pages are replete with suggestive information in regard to the development of out-of-door exercises, and to their influence on character and social life, chiefly, of course, in France, but with continual references to contemporary conditions in England, whose history and literature are so familiar to M. Jusserand. The book has the fund of curious information and the charming style characteristic of its accomplished author.

The most attractive article in the *Annales de Géographie* for March is the illustrated account of the typical Picardy village, with its long street lined on either side with barns, the dwellings being at the back of the farmyard. The life, however, which led to these conditions is rapidly disappearing through the migration of the villagers to the towns. In one commune, consisting of 200 houses, only 42 were inhabited in 1901. Among the other contents are notes upon the geography and ethnography of a part of the French Congo and upon the natural resources of the Ivory Coast, the most promising of the West African possessions of France. In a sketch of the map changes occasioned by recent explorations in this region and in Liberia, considerable space is given to an attempt to show that the 'Narrative of a Journey to Musardu' is a pure fantasy, to be relegated to the class of fables. "Le livre a été publié à New-York par les soins de l'Institution Smithson, qui a distribué la plus grande partie de l'édition à ses membres. On s'explique mal cet intérêt singulier d'une institution privée d'Amérique pour le voyage d'un noir libérien dans son propre pays." But the Smithsonian Institution is in no way responsible for the book. Benjamin Anderson, a young man educated in Liberia, of pure negro blood, and at one time Secretary of the Treasury under President Warner, volunteered to undertake the exploration, the means being furnished by Messrs. Henry M. Schieffelin and Caleb Swan of New York. His narrative was printed by S. W. Green in New York in 1870, and, according to an introductory note by Prof. Joseph Henry, "the principal portion of the edition has been presented to the Smithsonian Institution by Mr. H. Maunsell Schieffelin, for distribution." Trübner put a portion of the edition on the market.

Prof. Max Koch of Breslau, who founded the *Zeitschrift für vergleichende Litteraturgeschichte* in 1886, has discontinued his connection with that learned organ of research in the field of comparative literature, and has founded a new journal, *Studien zur vergleichenden Litteraturgeschichte* (Berlin: Duncker), which is now beginning its third volume. The bibliographical supplement of Dr. A. L. Jellinek, which at first formed an integral part of the *Studien*, is now published quarterly as the *Bibliographie der vergleichenden Litteraturgeschichte*, by the same publishers. Professor Koch's old *Zeitschrift* has, however, not suspended publication, but is being continued under the excellent editorship of Prof. W. Wetz of Freiburg and Dr. J. Collin of Giessen, who have divided the responsibilities of their extended field, the former having charge of the studies in English and Romance, the latter in the Germanic literatures and folklore.

The "Reformgymnasium" scheme is evidently gaining favor among the educators of Germany, as the Frankfort and Altona schools, which best represent this type, are being imitated in the case not only of other secondary schools for boys, but of the majority of the Mädchengymnasia. Of the fourteen women's colleges, or secondary schools leading up to the universities, which have been established in Germany since 1893, only two, those of Königsberg and Munich, are modelled afer the old-fashioned classical gymnasium. All the others have "Reformed" courses, or a combination of these with the semi-classical Realgymnasium plan. The central thought of the Reformgymnasium is the substitution of a six years' course in the classical languages for the traditional nine years' course; the first three years before the study of the languages is begun being devoted to scientific branches. The total enrolment in these women's colleges is about four hundred, and they have a course ranging from four and one-half to six years, the completion of which entitles the graduate to a *testimonium maturitatis* of the university. Baden alone has, besides establishing regular girls' colleges, permitted girls to enter the classes of the boys' gymnasia, but this permission is limited to Pforzheim and a few other towns. The majority of these women's colleges were founded and maintained by women reform associations, chiefly the "Frauenbildungs-Reform." They exist in Carlsruhe, Berlin, Leipzig, Baden-Baden, Königsberg, Hanover, Stuttgart, Breslau, Munich, Frankfort, Hamburg, Cologne, Schöneberg, and Charlottenburg, in chronological order; the last seven having been established in the last three years.

The new educational budget of Prussia has set apart 57,000 marks for the estab-

lishment of a Royal Academy to be founded in the province of Posen, this being the latest method adopted by the Berlin authorities in the contest between the Germanic and Slavic elements in the eastern district of the kingdom. The academy is to establish regular scientific courses of instruction and lectures for the educated classes and the officials, and a series of popular courses and lectures for the masses, with admittance by special permission. Fees are to be charged, and the total income is to be used for books, appliances, etc. An extra donation of 30,000 marks is to cover the cost of initiating this work. Special buildings for the purposes of the academy are to be erected in the near future.

Mr. Ellsworth Huntington, A.B., Beloit, '97, has lately been awarded the Gill Memorial by the Royal Geographical Society of London, in recognition of his explorations while science master at Euphrates College, Harput, Turkey, 1897-1901. Mr. Huntington has been in the Graduate School at Harvard University since 1901, and has just been appointed Research Assistant by the Carnegie Institution. He will soon go with Professor Davis to join Professor Pumpelly for a summer of exploration in Turkestan.

A Harvard summer course in geology will be held in the mountains of southwestern Colorado under the direction of Mr. C. H. White, during July and part of August. Three scholarships of $200, $150, and $125 are available for the course, and are open to general application from teachers and students in any institution for men. A circular descriptive of the course may be had by addressing Mr. White at the Rotch Building, Cambridge, Mass.

The Italian Minister of Public Instruction has just issued an order that students of foreign nationality desiring to be regularly admitted to the first year in any Italian university, need present only a certificate showing that they have completed a course of study such as would admit them to any university in their own country in the particular faculty (arts, law, medicine, etc.) in which they desire to be enrolled in Italy. Students of Italian parentage and citizenship may also be admitted on the same liberal terms, provided they can show good reason for having completed their preparatory studies outside of Italy.

A correspondent writes:

"Every one knows that there is nothing further from the spirit and practice of the *Nation* than intentional injustice to any individual mentioned in its columns. Yet such a thing may occur by accident, as in the case of the poet James Vila Blake, whose recent volume of sonnets was reviewed in the issue of March 12, and the review commented upon by 'A. B.' two weeks later. Both reviewer and correspondent seem to have fallen into the trap set for the unwary who are content with half-knowledge. One can forgive the latter for his suspicion of plagiarism on the part of the poet, knowing nothing as he does of the volume under discussion save the two samples of verse quoted by the reviewer; but suspicions resting on such slight evidence had better not be rushed into print. If 'A. B.' will take the trouble to consult a copy of the book itself, he will find on page 2 of the notes that Sonnet lxxxvi. is ascribed by Mr. Blake to Lessing's fable."

—'The Georgian Period: A Collection of Papers dealing with "Colonial" or XVII.-Century Architecture in the United States,' edited by William Rotch Ware (Boston: American Architect and Building News Co.), is concluded at length with volume three. We have found little but praise to give to the work from the beginning, because it undertakes simply the business of record and preservation as completely and intelligently as possible, while hardly attempting criticism. With this aim in view, the editors have given to the book a not strictly uniform treatment. In some cases there has been writing in the form of monographs about special buildings—some church or country house, not much known and perhaps wholly "unpublished," described at once by camera and in words. In other instances, a general essay has been furnished, such as "The Greek Revival and Some Other Things," apparently by one of the editors, as the article is not signed; or, "Savannah and the Far South," by C. R. S. Horton. The diverse character of the matter furnished may best be exemplified by noting the appearance, in the final number, of a treatise on the Boston State House, made up of speeches by celebrated men, and essays contributed to the papers, at the time when there was talk of doing away with the "Bullfinch front" of the State House. Mr. Charles A. Cummings, author of that 'History of Architecture in Italy' which we value, the Rev. Edward Everett Hale, and Col. Henry Lee Higginson were these helpers in time of need, and it is recorded that the movement to save the State House was the immediate cause of the publication of No. 1 of the Georgian Period. No. XII., and last, ends with an "envoi" signed by the editor, William Rotch Ware, which gives thanks to those who have helped in the preparation of the work; and especially to Mrs. Thaddeus Horton for general papers on Southern work and her numerous photographs, some procured "through the use of her own camera." So ends the most important work on architecture yet produced in America—most important, because the only one in which a subject peculiarly American is treated in an exhaustive way. The dwellers in more historic lands than ours find means to produce special treatises of this kind in great numbers, and still those of us who are inclined to study architecture crave more and ever more special treatises, whether devoted to one building, to one geographical group of buildings, or to one class of buildings considered more logically with reference to their architectural character. Here in the United States there seem to have been but two opportunities for such specialized treatises: one of them would be devoted to the Spanish convents and missions of the West; the other, devoted to the English, to the transplanted English, architecture of the East and South, we have here before us.

—The Bibliographical Society in London, when it does not dabble with the present, keeps on doing sound and useful work in a quiet way. Little is heard of its publications, though they often represent hard study and careful research. The latest—the tenth of the illustrated monographs issued by the society—is a volume on 'Early Oxford Bindings,' by Mr. Strickland Gibson, printed at the Oxford University Press. The subject is full of interest. There seems to have been an important school of bookbinders in Oxford from the old monastic days, for the records go back to the twelfth century if the surviving examples of their work do not. That this school or guild became a powerful body is likely enough. It gave the name of Bookbinders to tenements and a bridge that figure in the old chronicles, while even to this day there is a Bookbinders' Yard in Oxford. The bindings are an eloquent proof that there were many accomplished craftsmen among these binders, of whose history Mr. Gibson gives a short sketch down to the middle of the seventeenth century. He has not allowed himself space to go into detail, nor has he endeavored to do more than collect the main facts and state them briefly. The bibliographer, as a rule, appears to have a rooted objection to writing anything that is readable, as well as reliable, though it is hard to say why. However, within the bibliographical limits he has set himself, Mr. Gibson's work is excellently done, and his book will prove of immense use to the student. For his introduction is followed, first, by a descriptive list of stamped bindings, arranged chronologically down to about 1516, and it is curious to find that the oldest, now possessed in the Bodleian, goes no further back than 1460, "or shortly after." Of the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, there remain no examples that have as yet been identified as Oxford work. After this list come descriptions of the stamps, with measurements; a list of rolls arranged chronologically, from the beginning of the sixteenth century; some account of centre-pieces; a chronological list of the binders themselves, or of so many as are known by name; extracts from the Bodleian day books and account book; and, finally, fairly well reproduced examples of the bindings, as well as of the stamps and rolls used in their decoration. It will thus be seen how helpful the book must prove in the future to all those who make a study of the history not only of Oxford, but of the art of bookbinding. There is an ample index of persons and places mentioned, and also a list of illustrations and plates. In a word, the book is an admirable demonstration of the patience, skill, and industry of the modern bibliographers. As it has been issued in loose brown-paper covers, it gives a good chance to the enthusiast to have it bound in a manner worthy of the subject, and thus show that the art of bookbinding is not altogether dead.

—The fluctuations in the book salesroom are equalled only by those of the Stock Exchange. The Kelmscott Press Chaucer, which had virtually touched the hundred pounds mark in England, and this not much more than a week before, was sold the other day at Sotheby's in London for seventy-five pounds, a "slump" of nearly one-quarter in its selling price. Of course, it may go up again, there may be further fluctuations; but it looks as if the general tendency now would be downward. The reasons for this are evident. Not only is the "boom" of Morris on the wane, but there are two other causes for a decline in the value—that is, from the collector's standpoint—of his Chaucer. First, when it is considered that, within a few days in the same salesroom, a unique copy of Dante, with the illustrations attributed to Botticelli, brought only a thousand pounds, it is utterly absurd that

one copy of a book of which an edition of four hundred and twenty-five on paper and thirteen on vellum was published only a few years ago, so that all the copies are still in existence, should bring one-tenth of this figure; especially as many copies are changing hands, like shares, all the time. And, again, it is by degrees becoming more widely known, though it has been perfectly well known to booklovers in England all along, that the drawings for the Chaucer were really not by Burne-Jones. This artist made a series of rough pencil notes, suggesting the subjects and the composition, and they were then carried out by Mr. Catterson Smith and others, who turned the slight pencil sketches into elaborate compositions in pen-and-ink or pencil. The book may be, or rather is, after its fashion a truly magnificent example of printing, but, artistically, Burne-Jones had very little to do with it—how little, whoever saw his pencil sketches when they were exhibited in some of the London galleries must know. They were hints and suggestions, and not much more. And as it is partly for the illustrations that the book has been prized so highly, this fact must in the end make a difference.

—The Oxford Dictionary now takes a hand in the Bacon-Shakspere controversy, pointing out, in its current issue, the great extension of the use of *out-*, "as a prefix forming verbs with the force of surpassing or outdoing," which began about 1600. Shakspere's part in this, continues the editor, "as our earliest authority for many *out-*verbs, and the introducer of the phrases of which the earliest types are 'our prayers do out-pray his,'" is preëminent, whereas "phrases of this kind, and, indeed, *out-*verbs as a class, were apparently eschewed by Shakspere's contemporary, Bacon." "Shakspere uses fifty-four of these verbs, for thirty-eight of which he is our first, and for nine of them our only authority"; but "we cite Bacon only for two," and one of these had been in common use in archery for seventy years. Ben Jonson "used the *out-* verbs nearly as freely as Shakspere, without, however, yielding anything like the same number of first instances." We owe to Dr. Murray's extreme courtesy the privilege of giving Shakspere's list complete beyond the limits of the Dictionary's instalment (Onomastical-Outing). The verbs in italic occur first in Shakspere; those in small capitals, first and alone in him: Outbed, outbrag, outbrave (first in special sense), *outbreath* (put out of breath), *outburn*, OUTCRAFTY, *outdare*, outdo (special), OUTDWELL, outface, outfly, OUTFROWN (and in nineteenth-century echoes), outgo, *outgrow*, OUT-HEROD, (nineteenth century), OUTJEST, outlaw, outlive (special), *outlook*, *outlustre*, OUTNIGHT, OUTPARAMOUR, OUTPEER (nineteenth century), *outpray*, *outprize*, outride, *outroar*, outrun (special), *outscold*, OUTSCORN, *outsell*, *outshine*, outsleep, outspeak, OUTSPORT, outstand (special), *outstare*, *outstay*, outstretch, outstrike (special), outstrip, *outswear*, OUTSWEETEN (nineteenth century), outswell (special), *out-talk*, *out-tongue*, OUTVENOM, outvie, OUTVILLAIN (nineteenth century), *outvoice*, *outweigh*, outwear, outwork, OUTWORTH. Bacon's brief list is: Outcompass and outshoot. Dr. Murray remarks that in 1800 Shakspere alone could be cited for fourteen words on his list; in the next century five of these reappear as echoes. Indeed, thanks to Scott, who was "to a large extent the discoverer of Shakspere," the reverberation has gone on ever since the Romantic revival.

—At a timely moment there reaches us a new edition of the Latin version of that Dutch morality, "Elckerlijck," which, under the English name of "Everyman," has lately been attracting no small audiences of the elect in several American cities. This is the version called "Homulus" by its author, who was apparently Christian Stercke (alias Ischyrius), first published in 1536. Between then and 1548 it passed through at least eight impressions, and is now reëdited by Alphonse Roersch (Ghent: Librairie Néerlandaise), who a few years ago discovered in the archives of Maestrict about all that is known of "meester Christaen," the struggling pedagogue-in-chief of that unappreciative town. In his introduction, Roersch gives a bibliography of "Homulus," the variant readings of five editions, and a few pages of notes on the language and style of the version. There are also several reproductions of woodcuts with which the first edition was adorned. The little book, a pamphlet of some hundred and odd pages, will be welcomed by many students at our universities whose interest in the various forms of this morality has recently been stimulated by the remarkably successful performances of "Everyman" to which we have referred. We may add that the new firm of Fox, Duffield & Co., in this city, make their first bow to the bookish public in a handsome reprint of the "Everyman" now being produced. The form is appropriately reminiscent of the Elizabethan quartos: the cream-toned paper, old-faced type, and gray board covers, all most tasteful. The text is reprinted from Hazlitt-Dodsley, and the illustrations are selected from John Skot's edition of 1529. The erudition of the slight introduction is somewhat ragged, and, since such a text is not for the unschooled public, one could wish that one of the old editions had been followed *literatim*, rather than the presumably bad Hazlitt-Dodsley version. But here it is, at any rate, the best of the old moralities, easy to read and fair to look upon.

—Paris, as we remarked the other day, apropos of the commotion in the Louvre over the tiara, is a great centre for the forging of antiquities. There has just been discovered in the suburbs a thriving factory for the fabrication of Egyptian mummies, cases and all. These were then shipped to Egypt, and in due time returned as properly antique corpses. As regards mediæval antiquities, a very funny story is now current. A certain clever workman in stone made to the order of a dealer in mediæval antiquities a Venetian chimney-piece of the fifteenth century, and received for his work some two or three thousand francs. The dealer shipped the chimney-piece to Italy, and had it set up in a palace near Venice, bringing back to Paris photographs of the palace, and of the chimney-piece *in situ*. By means of these photographs he aroused the interest of a rich collector, who sent his secretary to Venice to make sure that the photographs did not lie, and, on his favorable report, bought the thing for 50,000 francs. On the arrival of the article at his house in Paris he sent for some workmen to open the cases. One of them appeared to him to go about the work rather carelessly, and he remonstrated with the man, who answered: "Have no fear, sir; I know just how it needs to be opened, for I packed it when it left Paris."

—There has been of late a kind of symposium in some of the French reviews on the state of their journals. The conclusion, as stated by M. E. Pierret in the *Réforme Sociale*, is excessively gloomy. The *Débats* and the *Temps* alone maintain a creditable position; the rest are decadent to the last degree. Not that there is any lack of literary skill—the writing is clever enough—but the subjects treated are petty and vile. There is no foreign news, no foreign correspondence; if anything of this kind appears it is borrowed from the *Temps*. Some of the German papers publish in a single dispatch more words concerning a session of the French Chamber than a French paper will publish in a month concerning all that takes place in Germany and in Austria. A newspaper is properly supported by its advertisements, but the French papers have killed the goose that laid the golden eggs. Girardin, when he inaugurated the cheap press maintained by advertising in 1835, said, "La quatrième page est un mur, y affiche qui veut." But the temptation to win a brief advantage by concealing advertisements under the guise of reading matter has proved too strong, and, as a result, advertising has fallen off. Deprived of this legitimate support, the press has felt obliged to prostitute itself. It resorts to blackmail; it sells its speech for silver and its silence for gold. It was paid for swindling the public concerning the Panama Canal; it was paid for keeping silent for two years concerning the Armenian massacres. The criticism of books, pictures, plays, is bought; what is not paid for is ignored. But what is so easily bought is not worth paying much for, and venality has had to be more and more supplemented by "pornographie." Here the lowest depths would seem to have been reached; the limit of revenue attainable by corruption has been touched. In spite of M. Pierret's rhetorical exaggeration, his witnesses bear out his case, and we can but shudder at the lessons now taught the French people by what is the most effective, and should be the most elevating, of educational agencies.

GENERAL GREENE IN SOUTH CAROLINA.—I.

The History of South Carolina in the Revolution, 1780-1783. Volume IV. and last. By Edward McCrady. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xxvii., 787.

At the close of the third volume of his great history of South Carolina, in which the account of the Revolutionary War was brought down to the end of 1780, Mr. McCrady threw out a hint that his treatment of the succeeding period, when American military operations were under the direction of Gen. Nathanael Greene, would not be in the eulogistic strain hitherto common, but would seek to do justice to the partisan leaders whose exploits the author had already dwelt largely upon. The volume now before us, completing Mr. McCrady's undertaking, fulfils this promise with truly

extraordinary vigor and assertiveness. The book is, in fact, one long indictment of Greene, in which his personal character, his military career, and his attitude towards the Southern leaders are attacked with a severity and bitterness not easily paralleled in recent historical writing of the larger sort. Those who have read Mr. McCrady's previous volumes are already aware of his positiveness of expression, his confidence in the soundness of his own positions, and his extreme sensitiveness about the honor and achievements of his State; but they will hardly be prepared for so extreme a setting forth of the case against Greene, or so sneering a depreciation of Greene's motives and work, as run through the present volume from cover to cover.

Mr. McCrady's indictment of Greene, though touching upon nearly every detail of the latter's public life in the South, relates principally to six points: first, Greene's fitness for his position as commander of the Southern Department; second, his attitude towards the partisan leaders, especially Sumter; third, his distrust of militia and confidence in the superiority of regular troops; fourth, his military achievements and reverses; fifth, his relations with the Government and people of South Carolina, particularly during the period just preceding the evacuation of Charleston; and, last, his connection with the firm of Banks & Co. The evidence adduced on these several points, scattered as it is throughout a large volume excessively packed with detail, cannot possibly be presented with much fulness within the limits of this review, and is difficult to summarize with much brevity. The importance of Mr. McCrady's book, however, as the most significant contribution lately made to the literature of the American Revolution, as well as the truly extraordinary manner in which he has performed his task, seem to justify a discussion of the case at somewhat more than usual length.

It will be recalled that some two months after the defeat of Gates at Camden, Washington, in response to a resolution of Congress, appointed Greene to take command of the Southern Department. It is at this point that Mr. McCrady's narrative begins, and it is with regard to Greene's qualifications that the first count of the indictment is framed. It is pointed out that Greene had reached the high rank of major-general "without ever having been engaged in battle" (p. 3), and that his administration of the quartermaster's department, though approved by Washington, had not been characterized by "any marked success" (p. 4). The account of Greene's connection with the firm of Barnabas Deane & Co., though relegated to a lengthy footnote as having no direct bearing on the history of South Carolina, is nevertheless so put as to show the author's reprobation of the transaction; and emphasis is laid upon the fact that although, at the time of his appointment to the South, Greene's experience had been considerable both in the field and in the administrative department of the army, he had not as yet "exercised an independent command, nor conducted a battle except under the eye and direction of another" (p. 5). From the facts as stated there can be, of course, no dissent, but they do not give us quite the whole story. Greene, to be sure, was a subordinate, as most military men must always be, but he was the most trusted by Washington of all the American officers; and although he had never exercised an independent command, he had been, as one of his biographers points out, in every battle in which Washington had commanded, except White Plains. That Washington, whose opportunities for observation would probably be admitted to have been considerable, believed that Greene had in him the making of a competent commander, would seem to be evidenced by his choice of Greene to take charge of a department in regard to which, owing to the lack of information, Washington "could give no positive instructions, but must leave [him] to govern himself entirely according to his own prudence and judgment" (p. 7). It is not without significance, either, as showing the general esteem in which Greene was held, that so many of the ablest officers sought to accompany him.

This, however, is a comparatively minor matter, chiefly noteworthy as showing at the outset Mr. McCrady's attitude towards Greene. The second count is more serious, and, in some respects, the most important of all. It is charged that Greene both underestimated and depreciated the importance of the partisan leaders, deprecated their mode of warfare, and slandered them in private while praising them publicly. The further charge that Greene set little store by militia or partisan volunteers, and put reliance only upon regular troops, is so interwoven with the charge of hostility to the popular leaders that the two may conveniently be considered together. The complaint about the militia, it will be remembered, is not new, but runs through a large part of Mr. McCrady's third volume, and colors much of his criticism on the earlier conduct of the war. The evidence most frequently cited by Mr. McCrady to prove Greene's dissent is his letter of January 8, 1781, to Sumter, in which, after expressing his sympathy for Sumter, then suffering from a wound, he continues:

"When I was with you your soul was full of enterprise. The salvation of this country don't depend upon little strokes, nor should the great business of establishing a permanent army be neglected to perform them. Partisan strokes in war are like the garnish of a table. They give splendor to the army, and reputation to the officer, but they afford no substantial national security. . . . The enemy will never relinquish their plan nor the people be firm in our favor, until they behold a better barrier in this field than a volunteer militia, who are one day out, and the next at home. . . . It is not a war of posts, but a contest of States dependent upon opinion" (pp. 61, 62).

Mr. McCrady is unmeasured in his denunciation of Greene for writing this letter, and again and again returns to it, or quotes its striking phrases, often with sneer or fling, as his narrative proceeds. There was, he says,

"some general truth, of course, in all this. But why should Greene have taken this occasion to remind Sumter of these elementary principles of warfare? . . . What had Sumter to do with the great business of establishing a permanent army? . . . This long and carefully prepared and studied letter must have been written for a definite purpose. It must have been designed to influence Sumter's conduct in some way. The only effect which the letter could produce was to dissuade Sumter from striking any more partisan blows. . . . Was it true that at present the war was not one of outposts? . . . This letter was written either in ignorance of what had taken place in South Carolina during the last six months, or in want of appreciation and disparagement of the great results which had been accomplished" (pp. 62-64).

As between Sumter and Marion, the latter was Greene's favorite, but Mr. McCrady quotes letters to show that "in his private correspondence Greene was accustomed to sneer at both." Thus, writing to Marion on April 24, Greene, after extolling Marion's achievements, declares: "I shall miss no opportunity of declaring to Congress, the Commander-in-chief of the American army, and to the world in general, the great sense I have of your merit and services" (p. 178). Two days before, however, as Mr. McCrady observes, Greene had had an opportunity, and had written to Washington this "lukewarm and indifferent report":

"The conflict may continue for some time longer; and Generals Sumter and Marion, and many others, deserve great credit for their exertions and perseverance, but their endeavors rather seem to keep the contest alive, than lay any foundation for the recovery of these States."

Of similar purport is Greene's letter of May 4 to Governor Reed of Pennsylvania.

It would be wearisome to cite the numerous instances in which Mr. McCrady recurs to this point of attack. Depreciation, innuendo, and sneer have seldom been more persistently used in an important historical work, or with so strong a suggestion of personal hostility to his subject on the part of the author. It is no part of a reviewer's task in this instance to defend Greene or even to purge his conduct of seeming inconsistencies. Yet something weighty is to be said on the other side. It is not to Greene's discredit that he should at the beginning have misunderstood the conditions and character of the struggle in the South, or that, when he came to know more of it, he should have felt the impossibility of continuing resistance mainly by the methods heretofore in vogue. There can be no doubt that Greene always viewed the presence of partisan bands, under leaders whose relation to himself as commander-in-chief was at best uncertain, as an embarrassment, and that he was more than once undecided as to their proper place in a comprehensive plan of campaign. It was his duty as commander of the Southern Department to take a large view of the situation, and plan his movements with regard to all the interests involved. The partisan bands, able as was their leadership and important as were their services, were, after all, irresponsible bodies of guerillas, acknowledging but precarious allegiance even to their leaders, serving without pay and for irregular periods, living off the country, and more and more degenerating, as Mr. McCrady himself admits, into lawless plunderers. That they were increasingly a terror to the regions in which they operated, is as certain as that they administered substantial punishment to the British. Mr. McCrady censures Greene for attempting to do the one thing that he was bound in consistency to do, namely, to bring order and victory out of chaos and defeat, to substitute a central authority and control for temporary allegiance to a popular chief, to direct the movements on the outskirts so as to make them harmonize with the movements at the centre, and to create an American army fit to cope with the veterans of Cornwallis.

Greene, in short, planned for war, while Sumter planned only for offensive operations. It is clear from Mr. McCrady's own narrative that Greene had a just appreciation of the value of the partisan bands and realized the necessity of partisan warfare, but as subsidiary to his main purpose and not as the principal element in it.

We do not read Greene's letters in so unfavorable a light as does Mr. McCrady. The letters of April 22, to Washington, and May 4, to Reed, when read as a whole in Johnson's Life of Greene, are comprehensive reports on the military situation and outlook; the references to Marion and Sumter, on which Mr. McCrady is so severe, being rather incidental and by way of illustration than in any tone of personal depreciation. It was the facts that were disagreeable. The famous letter of January 8, again, when read as a whole and without bias, seems rather an attempt to lay out to Sumter the general plan in Greene's mind, and secure his coöperation, than a "treatise" intended to "discourage" Sumter from striking any more partisan blows. Even Mr. McCrady admits (p. 65) that the last part of the letter "shows that Greene was not ignorant of the great difference between the men whom Sumter led and the ordinary militia."

This significant passage from Greene's letter, which is too long to quote, and which Mr. McCrady leaves without further comment, suggests another cause of difference between Greene and Sumter. Although Greene seems clearly to distinguish between the militia properly so called and the partisan bands, he apparently for some time imagined that the partisan leaders could, if they chose, bring into the field a considerable and definite number of men, and so far control them as to admit of their employment in extended operations. This "radical misconception" of Greene, as the author calls it, was at least not unnatural, yet it early opened the way for serious misunderstanding between Greene and Sumter, in which, if we are to follow Mr. McCrady, Greene was the most to blame.

There were added to Greene's embarrassments sharp personal differences among the partisan leaders themselves, particularly between the most famous of them, Marion and Sumter. That these differences were but natural outgrowths of unrestrained guerilla warfare is, of course, evident, but they were also accentuated by the personal qualities of the men themselves. Mr. McCrady, whose admiration for Sumter shows few bounds, admits that he was of "quick and impetuous temper" (p. 167), indisposed to "brook interference" (p. 243), restless under discipline and restraint, and not friendly to the idea of a superior; in short, a difficult person to get on with. The fact that Marion was Greene's favorite, and that the exploits of Morgan and Lee, under Greene's direction, rivalled in daring those of the partisan leaders themselves, doubtless made Sumter somewhat jealous. Nor can Greene be wholly acquitted of blame. He had obvious infirmities of temper. He was impetuous and outspoken, and prone to speak of others, especially in private correspondence, with a frankness indicative of imperfect self-control. Mr. McCrady has certainly made the most of such incidents, but more impartial historians will, we think, agree that, while Greene's outbursts are regrettable, they are not in this case the whole of life. Unless it can be shown—as we believe it cannot—that Greene's impatience with Sumter's independence was a predominating factor in the former's conduct as a military leader, and unwarranted by the actual facts of the case, it should not, we think, be much dwelt upon. Few are the great men who cannot be made ridiculous by constantly exhibiting them at their worst. And one need not go beyond Mr. McCrady's own pages to find sufficient refutation of his general estimate of Greene, and important modifications of his insistent exaltation of Sumter.

CLIMBS IN THE HIMALAYA AND ELSEWHERE.

Mountaincering in the Himalaya and Other Mountain Ranges. By J. Norman Collie, F. R. S., Member of the Alpine Club. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

England produces a smaller quantity of printed matter relating to mountain climbing and mountain exploration than does Germany with her copious magazine-records devoted to the subject. But she produces more books about climbing than does any other country, the United States included; from which fact one may apparently conclude that the number of "general readers" who care for the subject is larger in England than in other European countries. Mr. Collie's book is chiefly devoted to the Himalaya, though he has chapters upon the Canadian Rockies and upon the Lofoten Isles in Norway, as well as stray notes upon some of the mountains of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Mr. Collie was one of the three well-known and experienced climbers who set off some years ago to explore, and if possible ascend, one of the loftiest and most impressive peaks in the northwest Himalaya, a peak more accessible than any other of the great summits, because it stands rather detached and is entirely in territory subject to British influence. The highest peaks of all lie on the frontier of Nepal and Tibet, regions both of which are closed to Europeans by the political jealousy of the native governments. The next highest group, sometimes called the Mustagh, near the Karakoram Pass on the frontier of Kashmir and Turkistan, rise out of an almost uninhabited wilderness, whose valleys are filled by vast glaciers; and it is necessary to carry provisions a very long way into these wastes in order that the explorers may be able to reach even the foot of the glaciers. There are really only three parts of the Himalaya where exploration can be conducted without political difficulties. One is the small protected State of Sikkim, north of Calcutta, which was fifty years ago visited by Sir J. D. Hooker, and described in one of the best books of scientific travel ever written—his 'Himalayan Journals.' Here stands the magnificent mass of Kinchinjunga, sixty miles from the British Hill Station of Daijiling, but so difficult of approach, owing to the nature of the country, that it takes many days' journey and an expense of thousands of dollars to carry an expedition to a point from which the ascent could be attempted. A second district is Kumaon, north of Oudh, a district under direct British control, but one where the snow-peaks lie so far back that approach to them is no less tedious and costly than in Sikkim. Neither do they reach the altitude of the Sikkim summits. Of the third or Karakoram region we have spoken already. There remains Nanga Parbat, the mountain to which Mr. Collie and his friends Messrs. Mummery and Hastings devoted their efforts. It lies in Kashmir, a huge territory under British influence, where Europeans who have obtained the leave of the Government of India can travel as freely as within the British dominions themselves. Its height is 26,629 feet above the sea, nearly 3,000 feet less than the highest of the Nepalese or Tibetan summits hitherto measured, but at least 2,000 feet above any point yet reached by human foot. It stands due north of the Lake of Kashmir, and just south of the Indus at the point where that great river turns downward its course from west-northwest to southwest.

The English party approached Nanga Parbat from the southeast, and journeyed along its southern face, seeking a point at which it appeared possible to scale its formidably steep slopes. They had to cross some very lofty passes, and experienced, like other travellers, much difficulty in supplying themselves with provisions, for the native villages are usually far below the snow line, which is approached only by a few herdsmen in the summer. Finding the southern side of the mountain unpromising, they crossed a pass at the western end, and reconnoitred the northwest face. Here Mr. Mummery, one of the party who had made a great reputation in the Swiss Alps by his extraordinary daring and skill as a climber, attacked the mountain with a Gurkha attendant, Mr. Collie being ill at the time, and the third member of the party absent endeavoring to bring up provisions. The Gurkhas are by far the strongest and boldest climbers among the various races that inhabit the Himalayas; rather small men, but extremely muscular and active, and very trustworthy. After some hard and dangerous rock climbing, Mummery reached a height of more than 20,000 feet, and believed that he might, by camping out on the rocks, have reached the summit on the following day, for the upper slopes of the mountains seemed less steep than those he had already ascended. However, his Gurkha was taken ill and could go no further, so he returned to the glacier below, where Mr. Collie awaited him. A day or two after, unwilling to abandon hope, he set out with two Gurkhas to cross a pass nearly 20,000 feet high, which would, he hoped, carry him into another valley further east, from which it might be possible to find an easier way up Nanga Parbat. Mr. Collie, taking an easier though longer route, was to meet him in that valley after two days. However, when Mr. Collie reached the trysting-place, there was no sign of Mummery or his men. Seen from this valley, the northeastern side of the pass, down which the venturesome climber would have had to come, seemed impracticable, so Mr. Collie and his party turned back to the camping-place at which they had parted from Mummery, expecting to find that he had returned thither. He was not there, however, and from that day to this no trace of him or his companions has ever been discovered. Probably they

were killed by an ice avalanche in ascending the pass; but in this region of gigantic glaciers, snow-fields, and precipices, all on a scale far huger than that of the Alps, there are many perils, any one of which might have proved fatal. Mummery, who was deeply regretted by his colleagues of the English Alpine Club, was, we believe, the first—perhaps he still remains the only—European climber who has perished by an accident in the Himalayas. If any one could have succeeded in reaching one of these tremendous pinnacles, it might well have been this exceptionally active, skilful, and adventurous mountaineer. There is no reason to think that it was to the rarity of the air that he succumbed; and in point of fact some Europeans have gone higher. Sir Martin Conway's party in the Mustagh group attained 22,600 feet; Mr. Graham in Sikkim would seem to have reached the top of Kebru, 24,000 feet, a little higher than Aconcagua in the Andes, which has been several times ascended, and whose ascent is difficult chiefly owing to the rarity of the air and the severity of the weather, for the slopes are not particularly steep.

Mummery and several others who have explored the Himalayas, such as Mr. Collie, Sir Martin Conway, and Mr. Douglas Freshfield, do not despair of scaling even Kinchinjunga, and that still higher summit of the Eastern Himalaya which is called by the Tibetans Lapti Chang, by the Nepalese Gaurisankar or Devadhunga. It is no doubt true that careful and continued examination has enabled practicable routes to be found up many mountains formerly held inaccessible; true, also, that the physical powers of man can be greatly strengthened by long practice in high altitudes. Nevertheless, the difficulties experienced both on Aconcagua and by Sir Martin Conway's party on the Karakoram Himalaya show that when a height exceeding 20,000 feet is passed, the strain on heart and lungs and the disturbance of the digestive organs become so serious that the progress made upward is extremely slow. It is consequently impossible to make more than, say, three thousand feet in a day; whence it follows that several nights must be spent at these enormous elevations, with the necessity of conveying a proportionately large quantity of provisions along with the party. Accordingly, while it is quite possible that at no distant date even a summit like Kinchinjunga may yield to the persistent energy of European climbers, there may still be many failures to record before the goal so long desired is attained.

Mr. Collie's descriptions are forcible and graphic. One of the best is that of the tremendous gorge of the Indus to the west of Nanga Parbat, between Bunar and the point where it issues from the hills a little above Attock. This gorge is some twelve thousand feet below the ranges which tower over it, and which in many places descend in sheer precipices. It is perfectly arid and barren, intensely hot, brown, and dusty, one of the most dismal and formidable pieces of scenery in the world, more terrible than the Grand Cañon of the Colorado River, because on a grander scale and because far less rich and varied in color. As Sir J. D. Hooker observed long ago, the Himalaya, though vaster and more magnificent than the Alps, are less beautiful just because nearly all the landscapes are too large to permit of those combinations of the various elements of beauty which make a landscape lovely. Valleys ten thousand feet deep do not give the same pleasure as does the Yosemite, still the most perfect piece of scenery discovered on the American continent.

Among the other contents of Mr. Collie's book, the most interesting is his account of sundry rock climbs in the very bold and sharp peaks of the Lofoten Isles. These peaks seldom exceed 4,000 feet, but, rising sheer out of the sea, they produce their full effect, and furnish landscapes of a singular variety and charm, to which there is nothing quite similar in the Old World. Indeed, the scenery of the Arctic coast of Norway is, with the possible exception of the Chilian coast north of the Straits of Magellan, the finest coast scenery that the world has to show. The Alaskan coasts have loftier summits and vaster glaciers, but the forms are not equally fine. We must not forget to add that Mr. Collie gives a short but attractive description of the scenery of the Canadian Rockies, where there are many unexplored glaciers and unscaled summits, sufficient to employ the energy and ardor of American climbers for many years to come.

MRS. WARD'S LATEST STORY.

Lady Rose's Daughter. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Harper & Brothers.

Those who were fortunate enough to read 'Lady Rose's Daughter' without knowing anything about the life, loves, and letters of Mlle. de Lespinasse, enjoyed sensations of surprise and curiosity, sensations of which the wide advertisement of the novel's historical source has defrauded later readers. Mrs. Ward's name is identified with purposeful fiction, the sort that discusses serious themes and describes people pursuing an object, or objects, which the author believes to imply wider scope and higher aspiration than the mere living of one's own life and taking all one can get for self-gratification. Great, therefore, is the surprise of her accustomed reader (and, if he be also an earnest admirer, great the shock) to perceive in the earliest stage of acquaintance that Julie Le Breton, Lady Rose's daughter, is the sort of young woman to whom the vexed problems of humanity are conspicuously uninteresting; is indeed a free lance, an adventuress, born to fight for her own hand, and probably willing to use any weapons that seem expedient.

Surprise at Mrs. Ward's choice of a heroine is, of course, accompanied by curiosity about what she will do with her. For eighteen or twenty chapters she does very well, objectively at least, showing something of hitherto unsuspected ability to construct and develop a story in artist's fashion, smoothly, deliberately, making it interesting for its own sake and for the manner of presentation. She makes no capital out of current ideas or topics of general interest, and rather avoids preaching a cause or propagating a saving belief. It is true that this success is in description, not in characterization. As usual, Mrs. Ward flies very high and fails to realize her conception. Her characters are of the greatest world, adding to social position personal distinction as statesmen, diplomatists, soldiers, authors. Yet they never utter a thought beyond the capacity of a schoolboy, or turn a memorable phrase. Of Julie we are repeatedly told that her social grace and tact, though remarkable, are less powerful to charm than is her wonderful and brilliant talk. The specimens of her conversation vouchsafed are not above a drawing-room average; and, as for the methods by which she influenced Prime Ministers and other potentates to do her will, we have not so much as a glimpse at them actually operating. Nevertheless, Julie stands clearly for a genuine product of Nature, not perhaps one of her most creditable performances, but distinctly her own, created without reference to any artificial standard of perfection. Julie's insincere attitude towards her patroness, Lady Henry, her clever capture for intimate friendship of a self-willed young Duchess, her rejection, while the game of life was still to be played, of an uninteresting young man with a possible dukedom ahead—all this is extremely natural, as the triumph of her passion for the young soldier, Warkworth, over all hopes, plans, and ambitions, is a perfectly just inference from what precedes.

When Julie is actually started for Paris to join Warkworth, Mrs. Ward appears to have faced the consequences of her first conception, and the respect with which we have always firmly regarded her is tinged with a more enthusiastic sentiment. At this critical point another surprise awaits us. The author seems to stop to review what she has already done, to foresee with horror what she was about to do and what, with her blameless record on trial, she can never, never do. She takes fright, forsakes nature and probability, denies what we are supposing to be the work of her own hand, and invents a way out of the complication that shall make it possible for her Julie to become a perfectly respectable duchess. Without the key to the novel, it can only be supposed that Mrs. Ward has been led out of temptation and delivered from evil by a sense of duty to her position as a leader of thought and as a powerful influence for good in her native land. Persons of experience who have looked at life frankly, are strongly attached to theories about the force of temperament and logic of character. To such persons it is nonsense to say that a child of revolt and passion did, at the moment when revolt was strong within her and the passion of love consuming, turn aside from her destiny at the bidding of a moral and mystic young man (possible duke) whom she had twice refused to marry. But the class that Mrs. Ward professionally leads to higher things is not distinguished for perspicacity or renowned for unprejudiced observation of life. The mystic and moral young man round whom there "breathed the air of the heights" appeals to that class as a very probable worker of miracles, in which rôle, when it is known that he must one day be a duke, a wise, a beneficent duke, he becomes invincible. It is not inconceivable that many earnest, optimistic persons, thrilled by introduction to a family seat at the moment of its occupation by three dukes (two just dead and one just come to his own), may take in good faith Julie's offer to second her Duke Jacob's desired renunciation of his dukedom, should such sacrifice be per-

missible under the Constitution of his country. Still, when Duke Jacob perceives that it is his painful duty to remain a duke, it is no sign of depravity to believe that Julie discreetly "chortled" with unholy joy.

Once in possession of the history of Mlle. Julie de Lespinasse, both the unusual quality of the first half of Mrs. Ward's novel and the deplorable break in the middle are perfectly explained. The story up to its critical point is a modern English drawing-room adaptation of the life of an eighteenth-century Frenchwoman whose fame was made by the distinguished men who sought her society, and perpetuated by the publication of her ardent letters to a not very responsive lover. Mrs. Ward has made use of the facts of Mlle. de Lespinasse's life, has tried to reproduce her character and personal charm, and has closely copied some significant scenes. It is written of Mlle. de Lespinasse that, after her quarrel with the jealous and tyrannical Mme. du Deffand, when she had set up her rival salon and carried off the favored adorers of her former mistress, she embarked on a life *insouciante et même un peu galante*. The phrase states the fact delicately. Doubtless Mrs. Ward's conscience and her sense of public duty prohibited her borrowing from the abundant literature at her disposal descriptive of that sort of life; so just here she threw her model overboard, seized the tiller, and steered her story to smash on the reefs of her country's social code and literary convention. The right to borrow so liberally and add so little is perhaps a debatable point of literary ethics. Mrs. Ward does not seem to us to have passed the limit of justifiable borrowing, but she has sailed pretty close; one may even go so far as to say that she has not shown herself overnice.

The Religion of Plutarch. By John Oakesmith. Longmans, Green & Co.

"Plutarch," said Emerson, "will be perpetually rediscovered from time to time as long as books last." It is at any rate safe to assert that, at every stage in the history of thought when it becomes desirable to reconcile current religious beliefs with the conclusions of philosophy, the compromising method of Plutarch will be quoted with approval. He believed in the unity of God, and, like the latter Neo-Platonists, he tried to demonstrate the unity of religions, Hellenic and Oriental, and to relate his composite Deity to the visible world. His theory of intermediary demons goes back to Hesiod, though its interest for philosophy does not begin till Plutarch developed it from Plato. It paved the way for the marvellous in religion and philosophy, and that alone was enough to secure its popularity in the early Christian centuries. Plutarch realized the dangers of his conception and the ease with which it might degenerate into superstition; and, horrible as he considered either extreme, or in fact any extreme, he definitely prefers the atheist to the superstitious man. "The profoundest, the most essential, and paramount theme of human interest," says Goethe, "is the eternal conflict between atheism and superstition." Plutarch was a moralist rather than a philosopher, and his tract 'De Superstitione' is chiefly concerned to show that "a mere intellectual error," such as atheism, is to be preferred to the moral disorder of superstition. Yet the doctrine of demons, good and evil, opened the door to superstition, and in the theurgy which with its magical rites debased later Neo-Platonism, his demonology has much to answer for. His piety, his sincerity, his toleration—for the *odium theologicum* was inconceivable to his gentle spirit—have endeared him even to the Christians, whom he, curiously enough, ignores; so that we find John the Metropolitan of Euchaita, in an epigram that Plutarch would have thought to indicate a narrow sectarianism, making, at any rate, concessions to the author of the 'Moralia.'

"If any Pagans, Lord, Thy grace shall save
From wrath divine, this boon I humbly crave,
Plato and Plutarch save. Thine was the cause
Their speech supported: Thine too were the laws
Their hearts obeyed; and if their eyes were blind
To recognize Thee Lord of humankind,
Needs only that Thy gift of grace be shown
To bring them and bring all men to the throne."

Mr. Oakesmith's essay was written in its first form as a thesis for the degree of D. Litt. (London), and, even in the enlarged version before us, is not final. It is not easy, however, to see what material Mr. Oakesmith is reserving for the "more elaborate" book which he promises. The subject is one that has been well though briefly treated by Professor Mahaffy in his 'Greek World under Roman Sway,' though Mr. Oakesmith does not accept all Mr. Mahaffy's conclusions. On the other hand, Prof. Lewis Campbell, in his 'Religion in Greek Literature,' gave Plutarch scant notice. But Gréard in France and in Germany Volkmann have treated the subject with a fulness that leaves little to be desired, and in his essay of over two hundred pages Mr. Oakesmith offers nothing essentially new. It is a careful piece of work, perhaps too flattering to Plutarch, whom Mr. Oakesmith somewhat uncritically reveres. In accordance with the etiquette of the thesis, his footnotes give full references to what the Germans call the "Litteratur" of the subject, and, as is often the case, these are not the least profitable part of the book. Like too many theses, this one lacks an index, an omission which robs a piece of scholarly work of a great part of its usefulness.

The Great Siberian Railway. By M. M. Shoemaker. Putnams.

One of the first ideas naturally suggested by the above work is a comparison between it and J. F. Fraser's 'The Real Siberia,' reviewed last fall in these columns. Both are books of travel, of a common kind, by authors unfamiliar with the language of the country which they visited, and not overburdened with too much knowledge of any kind concerning it. Both writers confine themselves, in the main, to what they saw, but Mr. Shoemaker has added some general information about Siberia, taken, as he freely admits, from the English version of the official guide to the railway. His volume is therefore more instructive, and also his tone is more pretentious; indeed, he is rather too fond of reminding us that he has travelled before, which, however, does not seem to prevent him from grumbling a good deal about the ordinary discomforts incidental to a long journey in an out-of-the-way country. Unless the reviewer is mistaken, he has himself travelled in precisely the car used by Mr. Shoemaker, from Moscow to Irkutsk, and found it, if not what the Americans are so fond of calling "palatial," at least very endurable. Mr. Fraser had to rough it a good deal more, though at a better season of the year, and one of the merits of his account is its cheeriness. He spares us wearisome moralizing, and he does not allow his common sense to desert him in moments of fatigue; and thus he is never guilty of such absurd remarks as, "I fancy a century hence will see little change in Siberia." Siberia is not a paradise, and will never be mistaken for one; but it has vast possibilities, and its resources are being rapidly developed at the present time.

When Mr. Shoemaker (or his guidebook) keeps to the domain of concrete fact, there is little to criticise in what he tells us. The number of his typographical errors is small, and there are not many of his statements to which one must take exception. It is going too far to say (p. 39) that "Siberia is almost a windless land," for, though in most regions the Siberian winter is a still one, the steppes are often windy enough, and the extreme north suffers from the storm called the *purga*. The author was also misinformed (p. 41) about there being a branch railway line from Omsk to Tobolsk. None such exists. In speaking of the colonists of the Trans-Baikal, he says they are called "little Russians," which leads us to suspect that he does not know that the "Little Russians" are one of the three recognized divisions of the Russian nationality, and that they number more than twenty millions. Many of the recent emigrants to Siberia have, it is true, come from their ranks.

In the last part of his book, Mr. Shoemaker tells of a flying trip to Corea, and repeats the story of the shocking murder of the Queen, seven years ago, and his final chapters are devoted to a sketch of his visit to Pekin and the surrounding country. The whole volume may be of service to people wishing to make the same trip, but conditions on "the Great Siberian Railway" are changing so fast that any description of them soon becomes antiquated.

St. Augustine and his Age. By Joseph McCabe. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1903.

Mr. McCabe's portrayal of St. Augustine possesses much of the vivid dramatic interest which attracted us in his earlier life of Abélard. In a sense the books are companions and complementary studies; and Mr. McCabe's keen and active intelligence, opulent scholarship, and experience in the things whereof he writes, are as much in evidence in the later as in the earlier volume. There is the same portraiture, lively and grim by turns, of a profound theological intelligence against a background of passionate human life; yet, considered as biography, we can but think the Augustine considerably less successful than the Abélard.

Mr. McCabe's purpose is to correct the perverse impression of Augustine's character and temperament, drawn by inefficient hagiographers from the "seductive Confessions," by viewing his career in a full setting of the various life of his age, and by softening the sharp contrasts of Augustine's edifying self-revelation by a humane

discretion and a temperate and enlightened psychology. There can be no doubt that when Augustine, Bishop of Hippo, took Augustine the rhetorician and "seller of words to boys" as an "awful example" of the unregenerate state, he saw the man that once he was through too many years of dogmatic controversy to see him clearly or see him whole. Mr. McCabe's analysis of the case is worth quoting:

"The fallacy of it all for us, reducing its value as a human document, is that Augustine examines his earlier life from a false point of view. We know how remote his earlier conduct was from the lofty ideal of his later years; but the real moral drama lies in its relation to his pre-Christian conscience. Thus the very attitude of the later ideal spoils the psychological interest of the Confessions. The penitent is face to face with God throughout, striving to maintain throughout the Divine point of view. Fortunately, he drops from the heavens occasionally, and mingles shrewd reflections, subtle speculations, and warm human discourse with his narrative. They it is that have secured for the Confessions not merely immortality, but immortal interest."

Avoiding all categorical extremes, Mr. McCabe contrives to suggest on the lower levels a tolerably consistent and convincing personality. He takes Augustine to have been a clever but none too industrious boy, fond of shows and profane companions, never possessed by the ideal of continence, yet never the vicious and turbulent young fellow that the hagiographers, following the Confessions, have painted him. Indeed, after describing the corruption of the times in quite sufficient detail, our author concludes with the conviction that, young pagan though he was, Augustine was "comparatively a quiet and respectable youth." From this beginning Mr. McCabe proceeds by easy and natural stages to trace a steady mental growth and slow *intellectual* conversion, culminating in a life of moderate asceticism and great and diverse literary and ecclesiastical activity. We have the external man vividly protrayed—short, slight, nervous, ailing, intensely sympathetic; we have a remarkably learned and vivacious account of a complex and decadent society, torn by heresy and schism, sapped by disgust and secret loathing; and we have a final impression of "a great mind, more subtle than powerful, seeking judgment and expression in circumstances of exceptional hindrance."

All this is eminently readable and enlightened, yet the book as a whole, with all its humanism, its self-avowed "tincture of Pelagianism," fails on the higher levels to make Saint Augustine seem a living personality. The truth is that the author has been the reverse of sympathetic with the vital, unifying principle of Augustine's nature—his mystical, Platonic piety. The emotion of piety in all its degrees, from simple trustfulness to rapturous "quotation of God," is a fact of consciousness of the first moment; it may be minimized in men of the type of Abélard, but it cannot safely be neglected in such a man as the author of the 'Confessions' and the 'City of God.' Mr. McCabe never goes to the depreciatory extreme of Gibbon, but there are certain expressions and passages in the Confessions which might with advantage have had a more emphatic notice in his pages; such sentences as, "When I turned from the one I melted away into the many," or that chapter telling "How in the Platonic books he found the divinity of the Eternal Word, but not the humility of the Incarnate Word," reveal more of the real nature of the man than the most elaborate account of his dealings with the Manichees or with the Donatists. In short, while the book is an excellent rationalistic treatment of a notably interesting episode in ecclesiastical history, it fails as a biography through the author's lack of sympathy with the ideal fervors of his subject's temperament. Hence comes the lack of unity of character in the portrayal, which is better than a false and specious simplicity, but which is, nevertheless, a grave defect in the story of a man's life.

I Segni Rivelatori della Personalità, da Paola Lombroso. Turin: Fratelli Bocca. 1902. Pp. vii., 235.

Books of a popular sort on the "science" of physiognomy are nearly all worthless or misleading. Human personality, however, is becoming more and more attractive to the evolutionist, and the time is not so remote when we shall possess a treatment of the phenomena involved at once adequate and intelligible. In this little volume, the daughter of the famous Italian criminologist treats in pleasing fashion a topic for the consideration of which woman would seem to have been well qualified by nature, since the unanimous verdict of all ages and peoples credits her with a remarkable capacity for making rapid judgments of persons and their immediate accessories and environments—a view which scientific investigation has amply confirmed as an evolutional characteristic of the sex. After a brief historical introduction and a chapter on the relations between emotion and physiognomic expression, the author discusses the eye, the mouth, and the other features of face and head, and devotes the remaining half of the book to gesture, graphology, language, profession, and toilet. Looking upon calligraphy as "crystallized gesture," she sees a closer correlation between it and personality than most men of science, with the reviewer, are willing to admit. The character-sketches of the soldier, the magistrate, the teacher, the newspaper man, and the banker, in the chapter on "Profession," are well done. The monotony of the life of the teacher and the varied experience of the journalist are interestingly contrasted. In the section on language one does not find the story of the traveller who discovered the professions of his companions from their answers to the question, "What is it that devours its own offspring?" That tale gives in a nutshell the contents of the chapter. The discussion of gesture is good, but too short. The gesture *ensemble* of an individual, the author observes, gives us a sort of psychic shadow of his internal nature which may be compared to the physical one given by the silhouette on the wall.

The illustrations to the chapters on physiognomy are of modern and chiefly of living persons, the frank treatment of whose personalities adds not a little to the general interest of the book. The comparative study (pages 43-47) of Nansen and Garibaldi is suggestive; the one representing the disciplined energy of the man of science, the other the prodigal energy of the poet in the broad sense of the term. The brief sketch of Enrico Ferri, Socialist leader and Deputy, orator and scientist (pages 54-56), is a tribute to Italian optimism. The eye of Max Nordau and the mouth of the famous actress Duse seem to have impressed the author, the latter unfavorably; so, too, the mouth of Mascagni, the composer, the very short characterization of whom would have been cordially welcomed by our newspaper paragraphers a few months ago. The higher type of the "new woman" may be seen in Miss Kulitchoff (page 37). A fine appreciation of Mrs. Browning is given on page 65. One can scarcely err in recommending this little volume as the best of its kind perhaps in any language for popular reading. It is at the same time scientific enough not to be very dangerous. It merits an English dress.

Index Britanniae Scriptorum: John Bale's Index of British and Other Writers. Edited by Reginald Lane Poole, with the help of Mary Bateson. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1902.

Bishop Bale's two bibliographical works, the 'Summarium' (1548), and the more elaborate 'Scriptorum Illustrium Maioris Brytanniae Catalogus' (1557-59), are well-known to all investigators of early English literature; and it is hard to say whether they are more valued for the curious information they contain, or execrated for their heedless repetition of unsupported conjectures. Particularly troublesome is the task of determining whether the compiler, in a particular case, was following good authority or whether he was, as one is sometimes tempted to suspect, concealing a defect in his knowledge by means of rhetorical generalities. It is therefore particularly agreeable to have a complete edition of his autograph note-book. This valuable document, preserved among Archbishop Selden's manuscripts in the Bodleian Library, almost always records the exact source from which Bale derived his information, and, since it was prepared for his own use, it is practically free from imaginative embellishment. It is a very extensive collection of raw materials for literary history, made "at a date when materials were accessible which in a few years more were scattered and largely lost." Henceforth no student can think of referring to the bishop's printed catalogues without comparing the information they profess to give with the memoranda now made accessible by the industry of Mr. Lane Poole and Miss Bateson.

The editors have very properly directed their attention in the first instance to the careful reproduction of the manuscript and the arrangement of its contents in an order that should make them easy to use. Annotation, however, was also a part of their plan, and their commentary shows hard work and a good deal of learning. Still, at the risk of seeming ungrateful, we must add that it leaves much to be desired. Completeness was, of course, unattainable, but one cannot turn over the leaves of the volume without observing a great many places where useful information might have been supplied, or errors in the catalogue corrected, with slight additional labor. It is a pity, too, that the elaborate indexes do not fully cover the appended matter (pp. 467-

518), which is particularly difficult to consult.

An example will make it clear how unfortunate this omission is. Many persons suppose that there is a tradition that Sir Thomas Malory, the author of the 'Morte Darthur,' was a Welshman. When the "tradition" is tested, however, it is found to go back to Bale's 'Catalogus,' and when the statements of that work are scrutinized, they appear to rest on a mistaken interpretation of Leland's language and on the fancy of the writer. It therefore becomes of some moment to ascertain what evidence Bale's own note-book affords on this question. Now the name of Malory is not entered in the index, and is, indeed, not contained in the body of the work as here arranged. It may be found, however, in the fourth appendix (p. 499) in a list of names "ex quodam opusculo Ioannis Lelandi"; and in the second appendix (p. 482), there is an entry of much interest relating to the 'Morte Darthur,' provided for in the index under *Vita Arthuri* only. This second appendix, it should be noted, is an integral part of Bale's work; it consists of entries which "bear no indication of authorship," and which are now removed from the body of the text in the process of editorial arrangement.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Newspaper Annual, 1903. Philadelphia: N. W. Ayer & Son. $5.

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Lyman, H. S. History of Oregon: The Growth of an American State. 4 vols. North Pacific Pub. Co.

McCarthy, J. H. Marjorie. R. H. Russell.

Meyer, H. Determination of Radicles in Carbon Compounds. Translated by J. B. Tingle. John Wiley & Sons. $1.

Norton, Carol. Poems and Verses. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. $1.

Omond, T. S. A Study of Metre. London: Grant Richards. 5s.

Payson, W. F. The Triumph of Life. Harpers. $1.50.

Robinson, J. H. An Introduction to the History of Western Europe. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Seawell, Molly E. Children of Destiny. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company.

Streeter, A. Botticelli. London: George Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.

The Correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island, 1723-1775. Vol. II. Edited by Gertrude S. Kimball. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.

The New International Encyclopædia. Vol. VIII. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Todd, C. B. The Real Benedict Arnold. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.20.

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Weidner, R. F. Theologia; or the Doctrine of God. Fleming H. Revell Company.

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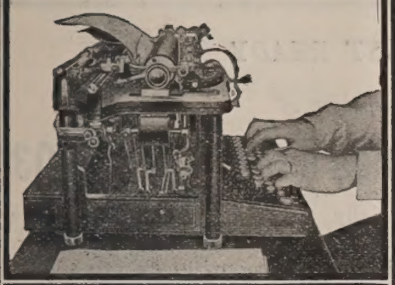

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 23, 1903.

The Week.

It was incumbent on the Attorney-General to oppose the motion of the Northern Securities Company for a modification of the decree in the merger case. Duty to one's client is the same when the client is the United States as in the case of an individual. The Attorney-General's contention was that the Northern Securities Company is illegal, and hence that all its acts are void. If an illegal company can collect dividends now, may it not postpone its argument on appeal to the Supreme Court and continue its illegal existence indefinitely? The court, in granting the modification sought, has met this point by requiring that the appeal shall be prosecuted with due diligence and effect, of which the court will itself be the judge. It does not follow that because one dividend from the underlying corporations may be collected, subsequent ones may be collected also. Nor is there any reason to suppose that the counsel of the Northern Securities Company will delay the prosecution of their appeal or come short of the due diligence which the court enjoins. Under these circumstances, it would be a needless embarrassment to withhold from the company the money earned and already due to its shareholders, which money would reach the same shareholders eventually in any event. If the original order of the court were not modified, the probable course of procedure would be the purchase of the dividends by the banks in which the money is now deposited, and a charge of interest for the intervening time. The modifying order wisely avoids this needless labor and expense.

"The people want and ought to have the report made by Gen. Miles concerning conditions in the Philippines." This is the opinion of the Indianapolis *News*, which properly resents the attitude of the Washington Administration towards this and other documents which are unfavorable to our Philippine policy. Apparently, Secretary Root regards the public as if it were a small and helpless child, to be fed only on selected literature—selected by him, of course. If privately asked, we have no doubt that the Secretary would say that Gen. Miles's report misrepresented facts, and therefore ought to be suppressed. If that is so, the public may be relied upon to discriminate, and there will quickly be proof enough of the General's errors to correct his misstatements. But that is evidently not to be Secretary Root's way of doing things. Apparently, if he lets the report out at all, he is going to let it out piecemeal, and attach to each piece the opinions of officers or of governors who oppose Gen. Miles's views. This has actually been done in regard to the General's recommendations about the proper food supply for troops in the archipelago, and about the wisdom of employing troops to build roads. "Apparently, in anticipation of this criticism," says the Washington *Star*, "there is extant the opposite view of Gen. Davis, commander-in-chief in the Philippines, and this is published with the Gen. Miles recommendation. Similarly, the Subsistence officers are allowed to say why they disagree with the Lieutenant-General." But nothing has yet been heard of that portion of Gen. Miles's report which deals with the Howze cruelties and other horrors perpetrated by offenders in uniform.

A Washington dispatch states that President Roosevelt has communicated to his Cabinet officers his intention not to allow any more "barbaric yawps" from their subordinates against Germany to go unpunished. The authenticity of this report is not vouched for, but the subordinates aforesaid should consider it well founded, and control their tongues accordingly. The truth is that certain army and navy officers are usurping the functions of the yellow press in creating sensations in order to cause themselves to be talked about. As a general rule, these garrulous individuals are not seeking to provoke war or to get the country into trouble, but merely to draw public attention to themselves. They do not weigh their words. Their words are not worth weighing generally, but they irritate foreign governments and bring humiliation upon their own. If there has been a sore spot in the past in our relations with Germany, or only an unfounded suspicion of one, they seem to regard it as a proper subject for mirth or for maladroit observation like that to which Admiral Dewey recently gave vent. President Roosevelt ought to do something more than have a private talk with the next officer who commits such an indiscretion. The higher the rank of the offender the more public his rebuke should be.

The Philadelphia *Ledger* prints the facts regarding the appointment of negroes to office by President McKinley. It appears from its list that he put no less than fifty-two into the Federal service, to say nothing of several hundred appointed to the regular and volunteer armies. Nine of Mr. McKinley's appointees were made collectors of customs, sixteen were given post-offices, five went to the internal-revenue service, and nine into the Interior Department. To the diplomatic and consular service Mr. McKinley appointed the following: Rev. O. L. W. Smith, Minister to Liberia; W. S. Howell, Minister to Hayti; John T. Williams, Consul at Sierra Leone; Dr. L. W. Livingston, Cape Haytien; M. W. Gibbs, Tamatave; M. B. Van Horn, St. Thomas; Dr. George H. Jackson, La Rochelle; C. L. Maxwell, Santo Domingo; J. R. Ruffin, Asuncion; R. T. Greener, Vladivostock; Dr. H. W. Furness, Bahia; J. R. Spurgeon, Secretary of Legation at Liberia; T. J. Calloway, special agent Paris Exposition. Beside this list, Mr. Roosevelt's fifteen negro selections seem few indeed, particularly as eight of the fifteen were reappointments. Naturally, the *Ledger* asks why "the South, which is so angry and clamorous regarding President Roosevelt's original seven appointments, was neither indignant nor clamorous with respect to President McKinley's fifty-two appointments." But the good McKinley never asked Booker Washington to dine with him *en famille*.

The convention of the National Association of Manufacturers opened with a report by its President, in which organized labor received very severe treatment. The subject of discussion was the bills before Congress at the last session known as the eight-hour and the anti-injunction bills. These ought, the report says, to have been entitled "an act to repeal the bill of rights guaranteeing the freedom of the individual" and "an act to legalize strikes and boycotts." Upon this thesis a long and able review of the encroachments and demands, the tyranny and crimes, or trade unions was given, and we cannot say that the arraignment was too severe. The drift and tendency of all these demands and the lawless methods of enforcing them, the report says, are in the direction of socialism. Perhaps so; but are the trade unions the only organizations promoting socialism? The contention of the Socialists is that the State should take possession of the natural resources of the country, the tools of production, and the avenues of transportation, and find employment for men and distribute the joint product of labor and capital in an equitable manner. This would be doing on a large scale and in open manner what is now done on a smaller scale and in a somewhat less obvious way by the protective tariff. The Dingley theory now prevailing is that if the manufacturers are protected against foreign competition, they will be enabled to pay high wages and will avail themselves of that opportunity on equitable terms. This is the essence of socialism. Dingleyism says: "Deliver

me from the fear of competition, give me the privilege of fixing the prices for my own products, and I will divide fairly and squarely with my workpeople." The laborers assent to the plan. It falls in with their notion of State interference with industry, but they do not believe that there has been a square divide of the joint product. Hence strikes, boycotts, picketing, and many kinds of tyranny and outrage which are so aptly described in the New Orleans report. Of course, these latter conditions might exist under free trade. They are met with in England as well as here, but in England the example of State socialism has not been set by the employers to the wageworkers.

Apparently the incongruity of their attitude in this particular has been forced upon the attention of the Association, for we find among the resolutions reported for consideration one "urging tariff revision on general lines." This is in harmony with the action taken by the same organization at its Detroit meeting last year. Although the Republican party appears to be deaf to every suggestion of tariff revision, it is impossible that the country can continue for any long time to witness the spectacle of American goods selling in foreign markets at lower prices than in the home market. This scheme, the last refuge and device of the tariff-protected Trusts, is attracting more and more attention both at home and abroad. It is the application on a wide scale and in a more brazen way of the sugar-bounty system which has so often excited us, and which led to the misunderstanding with Russia, and to the retaliatory duties which she imposed two years ago upon many of our exports. If producers can be protected against foreign competition in the home market, they can sell their products to domestic consumers at the limit fixed by the tariff, and undersell the foreigner in his own market by means of the bounty which the law enables them to collect at home. This has often been done, and is done in certain lines of trade every day in the year. Socialism never conceived of anything more wanton or more at variance with the principles of justice.

In his consuming desire to help Mr. Roosevelt get delegates, Senator Hanna is going to make a public defence of labor unions against the attacks of the Manufacturers' Association. He is to speak particularly to the charge that they countenance and profit by violence. They are sorely misjudged in that matter, he complains. An occasional member gets out of hand, he admits, and does some clubbing or murdering; but why hold organized labor responsible for that? A village may contain one or two blacklegs, but you do not say that they determine the character of the whole community. Well, we are not sure that we should not be bound to say so if the community quietly encouraged the blacklegs, and divided the swag with them. We should like to put one simple case to Senator Hanna, however, and ask him to explain it. The so-called anti-injunction bill in the last Congress was intended to aid labor unions. It forbade the use of injunctions to restrain acts by several which would not be criminal in an individual. But an amendment was adopted in the Senate committee, providing, by way of abundant caution, that exception should still be made of acts involving danger to property or life. Now is it not a fact—Mr. Hanna knows—that labor leaders wrote privately to Senators protesting that this amendment would destroy the whole value of the bill? In other words, they desire to be free to employ violence, and do not wish to be enjoined therefrom. The Ohio Senator should not pass over this point in his address on "Labor Unions: What I Have Done for Them, and What I Hope They Will Do for Me."

Lieut.-Gov. Lee of Missouri, who has apparently fled the State, from unwillingness to appear before the grand jury in the legislative bribery inquiry, is reported to have declared that Circuit Attorney Folk "is always making an ass of himself." This doubtless was also the opinion of sundry members of the House of Delegates in St. Louis, who suddenly went to Mexico and elsewhere for their health when Mr. Folk began his exposure of official corruption in that city. The legislative bribery investigation is now at the stage reached by the local boodle inquiry when Philip Stock and Charles H. Turner first furnished the Circuit Attorney with information by means of which he was able to force confession after confession, and to land many of the bribers as well as of the bribed in the penitentiary. Just what information Mr. Folk already possesses is not yet known, but it is certain that the entering wedge has been driven. The work of the grand jury and of Mr. Folk will now be, as in the House of Delegates cases, to piece together the details which have been secured, and thus to complete the story of the formation of the legislative ring, and the means adopted to attain its corrupt ends. When this is done, if the Circuit Attorney follows his former method, exposures will come thick and fast.

In the Citizens' Union convention on Thursday night the popular chord was struck when references were made to honesty and fair dealing. This was a tribute not only to the Administration of Mayor Low, but also to the Citizens' Union itself in its advocacy of principles and candidates. The spectacle of a political convention praising the administration of an official of its own choosing, and at the same time adding an important qualification to its endorsement, is a rarity, but it is none the less refreshing on that account. The resolutions themselves were drafted in admirable temper, and were adopted without amendment or dissent. Conventional hyperbole and traces of the whitewash brush were missing, but no doubt remains that the rank and file of the Citizens' Union, as represented in the convention, are as ready to carry on the fight for good municipal government as they were to begin it. It was freely stated by many speakers that the Citizens' Union has become a municipal party. This appears to be the fact. The old idea that non-partisans in municipal affairs must not organize to carry out their programmes of betterment has disappeared, at least so far as the Citizens' Union is concerned. The Union now possesses practically all the machinery of a party with, as Mr. Cutting says, one exception—the boss. It has local organizations in the Assembly districts, some of them exceedingly active. Moreover, in its convention, while the right of free and open speech was amply preserved and exercised, there were evidences of a new understanding of the necessity of coordinate action based on a coherent plan. Two years ago the spring convention adopted a platform which, so far as it could be understood by anybody, called for half a dozen wild performances in the name of "progress." That platform, to be sure, was forgotten a week after its adoption, and did not seriously hamper the Union or the Union's candidate in the election canvass. But, fortunately, this course has not been repeated. The resolutions which the convention adopted referred to the subject in hand, and the matter of drafting a platform was turned over to a committee to report in the fall. The wonderful growth and vitality of the Union prove that an organization dealing with political affairs can be held together by another and stronger influence than "the cohesive power of public plunder." Its new sagacity and temperateness of tone show that it is learning by experience.

The actual withdrawal of one large trust company from Clearing House affiliations, because of that institution's requirement of cash reserves, and the reported purpose of two or three others to withdraw, are a matter for regret. We so regard it, despite the facts that the reasons are not hard to understand, and that the present situation will scarcely be altered by the action. The rule adopted just a year ago covered only future applicants for Clearing House privileges; but it was distinctly suggested that trust companies already using the Clearing House ought, in view of the greatly expanded credit situation, to adopt such a policy, and the Pres-

ident of the Clearing House intimated that the requirement might, later on, be thus extended. After ten months, on the 11th of last February, the trust companies having made no sign, this further action was taken, by a unanimous vote. The position of the trust companies appears to be, that they will not submit to dictation at the hands of the Clearing House. Rather than regulate their business on lines prescribed by that organization, they intimate that they will forego its privileges. If they do, their future policy as regards their own reserves will impose on them a grave responsibility. The one institution, which has already formally withdrawn, occupies in this regard an exceptional position. It carried, last year, one-fifth of the entire cash on hand reported by the seventy-seven trust companies of New York State; the reserve thus carried by it being $2,021,607. By its own example, therefore, the Union Trust Company recognizes the wisdom of cash reserves for its fellow-institutions. The question what policy other withdrawing companies will, in this regard, adopt, must therefore excite deep interest. The other point to which we must call attention is the attitude of the Legislature. It is pretty well known that, but for belief at Albany that the Clearing House rule would be made effective, the pending Smith bill, placing the trust companies under the 15 per cent. reserve requirements of the State banks, would in some form have been adopted. Its adoption, on the eve of this session's adjournment, is out of the question. There is some interest, however, in the query, What will be done at Albany next winter, if the Clearing House's experiment turns out fruitless?

The packing system generally adopted by our street and elevated railways has received something like judicial sanction through a decision of Justice McCall of the Supreme Court. The case was that of a passenger who, finding all cars of an elevated train full, except a rear car, which was to be switched off, took his seat in the empty car and, refusing to leave it at the switching station, was put out forcibly by the guard. It should be noted that the train started full with a prospect of greater crowding all the way down town. Under the circumstances, the recalcitrant passenger had a strong case in common sense when he opposed the dropping off of an empty car. The judge could have decided against him only on the ground that such a change of plan as the attachment of an extra car to that particular train would have worked confusion in the general running schedule. It is to be hoped that the decision was based closely upon the specific case, for a general assertion of the principle that the train schedule of the elevated roads is immutable, and that these railroads need not make particular arrangements to meet the changing needs of traffic, would make the transit outlook gloomy enough. One of Josiah Flynt's characters observes that "the law's not for the Irish." Many New Yorkers will have about this feeling when they see what may fairly be called "crush law" sustained by the courts.

Whether Great Britain's public credit does or does not, at this moment, surpass that of any other nation, may be a question for discussion; but the question will not be settled by a comparison of prices for England's public securities and ours. The *World* combats, on this ground, the assertion of the *Evening Post's* London correspondent, that "England's credit still stands much above that of any other country"; pointing out that while 2½ per cent. British consols sell now at 91 5-16, United States 2 per cent. bonds are 106¼ bid. Two facts combine, however, to vitiate this comparison. One is, that the interest on our Government bonds is free of tax, as against a present tax of more than 6 per cent. on the income from British consols. The other is, that, out of our $914,500,000 Government bonds outstanding April 1, $495,500,000 were in the hands of banks which had to hold them as a means of retaining their note circulation and public deposits. In this respect, the situation here is much what it was with British consols during 1897, when trustee and savings-bank surplus funds were virtually driven into consols. Since the Colonial Stock Act of 1900—one of Mr. Chamberlain's steps to appease England's dependencies—admitted about $1,000,000,000 new securities to the field of trustee investment, consols have lost their peculiar leverage. United States bonds would have partly lost it if the Aldrich bill, greatly widening the scope of collateral required for Government bank deposits, had become a law. But, in any case, one season's price of Government bonds is a very inadequate measure of relative public credit. If the United States Government had issued eight or nine hundred millions of new bonds within three years, on a depressed investment market, our own present prices could scarcely have been maintained. Yet we could not fairly say that our credit had declined.

Though Mr. Wyndham's Land Purchase bill has been enthusiastically endorsed, as to principle, by the convention of Irish Nationalists at Dublin, the impression is left that much might have been said in opposition had it seemed expedient. Very significantly, the convention, instead of proposing amendments of its own, agreed to leave all such matters to the Irish members of Parliament under Mr. John Redmond. This was a tacit assumption that the Nationalists at Westminster hold the whip hand and can shape the bill in committee after their own mind. It was at once an expression of confidence in Mr. Redmond, and an assertion of the political fact that Mr. Balfour is in the hands of his Irish friends. The favoring voice of the Nationalist convention makes the passage of the bill almost a certainty, for the Liberals cannot oppose it in principle, and Mr. Balfour is too thoroughly committed to the measure to postpone it or dissolve Parliament before a vote is reached. Only an accidental defeat can prevent this result. But Mr. Michael Davitt's contemptuous reference to resident landlordism—a main point in the recommendations of the Land Conference—increasing criticism of the financial features of the bill, and constant mutterings of the old Home Rule propaganda formally reaffirmed by the Dublin convention, indicate that even when the Irish have got the Land Purchase bill they will be certain to ask Mr. Balfour, or a successor, What next?

To an already complicated Ministerial situation in England the new London Education Bill can hardly be helpful. In the comprehensive law of last year London was excepted. There the board schools are most firmly entrenched. The London School Board, an elective body, had on its roll for the year ending March 26, 1902, 546,370 pupils and 11,235 teachers, as against 210,000 pupils in "voluntary" schools (private schools receiving a Government grant). Since 1872 the School Board has done this work of education admirably, and it was supposed that Mr. Balfour's Government would hesitate long before abolishing so efficient a body. Sir William Anson's Education Bill for London, however, is drastic enough. Nothing is to be left of the old School Board except an honorary representation of five in a committee of ninety-seven. Financial control is vested in a committee made up of thirty-six representatives of the London County Council, thirty-one delegates from the Borough Councils of the city of London, twenty-five women, delegates of voluntary schools, etc., and five members of the present School Board. It is an absurdly large commission, and unwieldy also in its constitution. The actual management of the schools (excluding finance) is given to the present Borough Councils, which Mr. John Burns, the Socialist member, describes as "a panjandrum of superior persons." They certainly have no experience in educational matters. The bill has the look of a stupid and complicated measure, even upon the Government's theory that the School Board must go. The logic of the situation was to give complete financial control to the County Council, and allow it to delegate management to committees. But the framers of the bill had political and ecclesiastical reasons for exalting the London boroughs.

THE SOUTH AND THE EDUCATED NEGRO.

At the large and enthusiastic meeting held in this city last week in the interest of negro education in general and the Tuskegee Institute in particular, a note of genuine sympathy for the South was heard in every speech, from Mr. Cleveland's to Mr. Washington's. It is a fine and just sentiment. The South's problem is our problem. We are all one. The head cannot say to the foot, "I have no need of thee." Negro education and uplifting is a national task—nay, in this age, when the ends of the earth are bound together, it is an international task. The South is simply the scene; the actors in the great drama should know no section nor ancient prejudice.

We unfeignedly share in this feeling of common responsibility. The North is in no position to judge the South censoriously. Here, as there, the searching questions need to be put: What are we going to do with the negro after he is educated? Are we to bar him from the occupations for which he is struggling to fit himself? Are we to neglect his political education? Shall we encourage him to become a property owner and a taxpayer, while telling him that the one sure defence of the taxpayer—the suffrage—is not for him? Official returns show that millions of dollars' worth of property is owned in Virginia by colored men. Yet they are injuriously and perhaps illegally disfranchised; and when the Union League Club is asked to look into the matter and take a test case to the United States courts, it lays the resolutions on the table. When the leaders of the race, men of education, character, and ability, are singled out for political honors, shall we be found crying out—or whispering shame-facedly—that such a recognition of the educated negro is a blow to negro education? For the present, we are content to test the whole matter, North and South, by the attitude which is assumed toward the educated colored man. It is not a thing to be left to the future. Black men at the top are already with us. How are we to treat them?

Now we understand perfectly the unreasoning feeling—race instinct, is the exculpatory name for it—which leads people in the South to dread the rise of the negro. It is a complex sentiment. There is in it, first, a shrinking from what is called "social equality," and, second, a vivid memory of the excesses and crimes of government in the South during reconstruction. But precisely from the educated negro has the South least of all to fear in either of those particulars. What complaints are ever heard of colored physicians or clergymen pushing themselves into white society where they are not wanted? In the city of Nashville, the leading dentist is a negro. He has the patronage of the best white people, yet none of them have ever thought there was a peril of "social equality" in his case. Education makes men gentlemen, and a gentleman does not thrust himself into circles where his presence is offensive. Similarly on the political side; the reason why the negro vote supported carpet-bag domination in the South was that it was an ignorant vote. Could Dr. Crum of Charleston, could the graduates of Hampton and Tuskegee and Fisk and Atlanta, be thought capable of advocating a policy of spoliation and terrorism such as affrighted the South in the reconstruction period? Yet it is exactly against these educated negroes that feeling in the South is now running highest.

That is why we maintain that the political rights of the negro are inseparably bound up with the cause of his education. It is not Northern prejudice, but Southern intolerance, which is forcing that issue to the front. Some say that the South will take kindly to the negro after we have made him worthy of citizenship. But it is the very colored men most worthy whom the Southern press and Southern Congressmen most bitterly assail. Educated negroes have been sparingly and cautiously appointed by the President as examples to their race, but what is the response? Read the Charleston *Evening Post*. "Let us remove the negro," it says. It frankly admits that "the attitude of the Southern white man towards the negro is incompatible with the fundamental ideals of the republic," but it adds that, until the colored population is expatriated or exterminated, "we will subordinate the negro and not worry about the fundamental forms of government." We do not accuse this Southern newspaper of being recreant to democratic principles above all that dwell in the North. It is simply a little more outspoken than many Northern men who think as it does. Senator Tillman said, most significantly, in his speech in Charleston a few days ago, that he could have obtained the rejection of Dr. Crum's nomination "in a secret session of the Senate." "Senators have denounced it privately, but they are afraid to vote against it." There is, undoubtedly, timidity and truckling at the North as well as intolerance at the South. But both will be made ashamed, or swept away, if the clear issue of human rights, with the guarantee of the Constitution, is pressed as it should be.

THE NAVAL FOLLY.

A distinguished naval officer writes to us: "One of the signs of the times is the transfer of the struggle for armed superiority from the land to the sea. In this transfer we have become entangled —largely through our holding on to the Philippines, which makes us guilty of the strategic blunder of maintaining an outpost many thousands of miles from our base." He asks us to comment upon this surprising change in policy which results in "substituting Jack Tar for Tommy Atkins on the peasant's back."

The theme is inviting. Take the matter of expense. All public expense means, by so much, personal deprivation. Income to the Government means outgo to the citizen. We have frequently remarked on the swollen and swelling naval appropriations of Great Britain, France, and Germany. The huge estimates for new ships and their maintenance are presented to Commons, Chamber, or Reichstag with an apologetic air. But how stands our own account? We are pushing up our annual expenditure on the navy at a portentous rate. Twenty years ago the naval appropriation bill carried less than $15,000,000. Even as late as 1895 it had reached only about $25,000,000. But the bill for the current year appropriated no less than $80,000,000. That is to say, the naval tax has mounted from about 45 cents per capita in 1892 to $1 in 1903—a cornerstone fact for the McKinley monument. Moreover, the expense is bound to go on by cumulative additions. One hand washes the other, and for both the country has to pay. A programme of navy enlargement to the tune of $20,000,000, as provided this year, compels enlarged appropriations for equipment and support. New ships require new men; 3,000 more seamen are to be enlisted, under the terms of the last naval appropriation bill, with 550 men added to the Marine Corps, and the number of midshipmen in the Naval Academy doubled. All told, we are at the present time clearly on a road which will speedily lead us to a naval establishment that will demand an outlay of $150,000,000 annually.

Thus rapidly are we wiping out, of our own motion, the advantage which we have always boasted that we had over European nations. Our isolation, with our expanding population, freed us from the necessity of going armed to the teeth. How, we have asked triumphantly, could the John or Hans or Jacques of the Old World hope to compete with the free labor of American farmers and artisans, so long as the former had to go to their work in the field or shop each with a soldier strapped upon his back? Well, we are strapping on a sailor instead. Do not forget that the dread of vast military establishments which Americans have proverbially expressed has had to do primarily with their costliness. This was what Mr. Roosevelt had in mind when he wrote, seven years ago, "We do not wish to bring ourselves to a position where we shall have to emulate the European system of enormous armies." This was also what he had in mind the other day when, as President, he congratulated the people of the West on the fact that the army, and the expense of it, were being substantially cut down. It is not that he

or anybody fears that a great standing army will destroy our liberties; only that it will eat up our resources. But what shall it profit us to save $5,000,000 on the army if we promptly waste it and $20,000,000 more on the navy? Of all money unproductively locked up, that put into battleships not absolutely needed is the most profligately squandered.

And, as our naval correspondent points out so sagaciously, we are going into this game of naval strategy with an immense strategic blunder at the start. The theory is that we must prepare to defend ourselves by a navy against the possible aggressions of foreign nations. All the millions asked are for defence. No advocate of a big navy for the United States says openly that we dream of attacking anybody. All the talk is simply of making ourselves so strong that no one will dare to assail us. And yet in this process of making ourselves strong, we begin by making ourselves weak strategically, and laying ourselves open to an attack which we have no means of resisting! Who can doubt that, if war were to break out tomorrow between this country and England or France or Russia or Japan, the Philippines would fall to the enemy at the first blow? Their retention is a source of peril to us, in a military sense, just as it was to Spain. Where, on our professed principles of strategy, we should have been drawing ourselves in to become impregnable, we have been spreading ourselves out with the result of becoming highly vulnerable.

Oh, but nobody is going to challenge us in the Philippines. It is not at all necessary to have a fleet in the Pacific strong enough to meet any combination which might be made against us. We are a peace-loving nation. No Power is going to attack us. But this is to give up the whole case. If we do not need a preponderant navy to defend the Philippines, we certainly do not to defend our own shores. If we are to rely upon our good intentions in the one case, we safely may in the other. The truth is that there is no logical middle ground between a small and efficient navy designed for use in peace, and one big enough to meet all comers in any possible war. We are muddling away at great expense in a futile effort to find something between the two. We are not in a position, and there is no likelihood of our ever being in it, to outclass the great naval armaments of Europe; yet as if that impossible goal were our definite objective, we take needless millions from the labor and thrift of our people, and deliberately assume an unnecessary handicap in the industrial competition now pressing so hard upon all the world.

THE MACHINE BREAK-UP.

Dr. Philip Schaff used to speculate on what would happen if an infallible Pope should declare that he was not infallible. A parallel confusion is offered in the spectacle of a beaten boss asserting that he cannot be beaten. Senator Platt essays, in face of the disastrous collapse of his power at Albany on Thursday, an air of philosophic calm. It is a trifle. He half expected it. It will soon blow over. But all that will not do. His followers know what has happened, if the old boss pretends that he does not. They are filling the air with cries of "a revolt" and "disaster," at the very moment when he is trying to draw out the cold steel which has run him through, and to maintain that he has received only a scratch. His most faithful squires perceive that he has been dealt a mortal hurt, and that, though the sword-thrust is not perhaps as deep as a well or so wide as a church-door, 'twill serve.

The rejection of Platt's man Baker by the Senate is naturally accepted, in the minds of all those who go behind the appearance to the substance, as conclusive proof of the ending of the domination of the old Republican machine in this State. It was a crucial test. If a boss cannot, by the exercise of all his power, deliver an office which he has promised, then his glory has obviously departed. He may blunder in policy, he may flaunt his personal indecency in the eyes of the whole State, he may consort with the small-minded and the disreputable, and still retain his power; but if he cannot put his henchmen actually in office, even they will fall away from him. We desire to judge the drama in an entirely detached and impartial spirit. The actors were, doubtless, not all what they seemed. We have our doubts whether Gov. Odell made heroic efforts to secure the confirmation of the Platt nomination which he himself had sent in. The Platt organ is, as usual, shrieking out charges of treachery against the Governor. On the surface, of course, his action was perfectly regular. He lived up to his agreement to nominate Baker. Possibly he may now express his regret that Senator Platt was not strong enough to pull his man through. But it is evident that the people of the State will not stick in the bark of the affair. They understand perfectly that the break has come between Platt and Odell. The latter was told that he could not prevent the reëlection of Platt to the Senate without exposing himself to the charge of the blackest "ingratitude." Platt or ingratitude was the alternative offered him. He consented to the return of Platt, whom he might and should have defeated, only to find that he was afterwards pursued as an ingrate all the more fiercely. Finally, as we conceive, he grew tired of keeping up the pretence any longer, and quietly beat Platt at his own game.

If any doubt of this remained, it must have been dispelled by the nomination of Mr. Morgan, in place of Superintendent McCullagh, directly on the heels of the rejection of Baker. McCullagh pinned all his hopes on Platt's support. Serviceable to the old boss as he had been, and to the bosslet Quigg, he counted confidently upon their machine to keep him in the office which he had so notoriously prostituted. But Gov. Odell refused to renominate him, and, as if to turn the weapon in the wound, selected in his room a man of high character and fine record, absolutely without political backing. Mr. Morgan at the head of the Bureau of Elections cannot fail to be a vast improvement on the discredited McCullagh. Working hand in hand with Mr. Jerome's detectives, he will be able to prevent flagrant colonization on the East Side, and to head off Tammany collusion, for electoral purposes, with some of the worst Raines-law hotels. Young, active, honest, and able, Assistant District Attorney Morgan is an appointee who reflects credit on Gov. Odell for selecting him. We do not doubt that the Governor was anxious to get a good man, but we presume also that he took a certain pleasure in nominating him to an office now filled by a creature of Platt's.

All told, we cannot but regard the late occurrences at Albany as auspicious. The old machine tyranny is visibly breaking up. A handful of Republican Senators have defied the boss to do his worst, and not merely have survived, but stand to-day triumphant, while he is baffled and broken. Senators Brown and Elsberg were literally within the truth when they said that their course had the enthusiastic approval of their constituents. Their independence has not alone brought the Platt machine to disastrous wreck. It has marked out the line of future action for high-minded Republicans, and has plainly indicated who and what manner of men are to be the real leaders of the party after the defeat of Platt is followed by his complete disappearance.

THE MORAL OF THE CRAMPS.

The reorganization of the William Cramp & Sons' Ship and Engine Building Company of Philadelphia, made public on Tuesday, is of more than local or passing significance. The concern has long been national in its scope; and the fact that a loan of $5,000,000 is now found necessary to keep the business going, and that the creditors are practically to take control of affairs, infusing "new blood" and appointing a new manager, certainly challenges attention.

A part of the trouble has doubtless been "dry rot." Other corporations have in like manner failed from being under the shadow of a mighty name. A man of force and initiative builds up a great business, and it comes to be believed that there is magic in the family. Sons

and nephews are taken in at fancy salaries, as if the special talent which first achieved success were inherited with the name. It is like the English traveller who asked Canova's son if he intended to carry on the dead sculptor's "business." There is a good deal of such unconscious prejudice, or favoritism, in the business world; and behind the prestige of a family name the dry rot does its work. Waste creeps in. Obsolete methods are clung to. Vigilance and strain are relaxed, and suddenly the world is astounded to hear that a firm which had been taken to be synonymous with soundness is in danger of bankruptcy. The Cramps appear to have suffered from such causes.

A deeper reason, however, seems to us to lie in the attitude of limp dependence upon the Government which this shipbuilding company has for many years assumed. It has been one of the most clamorous of the subsidy beggars. It has stood by the Treasury, cap in hand, asking an alms. Government contracts without end have been awarded it, but it has demanded, over and above all those, a bounty on every merchant vessel built in its yards. Yet short memories can recall a magazine article by Mr. William Cramp declaring that our shipbuilders would not need a cent of bounty, provided they could get their raw materials free. He was then for a fair field and no favors. But of late the firm's demand has been for an unfair field stuffed full of favors. It has had at least its full share from the Navy Department, official records showing that, of all the money expended on "the new navy" since 1882, more than 60 per cent. has gone into Pennsylvania, with its steel works and shipyards, and armorplate factories. This fact, by the way, helps us to understand the high degree of patriotism—in the sense of readiness to pick a quarrel, leading to a demand for more ships—for which that State has been somewhat noted. But all that we note now is that the Cramps have had a large part of this Governmental business. If paternalism could have saved them, they would not have discovered their sudden need of more "working capital." Yet it would seem that all the time and money spent in securing navy contracts, and in running to Washington for years to join forces with those who were going in for the old flag and a subsidy, availed only to betray their weakness in the end.

It is an old moral thus pointed afresh. Captains of industry are lords of their own fate. No other, be that other a Government, can save them from the penalties of bad business management. And the worst of the mischief is that the habit of leaning upon Government aid directly or indirectly encourages bad management. Why need we bother to keep our plant up to date, to stop this leak and to prevent that loss? Have we not a generous old uncle at Washington who will make all good? So instead of daily inspection of the actual work, instead of careful planning and constant renewal and the freshening of method, we will spend our time with politicians and lobbyists, and strive to obtain by bounty and largess what can be, in the long run, won only by alert energy and the perfection of power to compete. Do we not see, in the case of the Cramps, one more illustration of the old truth that public cosseting, or the hope of it, cuts the nerve of private enterprise?

We refer to the difficulties of the Cramps without the slightest bias, and only because they illustrate a general principle. They show just what the subsidy-mongers and the protection-peddlers really aim at—a system, that is, under which indolence shall fare as well as the severest toil, and negligence profit equally with assiduous attention to the minutest details. Subsidies and protective tariffs, in short, attempt to take care of the lame ducks. But nature's method is to cast the bantling on the rock; and, when all is said, the methods of business have to conform, in the end, to the methods of nature. Even a long course of artificial feeding cannot save man or company that knows not the spirit of self-help. To put an industry on its own feet, and to keep it there by dint of intelligent and unremitting effort, is far better worth the while of inventors and investors and managers than to be forever appealing to Government for help which will do you no good when you get it.

THE IRISH LAND BILL.

DUBLIN, April 4, 1903.

Irish thoughts and interests are now concentrated on the bill introduced on the 25th of March by Chief Secretary Wyndham. The object of the measure is to offer such pecuniary inducements to landlords to sell and to tenants to buy as will bring out a wholesale, or very large, transfer of ownership without actual compulsion. So far as the landlords are concerned, this has been done. Whereas the selling price of landlords' estates in the best of times was on an average not more than twenty-three years' purchase of the rental, and for the last twenty years about seventeen years' purchase, the price which the bill proposes will be from twenty years' purchase for the worst class of estates to nearly thirty-three years' for the best.

Hitherto, landlord sellers have been paid in 2¾ per cent. stock, worth before the South African war 113, but now only worth 90. Under the bill they will be paid in cash. The money required is estimated to amount to about 100 millions sterling, and is to be raised by the issue of stock carrying 2¾ per cent. interest for thirty years, after which it will be redeemable at par. The payment of the interest on the stock will be secured (1) by the annuities payable by tenant purchasers; (2) by various grants which are now made from the Exchequer in aid of local taxation, for the support of lunatics, police, and for educational purposes; (3) by the local rates, which the Lord Lieutenant can order to be increased in case of any loss by default in payment of the land-purchase annuities.

Under the fiscal system which has been developed by Tory governments during the last twenty years, the three divisions of the United Kingdom receive sundry grants in relief of local taxation, for purposes which previously had been considered to be the special concern of the local governing units. The resulting confusion between local and imperial finance has made all accounts of receipts and expenditure of taxation obscure and often unintelligible; it has made efficient supervision and control by Parliament almost impossible; and the effect of the financial provisions of the Land Bill on the general body of taxpayers will be apprehended by very few persons. However, Mr. Wyndham was able to assure the British taxpayer that he ran no risk; that the loan proposed to be issued was secured over and over again, and that England stood to win financially. There can be no doubt about that, though it may be difficult to ear-mark the particular Irish funds that will be successively liable for the losses that are inevitable in giving the landlords prices for their estates far in excess of any that they ever expected, or would have taken twelve months ago.

Mr. Wyndham anticipated that it would take fifteen years to issue the whole amount of purchase money; and as there will be an immediate loss on the issue at a discount of the 2¾ per cent. stock, the fund made immediately liable for that loss is a yearly grant of £185,000 for educational purposes—a grant made to balance a similar one arranged last year for Great Britain. It was hoped that the now well-ascertained and almost universally admitted overtaxation of Ireland might have been a sufficient reason for throwing the expenses and losses in carrying out this great reform on the shoulders of the whole body of the United Kingdom taxpayers; but that is not to be so. The British rule is, that Ireland is not a separate financial entity when it is a question of increased taxation for British purposes, but that she is, and must bear the entire cost, when it is a question of expenditure on Irish national objects. The British Treasury claimed, when the overtaxation of Ireland was demonstrated to the Financial Relations Commission, that their expenditure in Ireland, pronounced wasteful and demoralizing, should be taken as a set-off. Mr. Wyndham announced that savings made in Irish administration during the last few years amounted to £440,000, and that he hoped to effect very much larger savings; but no intention of allocating these savings to Irish purposes was intimated. The British Treasury must win, and will win largely, over this business.

Now for the tenant purchaser's position. Hitherto he had agreed to buy for a lump sum, which he usually reckoned at so many years' purchase of his rent. He could repay this by paying an annuity of 4 per cent. on the price for forty-two and one-half years; or he might have this annuity reduced by 10 or 12 per cent. at the end of each of the first three decades, and then continue paying 2½ per cent. on the original loan until seventy-two years had

elapsed from the date of his purchase; or he might pay off the whole or any part of the loan at any time. When he bought he became full and absolute owner of his farm. He was proprietor *a cœlo usque ad inferos*.

That is not to be so under the Land Bill. No purchaser will become absolute owner, nor is he to agree to buy for any known sum. He must agree to buy for an annuity which is not to be less than 10 per cent. or more than 40 per cent. below his existing rent; seven-eighths of this annuity will be terminable in sixty-eight and one-half years, and one-eighth is to remain a perpetual charge on the land. Mines, minerals, rights of shooting, hunting, and fishing do not pass to the purchaser, but are to remain the property of the State—*i. e.*, at present, the Treasury. The purchaser will not become the owner; he will be a State tenant, with a right to use the surface of the land for farming purposes only, and without power to explore or develop its mineral resources if they exist, If a tenant wants to know what price he is paying for this limited ownership, he must divide the annuity he has agreed on with his landlord into two parts, and multiply one-eighth of the annuity by 36.36 and seven-eighths by 30.7. The selling landlord will get in addition a bonus of from 15 per cent. on the purchase money of estates not exceeding £5,000 capital value, to 5 per cent. on estates where the total price exceeds £40,000. The purchasing tenant cannot be said to pay this bonus, except so far as he contributes to it as a taxpayer.

Another provision in relief of the landlords is that they may sell their demesnes and home farms to the State, and then repurchase them by means of a terminable annuity of 3¼ per cent. for sixty-nine years; but in these cases the mines, minerals, and sporting rights do not vest in the State. The owners will retain full ownership; they can buy off any rent charges they are now subject to for twenty years' purchase, and, by paying off mortgages on which the interest would usually be from 4½ to 6 per cent., they materially increase their income at the expense of the public.

The entire bonus expected to be given to the landlords during the next fifteen years is estimated at about twelve millions. There are some excellent and unobjectionable provisions in the bill for expediting the investigation of landlords' titles and the distribution of the purchase money. Red tape and lawyers' cobwebs are swept away if the administration act in the spirit in which these clauses are conceived.

Looking at the measure as a whole, I should say it is not fair as between landlord and tenant. It gives the landlord far more than the value of his estate, and does not give the tenant the full ownership that he desires to have, nor adequate consideration for what he will have to pay. It is unfair between Great Britain and Ireland, for it puts an unnecessarily heavy charge on the Irish taxpayer for a reform from which England will derive not only a large benefit, but a profit. It is questionable whether the tenants will be very anxious to buy on the terms offered. They will see the general unfairness of the terms, but they may be driven to accept whatever alleviation of their present burdens is obtainable, as a hungry man might pay a shilling for a loaf when he knew the fair price should be fourpence.

A convention is to meet in Dublin to discuss the bill before it is read a second time. If the finance of the bill as between landlord, tenant, and Irish taxpayer could be clearly explained, I think its rejection would be certain; but there are many persons interested in and desirous of seeing some final measure passed, and it is not likely that country farmers will form a majority of the speakers at the convention.

AN IRISHMAN.

THE RELIGIOUS PROBLEM IN FRANCE.

ITHACA, April 14, 1903.

The campaign against religious and monastic orders, which for the last three years has been disturbing French politics, and which is now once more agitating the national Parliament, is only an episode in the struggle, centuries old, between Church and State. Under the old régime, the question was simply that of establishing the preëminence of the civil power over the power of the Church, and the control by the State over ecclesiastical dignitaries of all degrees. The Church was none the worse for it. It existed as a privileged order, rich and powerful. The Catholic religion formed an inseparable element of the national life. The Church kept the registers of births and marriages, and had all education in its hands. It had the prestige and the power of a State religion. With the Revolution of 1789 the contest entered upon a new phase. The efforts of the civil power were no longer limited to resisting the encroachments of the power of the Church. After effecting more and more the separation of the two powers by restricting ecclesiastical authority to its proper sphere, the State next sought to diminish the influence of Catholicism upon the popular mind. The policy, brutally begun by the Constituante, was continued by the Convention; its effects, however, were not lasting. Napoleon and his successors restored to the Church some of its privileges and a part of its influence. In fact, all the monarchical governments of France found it to their interest to make with the Church an alliance by which both parties profited.

It is only since the establishment of the present republic that the *politique laïque*, the policy of thorough secularization, has been pursued in a manner at once methodical and aggressive. The aim of the republic has been to suppress every trace of religion in the official life of the State and in all the institutions which depend upon the State. The slightest vestiges of the ancient alliance between the throne and the altar, however innocent they might appear, have been one after another obliterated. In 1882 the law of Jules Ferry established definitively the secular character of national instruction. In many places the crucifixes were removed from the schools, and the clergy of all denominations were forbidden to enter. The participation of military troops in religious processions was likewise prohibited. The chaplains in the army were abolished. In 1884 the public prayer which the Constitution directed should be offered at the opening of each session of Parliament, was abolished by the two houses in joint session. In 1889 the clergy were deprived of their privilege of exemption from military service, and the popular cry, "Les curés sac au dos," out of which Boulanger made capital, gave an indication of the spirit in which the new law had been framed. Until quite recently there still persisted two venerable relics of the ancient tradition: the "Red Mass," celebrated in the presence of the magistrates and the bar each year at the opening of the term, and the ceremonies held on Good Friday on all the national vessels of war. During the Ministry of Waldeck-Rousseau these two observances were likewise abolished.

Every year, when the appropriations are voted, a motion is made for the abolition, pure and simple, of the appropriation for the support of religious worship and of the embassy to the Vatican. It is regularly backed by a strong minority. Four years ago, one hundred and sixty-six Deputies even voted for a motion to remove from the French coinage the motto, "Dieu protège la France." It may be added that the Republican party in France is inclined, as a whole, to manifestations of anti-religious feeling. The great leaders of the Republican party, Gambetta, Victor Hugo, Jules Ferry, Floquet, Burdeau, were buried without religious ceremonies. The President of the Republic is held to strict prudence in all religious matters. Félix Faure was ridiculed for having asked the little girls of an orphan asylum to remember him in their prayers. M. Combes was lately hooted at by his own majority for incidentally expressing the opinion that the great mass of the public is not yet ready to be satisfied with purely ethical ideas for a religion. The combination of religious features with matters of government and politics in the United States, as manifested in the invocation of the name of God in official documents, and in the prayers offered in Congress and in political conventions, appear to French Republicans a shocking inconsequence.

One would naturally conclude that the logical result of such a conception would be the complete separation of the churches and the State. Such is, in fact, the case. The platform of the Radical party has always placed this measure among the reforms most urgently called for. But, when in power, the Radicals have never dared to put it into effect; they have feared that such a separation would make the Church too strong and leave the State with too little control over her. This was the belief of Gambetta, of Paul Bert, and of Ferry, the leaders of the anti-clerical movement in the Third Republic. To them, entire separation seemed a course full of danger. Under these circumstances the different administrations have restricted themselves to waging war upon such institutions of a religious character as they have considered unnecessary to the exercise of religion and dangerous to the State.

This is the origin of the famous Law of Associations. This law, passed in July, 1901, contains two threatening sections. Section 13 declares that no religious organization shall be permitted to exist without legal authorization. Section 18 declares that organizations to which authorization is refused shall be considered dissolved. The author of the law, M. Waldeck-Rousseau, a statesman of the anti-clerical, but not of the anti-religious school, desired

simply to reach some of the religious orders taking an active part in politics and in teaching. Both in number and in fortune these had increased to an alarming extent. In 1789 there were in France only 60,000 members of religious orders; today there are 200,000. In a famous speech delivered in April, 1900, Waldeck-Rousseau said, "This country really has too many monks in business and too many monks in politics." He also wished to strike a blow at certain orders which have monopolized in France the education of a large part of the middle class, and which helped to bring up half the youth of France with ideas hostile to the principles of modern society.

M. Waldeck-Rousseau had the law enacted, and then voluntarily withdrew from the premiership. It was his successor, M. Combes, who, with the support of the Radical majority of the new Chamber, undertook its administration. M. Combes himself belongs to the school of aggressive Radicalism. He interpreted the law in its most restrictive sense, and availed himself of every pretext which it afforded for hostile action against the orders. In accord with the advice of a commission, headed by M. Buisson, a distinguished educator, professor of philosophy in the Sorbonne, recently elected Deputy, he decided to refuse authorization to all the orders except those of two classes—the missionary orders and the hospitallers. Last March the Chamber ratified this policy. Fifty-four congregations of men, belonging to three classes, teaching, preaching, and commercial, have been condemned to extinction. By three successive votes, the first of which was of 300 to 257, the Chamber has refused even to consider the petitions of these monks, whether devoted to education, like the Marists and the Eudists; to preaching, like the Dominicans and the Oratorians; or to contemplation and industry, like the Carthusians, the distillers of Chartreuse. Taking advantage of its powers under the law to refuse authorization as it pleases, the Chamber has made a veritable hecatomb. Only a few congregations have survived—those previously authorized, like the Brothers of the Christian Schools and the Priests of St. Sulpice, and the missionaries and hospitallers, whose fate rests with the Senate.

Of course, these radical measures have not been voted without vehement protestations and eloquent speeches. Nowhere are there such splendid debates, from the point of view of oratory, as in France when great political and religious questions come up before Parliament. Two years ago, when the original law was under debate, there were great speeches by M. de Mun and by M. Waldeck-Rousseau; last month, when the application of the law was being discussed, the leading orators were M. Combes and M. Ribot. It would be idle to offer a personal opinion on a question of this kind, which each individual regards differently, according to his temperament, his education, and his principles. I shall therefore confine myself to outlining the arguments of the three parties which have formed themselves in France with regard to the question of the congregations.

In the first place, the supporters of the law are made up of Progressist Republicans who would like to ruin the clerical party, and of Radicals and Socialists whose aim is the destruction of Roman Catholicism itself. Their arguments are various. Against the religious orders in general they urge that these are based upon an inadmissible principle, that of the surrender of personality. "We refuse," says M. Buisson, "to place the seal of the State upon a contract which alienates the liberty of the citizen." The congregations have built up a power which is politically dangerous because hostile to modern institutions, and economically dangerous because it withdraws from general use an immense property held in mortmain. Moreover, in 1792, the Revolution suppressed them by a law which is still in force, and the Concordat did not renew them. They are useless to the real work of religion. Certain congregations in particular are reproached with living by the exploitation of human credulity, and with encouraging what M. Waldeck-Rousseau has termed "a crude thaumaturgy designed to impose upon the mob." This is an allusion to the enterprise conducted by the Franciscans, who collect money for St. Anthony of Padua, in return for which the saint is believed to restore lost articles to their owners. Other congregations traffic in the labor of orphans, as was done by the Sisters of the Good Shepherd at Nancy, recently prosecuted and convicted in the courts. Their establishment closely resembled a sweat-shop. Political congregations have, like the Assumptionists, conducted against the republic, in scurrilous journals of their own, a campaign of abuse and misrepresentation, or, like the Dominicans, have preached from their pulpits against the acts of the Administration or of the Parliament. It is, however, the teaching orders which have aroused the deepest resentment. These offer both primary and secondary instruction, and imbue the minds of the rising generation with ideas hostile to modern progress. M. Bourgeois some years ago read in the Chamber of Deputies passages from exercises written by the pupils of religious schools, approving or misrepresenting the massacre of St. Bartholomew and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. From the mere fact that the monks and sisters live apart from society, say the defenders of the law, they are unqualified to form the citizens who are to compose it. "The republic," said M. Combes, "has lavished millions to insure to all its children an education founded solely upon the principles of reason, justice, and solidarity. It would be an act of treason to the republic to annul or even to weaken the effect of this sacrifice, by leaving the way open, as it has been in the past, to the enterprises of the congregations."

To these arguments the Catholics reply that the congregations form an integral part of the Church, and that their history is inseparable from that of France herself. To banish them is to infringe the liberty of those who are called to the contemplative life, a legitimate and honorable life, to which such emancipated thinkers as Taine and Victor Hugo have paid tribute. It is to infringe the liberty of parents who regard the education furnished by the monks as the best for their children. This is the position which was taken by the two great orators of the Catholic party, M. de Mun and M. Denys Cochin.

Between these extreme opinions, the one seeking the total abolition of the congregations, and the other their absolute freedom from control, lies the view of the Liberal Republicans, whose spokesmen in the Chamber have been M. Ribot and M. Aynard, and whose newspaper organ has been the *Temps*. They agree with the Radicals in considering the congregations hostile to modern ideas, in considering the instruction furnished by them insufficient to form good citizens of a democracy, and in regarding with contempt the degrading fetishism which some of them are encouraging. They agree with the Radicals, also, in fearing the dangers of the accumulation of vast properties in mortmain, and are willing to take measures against it. On the other hand, they are not deceived by the appeals to liberty made by the Catholic party when their own liberty is in danger. They know well that, through the ages, the Catholic party has stood for intolerance and fanaticism. Its political creed is the Syllabus which anathematizes freedom of worship and freedom of inquiry, and which declares in so many words, "The Church must not become reconciled to progress, to liberalism, to modern civilization." At the present moment it claims the title of the party of liberty, but is really, as M. Clémenceau said in the Senate, "the party of authority, the party of authority in distress, of authority overthrown." Its policy is that long ago formulated by the famous Ultramontane journalist Veuillot: "When we are in power, we refuse you liberty, for that is our doctrine; when we are out of power, we demand liberty, for it is your doctrine to give it to us."

Despite all this, the Liberal Republicans have not felt themselves justified in refusing even to the congregations the right to exist. Liberty is absolute. One cannot refuse it even to those who do not deserve it. The monks have a barbarous and antiquated notion of life and of its duties; parents who send their children to them must be blind. Agreed. But one and all have the right to make errors of judgment. Liberty includes liberty to err; without that, it is not liberty. If the principles of modern democracy are to triumph, the State must rely not upon constraint, but upon the voluntary support of its citizens. To attempt to base the moral unity of a country upon compulsion, would be to repeat the disastrous experiments of the old régime, and to apply to Catholicism the policy which Catholicism has unsuccessfully attempted to apply to its adversaries.

The Liberal party and the Catholic party have been defeated in the struggle, and the Jacobins have triumphed along the entire line. The observer of modern and liberal spirit, convinced that the social, political, and religious doctrines represented by the congregations are ominous to civilization, remains perplexed and disquieted before this result. On the one hand, he can hardly regret the defeat of a party whose principles are repugnant to him; on the other hand, he can take no pleasure in a victory which, if in accord with reason, is certainly not in accord with liberty.

OTHON GUERLAC.

COURAGE AMONG ENGLISH POLITICIANS

LONDON, April 3, 1903.

Boldness is in England the quality which most attracts the admiration and confi-

dence of the people, and what is true of England is, I take it, true of the United States. Mr. Chamberlain is at this moment the most impressive figure in English public life. Whatever may be his virtues or his faults—and with neither of these is this letter concerned—he to-day commands the trust of the electors. He is applauded by Conservatives who, till 1886, looked upon him as a typical demagogue; he is praised by Liberals who, since 1886, have denounced him as a deserter to Toryism. What is the cause of his present popularity? It lies in the belief of the people that he is a man of vigor and boldness. It is the faith that he has a strength of will and firmness of purpose not possessed by many of our statesmen, which has given him such a hold on popular imagination as falls at this minute to no other leading politician.

Is not the same thing true in substance of President Roosevelt? Your readers must answer the question, but my strong belief is that it will generally receive an affirmative reply. One thing at least is clear to any student of political history. The statesmen whom the English people have accepted as leaders—and there have of course been prime ministers who have really led nobody—have all displayed one (and it may be only one) common quality. They have all been strong-willed men, or at least men whose will was believed to be strong. Palmerston, Disraeli, Russell, Peel, Gladstone, or Bright may be charged with many faults and errors, but no one could seriously bring against any of them the accusation of weakness. Bright's case is peculiarly instructive; his services to the country as member of the Anti-Corn Law League did not in reality give him anything like the influence which sprang from his opposition to the war with Russia. His conduct was at the moment intensely unpopular; there are still living persons—and the present writer is among the number—to whom the wisdom of the course taken by Bright during the Crimean war appears open to the gravest doubt; it assuredly was the chief cause of his losing his seat in 1857 at Manchester. But—and this is the main point to be noted—temporary unpopularity brought to Bright permanent strength. Electors whose wishes he had thwarted and whose feeling of patriotism he had offended, tacitly recognized his bravery. He became known as a strong man who could, at the bidding of his conscience, defy even the sovereign people.

If boldness commands confidence, one might naturally expect that politicians would be bold. Yet the commonest observation shows us that the courage to act boldly and take responsibility, as also the courage to defy the wish of the party to which a man belongs, or, still more, of the nation, is, among the parliamentary politicians of England, the rarest of all qualities. The people look for leadership, and the men who ought to be their guides wait upon the will of the people, and give tremulous attention to the varying and uncertain expressions of popular opinion. Why, one asks, when boldness is admired, do politicians so often lack courage?

Politics in England and at the present day does not lead to wealth; a political career cannot in the twentieth, as it certainly could in the eighteenth century, be looked upon as a profession which, like the bar, might lead to large emolument. One may reasonably doubt whether any living statesman has gained by office much, if anything, in money. If our public men are wanting in boldness, the reason assuredly is not that political defeat means to them loss of wealth. Nor, again, can the phenomenon which we are examining be explained by the evils, great as they are, of partisanship or faction. A political, no less than a religious zealot may be the boldest and most reckless of mankind. It cannot, again, in fairness be alleged that want of courage is due in the main to want of principle. Even adventurers are often bold, and an average member of Parliament is rarely an unprincipled adventurer. He is a respectable man of respectable abilities, who practises in life the ordinary morality of his generation, which is in many ways as high as the moral standard of public life in the eighteenth or in the earlier part of the nineteenth century; probably, indeed, it is a good deal higher. The famed disinterestedness of Chatham and his son throws a good deal of indirect light upon the corruption which was prevalent in the days of each of these statesmen.

The true causes of political cowardice, the reasons which lead men of real respectability in all private affairs to exhibit a timidity which is certainly not to be respected in their public life, may be referred to three different causes which are apt to escape notice.

The boldness or independence, in the first place, which gains public confidence for a statesman is not a quality that helps him to acquire the position in which he can exercise statesmanship. A local wire-puller may not be a very admirable sort of person, but, like other experts, he understands his own business; and if he is in search for a parliamentary candidate, he assuredly will not prefer the ablest or the boldest man on whom he can lay his hands. He wants not the man who has most character, but the man of a pliant disposition—the man who, within the range of his party, can be all things to all men, and accommodate himself to the wishes or the whims of the voters. The dictum ascribed in England to some eminent American, though I know not to whom, "I should make a first-rate President, but an execrably bad candidate for the Presidency," contains, whoever uttered it, an important truth of the widest application: practice of the arts, even the legitimate arts, by which a candidate gains a seat in Parliament, is not good training for the exercise, when the seat is gained, of statesmanlike boldness. He who has devoted himself to pleasing electors is certain to be nervously afraid of their displeasure.

The loss, in the second place, of a seat in Parliament, though it may in no way affect a man's fortune, is likely to cause him far greater pain than is at first apparent to outside observers. The vote or the speech which loses the support of a member's constituents is given or made subject to a really severe penalty. The punishment or loss is nothing less than the expulsion, certainly for the moment, and possibly for ever, from a pursuit or profession in which the defeated candidate has learned to take pride and pleasure. Take the case of a man of known respectability and worth who has been, say, for twenty years a worthy member of the House of Commons. His position has given him a certain dignity or credit in the town or county where he lives; his words are listened to with more attention than the utterances of his neighbors; his speeches are reported in the local papers; they occasionally attract the notice of the London *Times*. During the Parliamentary session his occupations, his interests, his society, are all dependent upon his forming part of the House of Commons. Can any one wonder that such a man should dread to oppose the publicans, the temperance men, the clergy, or the workmen whose votes may deprive him of the honor of representing Little Pedlington, and thereby force him to change his whole manner of life, and deprive him, at an age when he is too old to find new occupations, of everything which has made the interest of his daily life? The M.P. who loses his seat suffers much the same kind of distress, conceal the fact as he may, as would a barrister if disbarred, or a clergyman if forced, say, by conscientious scruples, to give up his position in the Church. Our defeated candidate may, it is true, reënter Parliament; and as regards the leading statesmen of the day, the conviction that they cannot remain long excluded from the Parliamentary arena does undoubtedly contribute to give them such bravery as they display. Balfour, Chamberlain, Campbell-Bannerman, or John Morley, may feel assured that a defeat at an election means nothing more than a temporary holiday, after which they can each of them resume Parliamentary work; but with the Member for Little Pedlington and indeed with most men who have not sat long in Parliament, it is otherwise. Exclusion from Parliament for one session may likely enough mean exclusion for life. One reason why politicians with aristocratic connections show occasionally exceptional independence is that they hold their seats in Parliament by a comparatively secure tenure.

Sovereigns, in the last place, are always flattered, feared, and admired. This is as true of the sovereign people as of kings; the worship of the democracy is due to exactly the feelings which led courtiers not only to flatter, but, what is more strange, to revere Henry VIII., Elizabeth, and James. The flattery of course springs in no small degree from self-interest. Kings, when really powerful, could exclude men from public life; they could mar the career of a man of genius just as an offended democracy can exclude from Parliament men who are rightly conscious of the gifts which qualify them for a high place in the public service. But neither self-interest nor the meanness of human nature will at all completely account for the genuine admiration kindled by sovereign authority. It is idle to suppose that the adulation offered by men such as More or Wolsey to Henry VIII., or by Bacon to James I., was wholly insincere. Individuals may debase themselves before utterly unworthy idols in obedience to private interests, but a nation cannot be the slave of such corruption, and the whole English people idolized Elizabeth in spite of her fickleness, her vanity, and her meanness. The source of this worship lay at bottom in the almost instinctive tendency of human nature to believe that might must in some way be connected with right. Where men see supreme power, there they long to see extraordinary wisdom, and the desire for illusions never fails to meet with grati-

fication. To the sovereign people is unconsciously attributed a mysterious kind of insight. A modern politician finds it all but impossible not to bow to the will of the people, because at the bottom of his heart he half believes that the voice of the people is in some strange way the voice of God. How can any politician in a democratic society fail to lack courage when he is called upon to resist his political Deity?

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

TELEPATHY ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: However science may be *made* by lonely men observing natural facts and meditating on their meaning, science prevails at last and is disseminated through the public by authority pure and simple. Innovations in science may long be barred from general recognition by the authority of those who hold conservative views. My learned colleague, John Trowbridge, in his article entitled "Telepathy," in your last week's number, presses with all the weight of his authority against the door which certain "psychical researchers" are threatening to open wide enough to admit a hitherto discredited class of facts. His reasonings will soon be forgotten by readers who will yet remember his name and quote his hostile vote if it be left to go unchallenged. So you will, perhaps, allow a lover of fair play, not to discuss telepathy itself, which would indeed be a complicated matter, but to inscribe against Professor Trowbridge's manner of discussing it a protest which some such readers may also happen eventually to remember.

Professor Trowbridge says that there is "no science in the subject of telepathy; it is a belief." So far, he thinks, as men who have made their reputations by accurate work may be counted among its believers, they are men of advancing years who have abandoned strenuous investigation with its small returns, and "find it easier to philosophize and to write out their thoughts than to put them to the test of experiment. When a scientific man," he adds, "takes to such work in psychics and philosophy, the death-knell of his scientific career is rung."

Heaven forbid that the death-knell of my colleague's scientific career should be rung yet, but he has described to a dot his own contribution to psychics and philosophy in this article. He seems to me to have found it easier to philosophize and write out his thoughts than either to experiment or to read the experiments of others, preferring to follow an *à priori* mental image which he has framed, of all the possible evidence for telepathy, and then to lump all possible students of it together in advance as a set of irreclaimably vague "believers."

I do not here assume to say that the various investigations recorded in the Proceedings of the Psychical Research Society have placed "telepathy" in an invulnerable position. Far from it. But I do say that Professor Trowbridge's description of such investigations so little resembles the reality as to be unrecognizable. I find it hard, after reading his article, to believe that he himself has read with any care, or even read at all, such documents as Gurney's Phantasms of the Living, or Mrs. Sidgwick's report on the Census of Hallucinations, or her and Professor Sidgwick's Observations on Thought Transference, and the discussions consequent thereon. Yet how can one effectually criticise evidence with which one seems to have no detailed acquaintance? I write, therefore, to beg Professor Trowbridge's readers and mine not to bow down before mere disparaging generalities and abstract statements, by whatsoever eminent authority they may be published, but rather to go to the original documents themselves, filled as they are with painstaking and minute discussion. Certainly it is not in their pages that the subject is treated with the greater vagueness or inaccuracy.

No man or set of men can be expected to be accurate "all over." Like the body, the mind grows slack when not kept up to standard by incessant training. Within their several sciences, men of science keep each other up to standard by their merciless habits of criticising. But "psychical research" is a dog with so few friends at court that almost any stick seems good enough to beat him with; and I venture to suggest that Professor Trowbridge (like many another physical philosopher who has written on this extraneous theme) has felt so confident of indulgence from his immediate professional fellows, whatever might be his line of argument, that he has let himself go, and indulged in conclusions based on a knowledge of the state of the question which in any matter of pure physics he would have considered unpardonably superficial, and which is certainly so superficial here as to be almost irrelevant. To use his own words, he has "found it easier" to follow unscientific methods.

WILLIAM JAMES.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 18, 1903.

ENGLISH DISCOVERIES IN ANTARCTICA

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An article in the April number of the *Geographical Journal*, the data for which were telegraphed to England, shows that the English Antarctic expedition has made some important discoveries. That of "an extensive, heavily glaciated land with occasional bare and precipitous peaks" in 76 degrees south latitude, 152 degrees thirty minutes west longitude, is significant. In the first place, it is now evident that the so-called Great Ice Barrier is simply the sea front, five or six hundred miles long, of a great glacier, which, much like Muir Glacier, stretches as a perpendicular ice wall along tide-water between two mountainous promontories. Some idea of the size of this glacier may be obtained if one imagines the entire west coast of France fringed by a wall of ice four or five hundred feet high, extending from the Pyrenees to the cliffs of Dover. It would be contrary to all our knowledge of glacial phenomena to suppose that this colossal glacier is afloat, except, perhaps, at its extreme sea front, and probably it rests upon a low plain, which may lie even below sea level, but which surely connects the mountains of Scott Land and Victoria Land.

But the discovery of Scott Land has a still greater significance; for, taken in connection with the discovery by De Gerlache that the ocean bed in about 70 degrees south latitude and 80 to 100 degrees west longitude is shallow, it goes far to show that the coast line of Antarctica, on its Pacific-Australia side, is fairly continuous from Palmer Land in 56 degrees west longitude to Termination Land in 100 degrees east longitude, and there can be little doubt remaining that Antarctica is a continent of still uncertain breadth, but of a length of about three thousand miles.

EDWIN S. BALCH.

PHILADELPHIA, April 20, 1903.

Notes.

With a view to the preparation of a Memoir of the late Edwin L. Godkin, it is requested that his correspondents who may have preserved letters from him available to that end will send them to Mr. Lawrence Godkin, 56 Wall Street, New York. They will be returned in all cases when merely loaned.

One result of the merger of R. H. Russell with Harper & Bros. is that the new Gibson books will hereafter be published by the Scribners; that for 1903 in the autumn. This firm announces a new volume of stories by F. Hopkinson Smith, 'The Under Dog,' and a novel, 'The Modern Obstacle,' by Alice Duer Miller.

John Lane has nearly ready 'The American Advance: A Study in Territorial Expansion,' by E. J. Carpenter.

From the Chicago University Press will issue 'The Place of Industries in Elementary Education,' by Katharine E. Dopp, and 'The Diary and Letters of Wilhelm Müller,' father of the late Max Müller, by Philip S. Allen and James Taft Hatfield. The diary covers only a little more than a year (1815-16).

What must eventuate in a book is the series of papers soon to begin to appear in the *Century*, from the pen of Andrew D. White, consisting of reminiscences of his diplomatic life.

Dana Estes & Co., Boston, have in preparation 'Among the Great Masters of Drama,' by Walter Rowland; 'The Year's Festivals,' by Helen Philbrook Patten; and 'Some Famous American Schools,' by Oscar Fay Adams.

The Oxford University Press announces 'Napoleonic Statesmanship: Germany,' by H. A. L. Fisher; and Essays by a Hausa named Ibrahim, with translation, vocabulary and notes by W. H. Brooks and Lewis H. Nott.

'Ireland and her Story,' by Justin McCarthy, will be the thirteenth volume in the series, "Story of the Empire," published by Horace Marshall & Son, London.

A cheap but not uninviting handy volume, rightly professing itself "a book for every parent," is 'How to Bring up your Children' (London: Low; New York: A. Wessels Co.). "Being Some Thoughts on Education by John Locke" reads the sub-title, more accurately stated at the beginning of the reprint as "Some of Locke's Thoughts concerning Education." This most fruitful of tracts was well worth another edition, abridged inevitably. The extensive cuts are disguised here, first by suppression of the section numbers, and there are silent omissions even in sentences; but we have not detected any squeamishness such as

former editors have shown in changing (for example) "stinking breath" to "'fetid"—in fact, the editor disclaims any tampering with the text. He leaves out the precept about daily bathing of the feet and the wearing of leaky shoes for hardening against colds, the having no set time for meals, etc. What remains is all stimulating, if not to be followed to the letter.

'N. W. Ayer & Son's American Newspaper Annual' (Philadelphia) for 1903 brings its ever-swelling measure of statistical information, clearly and orderly displayed; serving also, apart from the main theme, as a convenient gazetteer of the United States and Canada. The editor reports a net gain of 382 newspapers and periodicals during the twelvemonth, the largest gain since 1897, but curiously localized. The increase of dailies in this country "is largely due to the extension of the Rural Free Delivery System, which has caused, in many cases, the establishment of new dailies, or the change from weekly or other issue to daily. The discontinuance of the weekly edition of leading newspapers is becoming increasingly noticeable." Care has to be exercised by the editor in not entering new periodicals from the first number, not a few of them never going further. Much else is to be learned from this painstaking and authoritative repertory.

"The Nation Back of Us"—one-half of the motto of Mr. Lummis's monthly magazine *Out West* (Los Angeles, Cal.)—appears to be justified by the surpassing fulness of the seventeenth bound volume just to hand, exhibiting, as usual, the greatest variety of illustrations. There is the customary series of articles descriptive of localities. Irrigation is to the fore in the department entitled "Twentieth Century West." The practical, conservating Landmarks Club and the uplifting Sequoya League ("To Make Better Indians")—would that this last had its correlative at the South—are here traceable in their membership and doings. For the scholarly part, the editor concludes the Diary of Fray Junípero Serra, and gives liberal extracts relating to early English voyages to the Pacific coast of America, from Sir Francis Drake. There is hardly any interest pertaining to the Pacific slope that does not find some echo in this rich miscellany of fact and imagination.

'My Woodland Intimates,' by Effie Bignell (Baker & Taylor Co.), is a series of nature sketches, the scene of which is, in most cases, the immediate surroundings of the writer's home in eastern New Jersey. Mrs. Bignell gives her impressions and experiences among the trees and flowers of her small domain and the little creatures in fur and feathers that frequent it. Two attractive chapters tell how squirrels learned to come in at her window and take food from her hands, and how the birds resorted to the feasts she daily spread for them on lawn and window-sill. While the sketches lack the interest and virility that characterize the work of our best writers on such subjects, they are pleasant in style and sincere and modest in tone.

Among the recently published books on the Old Masters, written with too rare exceptions by uncritical compilers or glib journalists, Dr. G. Gronau's little volume on 'Leonardo da Vinci' (London: Duckworth & Co.) stands out as the work of an expert connoisseur, cultured scholar, refined critic, and delicate writer. A sketch of the artist's life is followed by an account of his few but matchless achievements. Here the reader will find not only all he need know about their genesis, but appreciations no less delightful than illuminating. The brief but adequate sketch ends with a number of significant passages from Leonardo's 'Treatise on Painting.' It is seldom that one can differ on even small points from Dr. Gronau's conclusions. Over forty illustrations, excellently reproduced, comprising all the master's paintings and the most interesting of his drawings, enable us to follow the writer step by step.

The collaboration of two sensible Englishmen, E. T. Benson and E. H. Miles, whose personal habits in relation to flesh, alcohol, tobacco, and some other matters are antipodal, has produced a very rational, untechnical little book on 'Daily Training' (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). We commend it for careful reading by all who have the care of youth of either sex, although the authors appear to have boys chiefly in view. When it has been absorbed by the masters and certain minor factors of local character have been eliminated, let it be transferred bodily or by indirection to the pupils. The influence of training on mind and morals occupies a chapter whose supreme sense every man of middle age, especially if city bred, must concede. He may regret that the guardians of his own youth had not inculcated those principles, but it should not be too late for him to confer their benefits upon his adolescent successors.

The 'Manual of Bacteriology' of Drs. Robert Muir and James Ritchie, revised and edited, with additions, from the third English edition by Norman MacLeod Harris (Macmillan), is a clear and well-developed exposition of the present state of the science. It is a working manual for the laboratory, which also is intelligible and should be interesting to many not qualified for the personal management of culture tubes and immersion lenses. Practical interest in this study lies in its relation to so many diseases which play havoc with human life. Not merely hydrophobia and tetanus, which are rare, typhoid fever and tuberculosis, always with us, cholera, an epidemic of slaughter, and leprosy, communicable and as yet incurable, but also the more familiar pneumonia and inflammatory rheumatism, although not so regarded popularly, all are of bacterial origin. The list is constantly growing. The domain of bacteriology includes the theory of immunity and of recovery from disease, methods for purifying sewage, a study of soils, water, and air. It touches human life at almost every physical point. All along these lines the Manual is clear and intelligent, and, where a topic remains *sub judice*, it frankly says so. It is sufficiently contemporaneous to include the remarkable discoveries of Reed and his colleagues about yellow fever, and it does not appear to omit any established or probable fact. Comparison with the excellent first edition (1897) shows this to be a real revision, and the book is not only much larger, but in every way more complete. To those who know the first, that should mean high praise.

The *Burlington Magazine*, which begins its series with the recent March, quite keeps its promise of distinctiveness of scope and beauty of form. It is a matter of some pride to Americans that Mr. Bernhard Berenson should have the place of honor in his scholarly article, "Alúnno di Domenico." He ascribes to a disciple of the great Ghirlandajo a number of panels, notably the Nastagio degli Onesti series, credited by Vasari to Botticelli. The disciple of Domenico was also, it would seem, a prolific illustrator towards the end of the fifteenth century. Of even greater importance is a first instalment of Mr. James Weale's "The Early Painters of the Netherlands," devoted chiefly to Hubert van Eyck. Mr. Herbert Horne believes that he has discovered copies from which may be reconstructed "A Lost Adoration of the Magi" by Sandro Botticelli. Decorative and applied art is represented by an article on "French Furniture of the Louis XIV. Period," by Émile Molinier, a study of Oriental carpets, one on tinder-boxes, and a description of the Hôtel de Lauzun at Paris. Pure archivism claims only Mr. C. J. Ffoulkes's "The Date of Vincenzo Foppa's Death," in which, by a study of new records, it is shown that Foppa worked well on into the sixteenth century, twenty years or so longer than was formerly supposed. The volume—for such it is, in fact—closes with a review of recent acquisitions by the London Museums. It will have appeared already that the new magazine appeals primarily to collectors and connoisseurs, but bibliophiles are also in mind, for it is printed in large quarto on excellent paper, and full half the illustrations are in collotype or similar process on Japanese vellum. A supplement containing news of art sales will accompany each monthly number. At a dollar a number or $10.80 a year, it is good value. The American agents are Samuel Buckley & Co., No. 100 William Street, New York.

In the February Bulletin of the American Geographical Society Mr. George S. Morison, of the Isthmian Canal Commission, gives an interesting account of the Isthmus of Panama with regard to the canal and the engineering difficulties. This route, though superior in no one respect to any of the others, has many less bad features than any other. The Culebra cut should be attacked first, and, when that is finished (in about ten years after work is begun), all the rest of the canal will be finished at the same time. Lake Bohio, to receive the excess of discharge of the Chagres River, will be more than twelve miles long. Mr. Carl Lumholtz, in the same number, has an article on the Huichol Indians, which should be read in connection with our late notice of his book. Mr. William A. Shedd remarks upon far travellers among the Syrians of Persia and eastern Turkey. In a remote village, Mar Zaya, in a rugged valley on the borders of Persia, in the shadow of a massive old church, reputed to be 1,500 years old, there live men who have had adventures in every part of the world. He says that he has seen letters from or concerning them from Austria, England, America, Dahomey, Cape Colony, India, South America. But it is uncertain whether these are the vagrant beggars of whom he has just been speaking, or the handicraftsmen.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for April the editor, Mr. G. H. Grosvenor, gives an interesting account of the domestication of reindeer in Alaska. The enterprise, as our readers are aware, originated with Dr. Sheldon Jackson, the general agent of edu-

cation, who twelve years ago brought a herd of sixteen from Siberia to Unalaska. Now there are nearly 6,000 head in the various herds distributed along the coast, and, considering the fact that there are 400,000 square miles of tundra covered with the long fibrous white moss which is the food of this animal, their number may be increased to a million within the next twenty-five years. The business of reindeer raising is a profitable one. "A fawn during the first four years costs the owner less than $1 a year. At the end of the four years it will bring at the mines from $50 to $100 for its meat, or, if trained to the sled or for the pack, is easily worth $100 to $150." The cultivation and preparation for the market of the agave or henequen, often called sisal hemp, is described by Mr. E. H. Thompson, our consul at Progreso. Most of the exported material, amounting to 600,000 bales, worth $14,000,000 in 1902, comes to this country, where it is used for sacking, cordage and binders' twine. Both articles are profusely illustrated.

The German colonies in Palestine, as described by Dr. Saad in Petermann's *Mitteilungen* number one, seem likely to have a not unimportant influence upon the future of that country. There are several small settlements, and three with from 300 to 600 colonists, mostly members of the Tempelgesellschaft, a society formed in 1853 for the restoration of primitive Christianity and the rebuilding of the Temple at Jerusalem. Their simple lives and industrious habits are not without effect upon the natives about them, who are beginning to learn from them improved methods of cultivating the ground. A most attractive picture is drawn of the Haifa colony, with its street nearly a mile long, lined on both sides with charming two-story European houses embosomed in cypress and fruit trees, while far up the green slope of Carmel extend their gardens and vineyards. They have excellent schools, with more than a hundred pupils in two of them. A serious obstacle to their continued prosperity, however, is the extreme difficulty of acquiring more land, as they have outgrown the capacity of that originally granted them. Other articles are descriptive of Savaii, the largest and least known of the Samoan group, and of the volcanic eruption on 1t October 31, 1902, and of the Siberian coast territory, with numerous facts and statistics relating to population, products, industries, and commerce.

A valuable summary of the provisions of the New Zealand "Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1900," which has thus far given fairly good satisfaction, is to be found in the Consular Reports for March. Among them is one intended to prevent the needless multiplication of industrial unions, and also one affirming that "every industrial union can sue, or be sued, for the purposes of the act by the name by which it is registered." Our consul-general at Berlin shows how the new German tariff is likely to affect the future import trade of Germany from this country, and describes, with illustrations, a new device for preventing railway collisions by means of a light third rail forming a continuous conductor. A review of our foreign commerce in 1902, by the chief of the Bureau, shows that "there has been recovery in the export of factory products during the past year," but warns of the danger of "another glut." Referring to the publications of the Bureau, he states that there is a widespread demand for them on the part of colleges and schools as reference books in special courses of commercial instruction.

The *Korea Review* opens the year with papers on native astrology, and is full of matters of local interest, including good full-page photographic reproductions; but the paper of greatest historic interest describes a journey made between the two chief ports on the eastern coast of Korea so rarely visited by foreigners. It was made on pack pony from Fusan to Wonsan by the Rev. H. Burkwall, through what was, during the splendid Buddhist age, A. D. 400-1392, the flourishing kingdom of Silla, with which the Arabs traded, and which the Chinese sea captains reached by using the mariner's compass, as is recorded, in the twelfth century. Besides other ruins of ancient cities, there are, near the city of Kyong-ju, thirty-four high mounds, about fifty feet high, in which, according to Korean folklore, the "magic golden measure," which fills so large a page in the vernacular stories, was hidden by the king, when demanded by the Chinese Emperor, who had heard of the fame thereof. One bell, over ten feet high, with its Chinese characters nearly undecipherable through wear, has sent out its mellow notes for more than twelve hundred years. Thirty mounds, seventy-five feet high, were counted within sight of a circular edifice of masonry formerly used as an astrological observatory. Ruined stone pagodas and other evidences of wealth and power, with alas! also, the disafforested mountains, testify to the wealth and greater population in a more brilliant age, from which many believe the Koreans are degenerate through bad government.

The Japanese Minister of Finance has issued his second 'Annuaire Financier et Économique du Japon,' covering the operations of 1902 (Tokio: Z. P. Maruya & Co.). Beside numerous tables, its broad pages contain much matter relating to railways, banks, mines, commerce, and other sources of income; but the most interesting feature is a map of the empire, including Formosa and Yezo, which shows the various railways, both completed and projected, whether owned by the Government or by private parties. The lines of great Japanese steamship companies, four in number, are also marked, together with the important ports, headquarters of army divisions, and naval stations, presenting a most interesting bird's-eye view. It is now possible to travel by railway from the Japanese Dan to Beersheba, or from Awamori to Kagoshima, making ferry at Shimonoseki. In western Kiushiu, between Osaka and Kioto and Nagoya, and in the region around Tokio, the network of railways reminds one of Illinois or New Jersey. Although mining will never make the Japanese Empire rich, yet scientific methods have quadrupled the output of the old lodes, and industry and freedom of trade are steadily and healthfully increasing the wealth of the nation. The multiplication of ships and steamers makes the old junk more and more of a curiosity. Besides the extension of railways, we note that telegraphic wire in use has lengthened from twenty-two thousand miles in 1892 to sixty-seven thousand in 1901.

Americans who, after enjoying "Hildebrand's" 'Camera Obscura,' have wrestled with its idioms in attempted translation, will be interested with others in learning of the decease and posthumous honors accorded to its author, Dr. Nicolaas Beets of Utrecht. It is generally agreed that 'Camera Obscura' is the finest piece of prose in nineteenth-century Dutch, though this was also the time of the great stylist and critic, Busken Huet. Nevertheless, intensely idiomatic as it is, and wonderfully expressive of pure Dutch thought and life, it has been translated into several modern languages. Born on September 13, 1814, at Haarlem, the son of a famous chemist, Beets studied at Leyden, and came under the influence of the poet, J. P. Hasebroek. Made a doctor of theology in 1839, he served in the pastorate until 1854, when he was called to the professorship of theology at Leyden, and lectured until 1875. Though best known by his prose writings in belles-lettres, his critical essays and theological works, he also wrote verse. A complete edition of his poems in four volumes was completed in 1881. Of these, probably his "Corn Flowers" (*Koren-bloemen*) are the most popular. At the time of Queen Wilhelmina's coronation in 1898 he composed an ode full of force and fire, which pleased and surprised his admirers, otherwise the whole Dutch world. The handsome old gentleman, who spent his latter days in Utrecht, always gave a sunny welcome to Americans. At his imposing funeral, with tens of thousands of people lining the streets, the Queen was represented by the royal chamberlain, Baron van Boetselaer, Premier Kuyper, Cabinet Ministers, the Presidents of the two Chambers and a score or more of the members, and the provincial Governor, besides many men eminent in the kingdom, and a vast array of students from the University. The one decoration at the funeral, which was purposely of the most simple character, was a wreath of palms sent by the Queen.

—It is a disappointment to find no frontispiece to volume iv. of 'The Letters and Literary Remains of Edward FitzGerald' (Macmillan). However, in the fifth volume we are shown his schooner yacht, the *Scandal*. The letters come to an end in volume four, and the desideratum of an index has been recognized, yet hardly in the true spirit. Readers will be thankful for the clearing up of the FitzGerald connection, but there has been no consistent and satisfactory treatment of subjective and objective, of that which is autobiographical and that which is historical and critical. Those most precious literary and personal judgments which are the salt of the correspondence should have been placed in compartments in a subsection under the general rubric of FitzGerald, with cross-references from the several persons implicated. Everybody knows Old Fitz's dislike for Browning and for Mrs. Browning, but there is no independent entry for either here, though the Browning Society gets in. We look in vain anywhere for "Daddy" Wordsworth, for Carlyle's favorite nickname. The meerschaum relic of Carlyle is unmentioned under that writer's name, and the Naseby monument affair must be sought in several other places instead of being grouped under the prime

mover. The index, finally, should not simply have marched with the text, but should have been chronologically ordered. We feel confident that the public, in spite of the multiplicity of editions, will still call for a new one of the complete Letters, when an indexer of skill and *con amore* should be employed to build upon the present basis a key leaving nothing to be desired. Volume five contains the six dramas from Calderon. Two more volumes are due.

—An American novel of the day begins: "Every man, woman, and child has their price"; to which saying of a noble lord "my mother" responds, "Bad grammar and a false creed." The good woman may be right; but, impatient of reconstructing so complex a distributive subject, with its confusion of genders, English idiom tends to indulge in just such vagaries of predicate. Under *everybody*, the Oxford Dictionary supplies examples from Lord Berners (*c.* 1530) —and it is the earliest quotation for the locution: "Everye bodye was in theyr lodgynges"; from Bishop Warburton (1759): "Every body else I meet with are full ready to go of themselves"; from Byron (1820): "Every body does and says what they please"; from Ruskin (1866): "Everybody seems to recover their spirits." Now, in the April quarterly instalment of the Dictionary (Henry Frowde), Dr. Murray remarks, under *or:*

"When singular subjects (substantive or pronoun) are coördinated by *or*, strict logic and the rules of modern grammarians require the verb and following pronoun to be in the singular; but at all times there has been a tendency to use the plural with two or more singular subjects when their mutual exclusion is not emphasized. When the subjects differ in number or person, the rule is that the verb and pronouns should agree with the last or nearest, . . . but such constructions are apt to seem stiff and pedantic, and are consequently avoided. The question of gender causes further complications—especially the want of a third-person pronoun of common gender. . . . These difficulties appear to have been felt at all times, and have been sometimes avoided by making the verb immediately precede or follow the first subject, and agree with it."

In Van Tyne's recent collection of the Letters of Daniel Webster is copied a report of that statesman's bitter interview with Stetson of the Astor House, which the editor cannot authenticate except from a newspaper clipping. Doubt might seem to be cast upon its literal accuracy by the phrase, in Webster's mouth, "they had neither the courage *or* kindness to place," etc. But Dr. Murray has a rather full section to show that "*or* sometimes occurs also after *neither*, where the normal conjunction is *nor*." Lord Berners is cited here again, and the usage comes down by way of Lord Herbert, Burke, Heber, Ruskin, and Freeman.

—Among the numerous accounts of suffixes, that of *-or* will arrest attention in this country. This suffix represents ultimately "Latin *-or*, *-orem*, in nouns of condition from intransitive verbs in *-ēre*, less usually from other verbs. . . . Such of these as existed in Middle English were formerly spelt with *-our*. . . . In other words of the same class, . . . as also in some words not directly connected with extant Latin verbs, . . . *-our* is generally retained in British usage, but American usage spells these also with *-or*." Another class, representing Latin agent-nouns, and of different ages going back to old French words in *-or*, *-ur*, were likewise spelt *-our* in Middle English, but "are now all conformed to the Latin spelling in *-or*." Still other classes of agent-nouns have obeyed the same drift, so that American uniformity of usage is decidedly with the British majority. In connection with another suffix, *-ose*, points are given to Littré in the derivation of *glucose*. The whole work on the particles beginning with O deserves study. It has been very laborious, and has broken much new ground. The word *order* reveals inextricable disorder in its development. *Orb* and *ordeal* afford capital examples of the historical method applied to lexicography. So *orange*, as the color badge of loyalty to William of Orange; *Orangeman*. Orange blossoms as associated with the marriage ceremony appear to have come in from France in 1820-30. *Orthodox* arrives late, in Cotgrave 1611 and Bacon 1615. Its immediate origin is obscure; ultimately it goes back to the Greek *via* French (1488) and Latin. The Latin form could, we think, have been little familiar when Erasmus introduced it (1524) in his 'Colloquies' ("Inquisitio de Fide"), where it continued to be glossed even as late as Roger Daniel's London edition of 1655, and later across the Channel; and perhaps Erasmus most widely paved the way for its modernization. Littré's first citation is from Pascal's 'Provinciales' (1656-57). Here is a suggestive extract from Dr. Murray's prefatory note: "One inconvenience of a composite language is seen in the fact that there are seven distinct words spelt *ore*, which moreover occurs as an obsolete spelling of seven others." How would this inconvenience be mitigated by the application of phonetic reform, bringing all into line with *or* (which numbers five words or spellings), to say nothing of *o'er*? In conclusion, we may not overlook this "modern instance" introduced under *opus:* "How goes the *magnum opus?* What letter are you working at now [*videl.* in the Scriptorium]?"

—'The Baptists,' by Dr. Henry C. Vedder, is one of a series, "The Story of the Churches," projected by the Baker & Taylor Co. The volumes are small duodecimos, attractively printed and bound, numbering about 200 pages each. 'The Baptists' is well written, but the tendency of so much compression is to squeeze out every picturesque element and to make the representation purely external. The Baptists are defined as a religious body loyally obedient to the commands of Jesus Christ. It is not made clear why feet-washing does not stand as firmly on this basis as baptism or the Lord's Supper. There are chapters on the history of the Baptists and on their rise and progress in Great Britain and on the Continent. The movement of this history is backward, and stops at the twelfth century, though there is much in the early Christian centuries that is grist for the Baptist's mill. If Münzer is declared to have been no good Anabaptist, on the other hand the glorying in Bunyan is moderate. Clearly the rejection of infant baptism did not imply the adoption of immersion. It is even doubtful in what manner Roger Williams and his friends baptized themselves. A very interesting aspect is the affiliation of the Baptists in their early course with other bodies, notably with the Congregationalists and Quakers. The attempt to account for the slow growth of the Baptists in England furnishes some of the most important pages. We come to the beginnings in America at page 135, when we are more than half-way through the book. Whitefield is credited with saving the American Baptists from the atrophy which has overtaken the English branch. There is also much emphasis on missionary enterprise, but none on that careful study of the Bible which has been so characteristic of the Baptists, and which, in these days of the higher criticism, is potential of incalculable change.

—Dr. C. L. Thompson's contribution to the same series is 'The Presbyterians.' The difference of its method from that of 'The Baptists' suggests a doubt whether the series has any general editorial supervision, especially as no such supervision is explicit. Here there is slight and almost casual reference to the European origins, a fact which shows the writer astonishingly neglectful of the most interesting and dramatic elements of the history set for him to rehearse. Presbyterianism as it appeared in Geneva, France, Holland, and England, offers so much that is attractive that, possibly, Dr. Thompson refrained from treating it expansively for fear that the American development would, by force of contrast, appear even more monotonously dull than standing by itself. But probably the limitation of his space was the decisive circumstance. In his account of the Massachusetts settlements there is a disposition, or a tendency, to confound the Puritan with the Presbyterian to an undue extent. There is no more interesting chapter than that on "The Division of 1741," which marked a conservative reaction from the "Adopting Act" of 1729, "the banner," Dr. Thompson says, "under which the Presbyterian Church in this country has marched to its proudest victories." It does not appear that there was much infusion of that spirit which in England simultaneously was making the Presbyterian chapels refuges for Unitarian heretics. Dr. Thompson may well "point with pride" to the assimilation of the National Constitution of 1787 to Presbyterian governmental forms; but what of the miserable survivals of the ecclesiastical system that exist in the township representation of Connecticut and Rhode Island? The relations of the church to slavery are treated in a franker manner than is common with the church historian, but as respects the recent "confessional changes" there is the habitual disposition to affirm that they do not affect the Westminster "substance of doctrine."

—The late war first attracted popular attention on this side of the ocean to the intellectual and social disintegration of the Spanish people. The serious problems which confront the future of Spanish culture have not been neglected by the best minds in Spain itself, and in his latest book, Prof. Rafael Altamira, editor of the *Revista Crítica de Historia y Literatura Españolas*, and the distinguished historian of Spanish civilization, has given a searching and impartial analysis of the fundamental virtues and defects of the Spanish character and genius. Written, as he himself says, "in that terrible summer

of 1898, when such shame filled the hearts of all true patriots," the 'Psicología del Pueblo Español' (Madrid: Fernando Fé) is not untouched by the mingled impulses of patriotic indignation at the mistakes of the past, and a dignified hope for the future of the Spanish nation. Two extended chapters are devoted to the various opinions of the Spanish character held in all ages by the various peoples of Europe; a third discusses the present crisis and its remedies; and the final chapter considers the immediate possibilities of intellectual regeneration. The devastations of the Napoleonic wars were followed in Germany by a period of the very highest intellectual activity, and a similar fortune, Señor Altamira argues, is in store for Spain. The future of the country must depend on the energy, altruism, and far-sightedness of the "intellectuals," and it is to the moral mission of the university that the author devotes some of the most luminous and suggestive pages of this remarkable book. But to Americans, perhaps, the various passages which refer to American civilization will have the most interest. Scattered throughout the book, they speak quietly and impartially of the disillusion received by advanced Spanish minds during the progress of the late war, by reason of the defection of the young republic from her old ideals of peace and justice.

—In his 'Tale of Gyges and the King of Lydia,' reprinted from the *American Journal of Philology* of last year, Mr. Kirby Flower Smith attempts to reconstruct the legend of the Lydian adventurer Gyges from the five varying versions that have come down to us. We all know the story in Herodotus, the boastful folly of King Candaules, the reluctance of Gyges, and the vengeance of the queen who invites Gyges to slay her husband and become his successor, or himself be slain. Here is no mention of magic; but in the version in Plato's 'Republic' the point dwelt upon is the magic ring of invisibility possessed by Gyges, the earliest mention in literature of the magic ring that was to play so conspicuous a part in the "romans d'aventure." It will be remembered that in the Herodotean version the queen saw Gyges as he left her room by the door behind which Candaules had posted him. In a late, post-classical writer, Chennos, the queen's name is first given as Nysia, and it is said that she possessed a dragon-stone as well as a double pupil, which has a close connection with the "evil eye." Mr. Smith combines this passage with one that occurs still later, in Philostratus, to the effect that a dragon-stone "is invincible even against the ring of Gyges," and, by a careful comparison of all the references, constructs a version of the old popular folk tale. Gyges is the typical Adventurer of fairy tale, Candaules figures as the easily outwitted Giant, while his queen is the fairy Princess who possesses magic charms and plays the part of Medea in helping Gyges to a throne. If this is the correct version from which Herodotus and Plato made extracts, it is certainly singular that Herodotus should have omitted the picturesque details of the ring charm and the counter charm of the dragon-stone. Yet in the end it is on Herodotus that one must depend for the most complete rationalization of the story. Mr. Smith's reconstruction is, however, plausible enough, and in the course of it he collects a number of references which are useful illustrations of such points as the magic ring *motif* and the sources of folk lore and mythography.

RECENT BRITISH POETRY.

The University of Chicago has done a real service to literature by printing among its decennial publications the poems, once so famous, of Anne Countess of Winchelsea. This work is edited very skilfully by Myra Reynolds, of the English Department, and she has had the use, not only of Mr. Edmund Gosse's folio manuscript volume of the poems, but of other manuscripts from the present Earl of Winchelsea, who has also given her introductions by which it became possible to visit places associated with the author. As a result, many of these poems appear for the first time in this volume. The whole modern interest in Lady Winchelsea dates back to a well-known passage in Wordsworth's essays in which he says, writing in the year 1815, "It is remarkable that, excepting the 'Nocturnal Reverie' of Lady Winchelsea, and a passage or two in the 'Windsor Forest' of Pope, the poetry intervening between the publication of the 'Paradise Lost' and the 'Seasons' does not contain a single new image of external nature." Wordsworth had studied Lady Winchelsea's poems in manuscript and elsewhere. They were afterwards praised as warmly by Leigh Hunt and Christopher North. Mr. Gosse secured for these poems a place in Ward's "English Poets," and also discussed them, later, in his 'Gossip in a Library.' Mr. Saintsbury also, in his 'Short History of English Literature,' urged the importance of their republication in full, a desire not carried out, either in England or in America, until the production of this volume.

That the book is of much collective value cannot be claimed, but it is of great relative worth in showing the successive steps by which women made their way into English literature. When we consider that Dr. Johnson did not admit one woman among his fifty-two English poets, and Campbell only one among his one hundred and seventy, we can see the historic importance of Lady Winchelsea's productions. There is no doubt that her "Nocturnal Reverie" stands out among her poems as distinctly as Dr. Holmes's "Chambered Nautilus" detaches itself from the rest of his; but Wordsworth was quite right in finding it almost the only precursor in English poetry of his own out-door works. To appreciate it fully, one must recognize how rare during the whole period since Milton had been anything that could be in any degree classed with the Wordsworthian studies from nature. Take, for instance, the following passage (p. 269):

"When Odours, which declin'd repelling Day,
Thro' temp'rate Air uninterrupted stray;
When darken'd Groves their softest Shadows wear,
And falling Waters we distinctly hear;
When thro' the Gloom more venerable shows
Some ancient Fabrick, awful in Repose,
While Sunburnt Hills their swarthy Looks conceal,
And swelling Haycocks thicken up the Vale:
When the loos'd *Horse* now, as his Pasture leads,
Comes slowly grazing thro' th' adjoining Meads,
Whose stealing Pace, and lengthen'd Shade we fear,
Till torn up Forage in his Teeth we hear:
When nibbling *Sheep* at large pursue their Food,
And unmolested Kine rechew the Cud;
When *Curlews* cry beneath the Village-walls,
And to her straggling Brood the *Partridge* calls;
Their shortliv'd Jubilee the Creatures keep,
Which but endures, whilst Tyrant-*Man* do's sleep;
When a sedate Content the Spirit feels,
And no fierce Light disturb, whilst it reveals;
But silent Musings urge the Mind to seek
Something, too high for Syllables to speak;
Till the free Soul to a compos'dness charm'd,
Finding the Elements of Rage disarm'd,
O'er all below a solemn Quiet grown,
Joys in th' inferiour World, and thinks it like her Own:
In such a *Night* let Me abroad remain,
Till morning breaks, and All's confused again."

As an interesting commentary on this, we have in the preface to the present volume a full account of the production at Drury Lane theatre of a farce entitled "Three Hours After Marriage," which ran seven nights, and was then hissed off the stage. It was published under Gay's name, but Pope and Arbuthnot had also a hand in it. Of this farce Baker's 'Biographia Dramatica' says: "Phœbe Clinket was said to be intended for the Countess of Winchelsea, who was so much affected with the itch of versifying that she had implements of writing in every room in the house that she frequented" (p. lxiii.). We thus see that the first introduction of woman into the poetic art was accompanied by all the hostility and sarcasm which she has later encountered on the way to college education or the elective franchise.

The close of the Boer war deprives Mr. Henry Newbolt of much of his ammunition, and he turns to the middle ages and even to Omar for commonplace comfort, in his volume 'The Sailing of the Long-Ships, and Other Poems' (Appleton); but his whole vigor does not at once depart, and in these two verses he gives the old-time flavor of England and of home (p. 39):

OUTWARD BOUND.

Dear Earth, near Earth, the clay that made us men,
The land we sowed,
The hearth that glowed—
O Mother, must we bid farewell to thee?
Fast dawns the last dawn, and what shall comfort then
The lonely hearts that roam the outer sea?

Gray wakes the daybreak, the shivering sails are set,
To misty deeps
The channel sweeps—
O Mother, think on us who think on thee!
Earth-home, birth-home, with love remember yet
The sons in exile on the eternal sea.

Sir Rennell Rodd comes forth from his twenty years' banishment as secretary of legation in Egypt, and elsewhere, with a volume of poems, 'Myrtle and Oak' (Boston: Forbes), less ambitious in character than his youthful ones, but naturally somewhat more languid. His name still appears in 'Who's Who,' with the following item appended: "Recreations: tastes catholic, but especially fencing." The spirit of literary fencing which was once conspicuous has faded a good deal, and in a graceful poem, "In Chartres Cathedral" (p. 92), he shows catholic tastes in a higher sense. Yet it is perhaps creditable to him that his best poems are those inscribed to greater men than himself, Victor Hugo, Tennyson, and Browning; and his interpretations of Chopin and Wagner show a similar appreciative quality. It is to his credit that he selects for his memorial to Browning the sympathetic one on that poet's exquisite description of Guercino's "Angel at Fano" (p. 68):

Dearly-honored, great dead poet, still as living speak to me!
This is Fano, world-forgotten little Fano by the sea:

I have come to see that angel which Guercino dreamed and drew,
Since whate'er you loved and honored I would hold in honor too.

Like some sea-bird's nest the township clusters in its rampart wall—
Such a twinkling on the byways, such an autumn over all:

Gloomy streets with silent portals, all the pulse of life they hide
Throbbing toward that one piazza where it centres into pride;

House or palace, as their wont is in these Adriatic ports,

Turn their backs on darkling alleys and their faces
on the courts,

Courts beyond each tunnelled entrance, where,
through vaulted arches seen,
Glimpses flash of dancing sunlight, jets of foun-
tain, glint of green.

Here I found him, ever watchful for the work
of love to do,
That white-winged one whose great glory you
interpreted so true;

Still he folds the little fingers of that kneeling
child to prayer,
On the grave which tells the story why it needs
the angel's care;

Still above the forehead's glory arch the great
wings wide unfurled,
As alert to shield and succor all the orphans of
the world.

Of the 'Selected Poems' of William Watson (Lane), often arranged and rearranged in different editions, we may still retain a high opinion, yet without placing them quite so high as seems implied in so many reduplications. He is not dramatic, he is not fanciful, he has no background of humor, yet he has an earnestness, an elevation of tone which fix his hold in what he himself calls (p. 143) "immelodious days." He is capable, also, by sheer earnestness, of finding humble materials out of which to weave his song, as in this simple lay (p. 115):

FELICITY.

A squalid, hideous town, where streams run black
With vomit of a hundred roaring mills—
Hither occasion calls me; and ev'n here,
All in the sable reek that wantonly
Defames the sunlight and deflowers the morn,
One may at least surmise the sky still blue.
Ev'n here, the myriad slaves of the machine
Deem life a boon; and here, in days far sped,
I overheard a kind-eyed girl relate
To her companions, how a favouring chance
By some few shillings weekly had increased
The earnings of her household, and she said:
"So now we are happy, having all we wished."—
Felicity indeed! though more it lay
In wanting little than in winning all.

A precious historical document may yet be the little volume 'Songs of the Veld, and Other Poems,' reprinted from the *New Age* (London: New Age Press). The book opens with a list of subscribers, many of whom discreetly give their initials only; then follow many "Poems from Cape Town," mostly by a single writer who "prefers to remain anonymous"; followed by others from some forty different authors, often designated by initials, and including one American, Ernest Crosby. It also includes half a dozen poems on imperialism in the Philippines—half of them, at least, on Gen. Smith's detestable "howling wilderness" order—showing that sympathy for liberty is limited to no single direction. Much of the poetry, as is always the case with patriotic or liberty-loving strains, has more earnestness than true poetic flow in its expression. The general note is as in the following (p. 7):

A SONG OF FREEDOM.

Freedom spake to the Greeks of old
When the Persian hosts rolled on,
And their answer was stern Thermopylæ
And the plains of Marathon.
And Leonidas and his Spartan few
Still make us glow and thrill,
And the very name of Salamis
Can move us strangely still.

Freedom spake to the fierce old Scots
When bid to bow the knee,
And their answer was Bruce and Bannockburn,
And fighting from sea to sea.
And still the name of Wallace wight
And the death he died that day
Breathe upon Scotland the sacred light
That never fades away.

. . . . . .

Thus Freedom speaks to all and each,
And her touch is a touch of fire,
And the brave still listen with head erect
Though she points to block and pyre.
And their answer is still the prison's gloom,
And the battlefield's red gore,
And the name they hear of "Rebel!" "Fool!"
Which brave men ever bore.

And still they follow, Basuto, Finn,
Filipino, Zulu, Pole—
The Little Peoples of every race—
Her flying feet to the goal.
And lo! they follow, through blood and tears,
To that shining goal of the Free,
The lead of Him who died the death
Of a rebel, on Calvary!

'The House Building, and Other Poems,' by Marshall Bruce Williams (London: Johnson), rather confounds the critic by its absence of the orderly technical qualities so common in English verse, showing instead a tendency to that swelling rhetoric which is regarded by English readers as American. How America looks to the author's eyes is visible in such sonnets as that on page 81:

THE UNITED STATES.

Like a bold youth who only has been met,
In wrestling throws, by village boys at home;
And thinks that, once upon his feet well set,
His strength will serve to keep unharmed each
bone!
Yet knows not that when time and tide shall meet,
To launch him in the larger world without,
He'll find it difficult to keep his feet,
Unless he think as boldly as he shout:
So stands our cousin-land across the seas—
Full confident in number and in size,
That it will overcome the world with ease.
And make the old lands open wide their eyes!
But old eyes open quick these modern days:
The world's no child, still milking ancient ways,
But growing apace in power alike new worlds sur-
veys.

It will be seen that this progressive author quite discards, among other restraints, the Italian arrangement of sonnet rhymes, and equally, alas! the English standard in the rhymes themselves. We find, throughout, such rhymes as "tongue," "done" (p. 13); "repass" and "gas" (p. 21); "ideal" and "steel" (p. 25); "weary" and "descry" (p. 33); "contempt" and "sent" (p. 73), with many similar combinations. After all, poetry suffers from overearnestness, it may be, almost as much as from indifference.

'The Triumph of Love,' by Edmond Holmes (Lane), seems to involve no such contradiction in the title as did his previous volume, 'The Silence of Love: A Sonnet Sequence.' It seemed a sort of contradiction to imply that sonnets could sing silence and leave it silence still. But 'The Triumph of Love' has been sung measurably since sonnets were created, and though these are here Shaksperean in form—a form now well superseded by the Italian—the type of poetry still retains its charm, and this poet still handles it with a certain measure of skill. Yet the severe test of sixty-three sonnets tries an author's range and versatility very severely, and we find in these poems little or nothing of that extraordinary range of emotion and cadence which is to be found in Tennyson's "In Memoriam" alone. If there is, however, a climax, it is to be found in the very last sonnet of all, which is as follows (LXIII):

When, in the solemn stillness of the night,
My musing soul is filled with love of thee,
I seem to stand upon the world's last height,
The flaming rampart of all things that be.
And as I pause upon that lonely verge,
And plunge my gaze into the gulf below,
I see the cosmic billows sweep and surge
From death to life, with endless ebb and flow.
But howsoever deep my thought may sink
Into that well of darkness and of fire,
And howsoever deep my soul may drink
Of light and life and wonder and desire—
Love still remains—the love that thou hast waked—
Its deeps unfathomed and its thirst unslaked.

A new and more compact edition of 'The Bard of the Dimbovitza; Roumanian Folk Songs,' collected from the peasants by Hélène Vacaresco, and translated by Carmen Sylva and Alma Strettell, comes to us from Messrs. Scribner. The book is already a classic, and an addition to the romantic literature of the world. The poems are, as was well said by Frederick Harrison, "directly, passionately, fiercely human," and yet the touches of nature have wonderful wealth and intimacy. They have long since been analyzed and characterized in these columns. The new edition has the merit of being in one volume, and that of containing nine new poems, which fully sustain the naïve phrases and the simple and ardent emotion of the earlier lays. Like the others, the following has a prelude and finale, which often have no connection with the main song (p. 208):

QUESTIONS.

After the harvest, then the earth is weary,
And saith: "Till the next time of sowing, I am weary,
But when that comes, I shall grow young again."

"Sister, my little sister in the grave,
What tidings shall I give thee of the earth?"
"Tell me if thou hast finished 'broidering,
Sister, thy Sunday shift?"
"Already I have worn it at the dance,
Thinking the while of thee."
"And has the hay grown thick upon our meadow?"
"Last week we mowed it, and it has repaid
The kindly sunshine well;
I thought of thee while we were mowing it."
"Has mother a white pink beside our door?
That is my soul, that grows and blossoms there."
"Truth dost thou speak, the white pink is in
bloom,
And is thy soul;
When I breathe in its scent, I think of thee."
"Sister, now tell me, dost thou feel deep longing
After a husband's kiss?"
"Yea! Of themselves toward the little children
My arms reach forth;
And my womb chideth me, that I let tarry
Her fruitfulness so long;
She speaks: 'Give heed, for Life is hid in thee.'"
"Sister, then hast thou me no more remembered;
Oh, give me never tidings of the earth;
They do but think upon the future there."

After the harvest, then the earth is weary,
And saith: "Till the next time of sowing, I am weary,
But when that comes, I shall grow young again."

In 'Rainbows,' by Olive Custance (Lady Alfred Douglas) (Lane), we have a little volume singularly full, not so much of quotable poems as of quotable phrases, lines, rhymes, single combinations of phrase and description, as in the following (p. 24):

THE SONG.

Sing to me! for your songs drive care away,
And fill with delicate dreams the common day.
In music is your fettered self set free,
It is the unmasked man that speaks to me.
Gone is the cold bright glance I know so well,
Hushed is the hard light laughter like a bell;
Few would believe your smiling shallow eyes
Could swim and burn with such grave mysteries,
And few who know your clear, low voice, would
guess
That it could tremble with such tenderness.
Even your beauty and your pliant grace,
Transfigured by the passion in your face
Grow dim, like lamps at dawn, before the whole
Impulsive revelation of your soul.

Here what holds the eye and ear is the "cold bright glance," "hard light laughter," "smiling shallow eyes." These make us feel that we have seen the person; in other words, the description is alive. The book is dedicated to the Fairy Prince, and on the whole it tells secrets of which the reader wishes to hear more.

'Hand in Hand Verses,' by mother and daughter (Mathews), has in it thought and poetic feeling, with here and there a touch of East Indian flavor, such as often gives a foreign note to English verse; but all who love Landor will find most interest in the following (p. 75):

ROSE AYLMER'S GRAVE.

(Rose Aylmer died in Calcutta on March 2, 1800, and is buried in the old South Park Street Cemetery.)

An English grave 'neath Indian skies,
Marked by a sullen stone:
And this is where Rose Aylmer lies,
Far, flowerless, and alone.
Rose Aylmer was a poet's love,
Sweet, beautiful, and young.
Her elegy, in melody,
The poet-lover sung.

About her grave no flowers grow,
No pleasant boughs are stirred:
No gentle sun, no quiet snow,
No English bee or bird.
The suns of springtime scorch the stone,
In summer, storm and rave
The winds that herald the cyclone,
The rains that lash the grave.

Rose Aylmer's sister-flowers should spring
In whitest bloom above:
The roses Landor could not bring,
Far distant from his love.
But now a snake lies near her bed,
The crows perch on the rail,
A kite sweeps past, and overhead
The unclean vultures sail.

"Ah, what avails the sceptred race,
Ah, what the form divine!
What every vir-tue, every grace!
Rose Aylmer, all were thine.
Rose Aylmer, whom these wakeful eyes
May weep, but never see,
A night of memories and of sighs
I consecrate to thee."

Ah, why regret the gloomy hearse,
The land of banishment?
This is her grave; but Landor's verse
Rose Aylmer's monument.
Rose Aylmer, on thy namestone lies
Love's rose immortally,
The rose of memories and of sighs
Once consecrate to thee.

'Streamlets from the Fount of Poesy,' by N. B. Gazder, B.A., Barrister-at-Law (Leadenhall Press), is a singular outcome of the present condition of England. It rings on every page with "Britannia's triumph," even to rising, while speaking of British soldiers, to such curious climaxes as this (p. 3):

"Their brows are crowned with laurel wreaths,
Their praise is sung in lofty keys,
Their valour shines in mighty deeds
Which gain for them the grand V.C.s!"

The "Pax Britannica" is sung as ardently as if it were not a form of peace-making which devastates whole regions; and, to crown all, there is a religious and grateful poem with the peculiar title, "On the Declaration of Peace with the South African Republics," as if England had achieved any peace with them except by annihilating their existence so that there are no republics now left there. To retain the tradition, however, of the "Pax Britannica," the author writes verses on the death of President McKinley which, although they may possibly be charged with commonplaceness, as if subdued to what they worked in, show at least a friendly feeling.

'Tudor and Stuart Love Songs,' collected by J. Potter Briscoe, F.R.S.L. (Dutton), is one of a thousand collections of stray lyrics; and it is no better and no worse than many others. The editor speaks (p. vii.) of *William* Watson as one of the highest Elizabethan poets, when he means Thomas (p. 34); and in giving Imogen's Morning Song (p. 56), his line, "With everything that pretty is," forms but a poor substitute for the accustomed "pretty bin," besides the injury done through loss of the rhyme. 'All's Well: Being Optimistic Thoughts from the Writings of Robert Browning' (Bell), collected by Graham Hope, is an unusually good collection, and, from its very optimism, suits Browning better than most books of the kind. 'Fulbeck: A Pastoral,' by J. Walter West, A.R.W.S. (Bell), with illustrations by the author, is in itself brief, and not of much value, except that, both to the eye and the ear, it suggests happy old-time associations of English rural life.

Mr. Frederick York Powell publishes 'Quatrains from Omar Khayyám Done into English' (Oxford: Bell), some twenty-four in all. The translation is made, not from the original, but from the English version of Mr. Justin H. McCarthy and from the French version of M. Nicholas. The highest compliment that can be paid to FitzGerald is in the shoal of commonplace versions from Omar which have followed his marvellous bit of work. But Mr. Powell disarms us by writing of his own productions, "They only hope to be considered humble appendices to the rendering of Omar by FitzGerald, for verily, as Hárith sang of Amru long ago (p. 18):

"He is a king that hath brought all under his subjection,
Nor is there among them his peer in his gifts."

GENERAL GREENE IN SOUTH CAROLINA.—II.

The History of South Carolina in the Revolution, 1780-1783. Volume IV. and last. By Edward McCrady. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xxvii., 787.

Greene's military operations in the South are traced by Mr. McCrady with great minuteness, and in general in the same depreciatory spirit that characterizes his treatment of Greene's relations with the partisan leaders. Greene's repeated defeats are critically dwelt upon, while the broader outlines of his movements, in which, though losing the battle, he gains the principal advantage of the campaign, are largely obscured by the mass of incident. It is, indeed, a characteristic of all of McCrady's volumes that their wealth of detail makes it difficult at times to tell just what the story is all about. No one, for example, would be likely to get from the volume before us any clear understanding of that masterly retreat across the Carolinas which did so much to give brilliancy and permanence to Greene's military fame.

In opposition to Ramsay and Johnson, Mr. McCrady is of the opinion that the victory at Cowpens, though resulting in "the destruction of the best regiment in the British service, the loss to it of some others of their best troops, and the end put to the terror of Tarleton," had "no decisive effect upon the opening campaign," and was "much nearer the end of the chain of causes which led to the redemption of these States than to its beginning" (pp. 54, 55). For Morgan's justification of his position at that battle he has unmeasured denunciation. We are not clear as to the grounds for the positive assertion that Greene's position at Cheraw "did not compel Cornwallis to divide his forces." With both his flanks threatened by Greene, Cornwallis had detached Tarleton in pursuit of Morgan, and sent Leslie by way of the Wateree to Camden. Greene's conduct, which Mr. McCrady strongly condemns, in leaving the main army and going with a small guard across the country to join Morgan, is explicable on the assumption that Greene hoped to make the victory at Cowpens a means of assuming the offensive in that quarter, and checking Cornwallis's advance towards Virginia. The movement was unsuccessful, but it is hard to see why Greene should not have attempted it; while the slow movements of Cornwallis, to which, in Mr. McCrady's opinion, Greene's escape was wholly due, rather show that the British commander was left very much in doubt as to how to act. Mr. McCrady's animus, however, is not far to seek. With the withdrawal of the main body of the Americans under Huger, "South Carolina was again abandoned by the Continental army" (pp. 94, 95). Plainly, any plan of campaign which took the Continental troops, relatively inefficient as we are repeatedly told they were, out of the State, had something radically defective about it.

Mr. McCrady agrees with Johnson in acquitting Greene of blame for the sudden attack at Hobkirk's Hill, but cannot understand upon what ground he had expected victory, since his only advantage over the British was in the possession of three pieces of artillery. The campaign, as a whole, he "rather followed than led" (p. 343). For Greene's course at Ninety-six Mr. McCrady has little praise; in his view, Greene should not have turned aside to besiege this post, and ought to have known beforehand of its strength.

It was Greene's misfortune to lose his most important engagements, and although Washington had only praise for what was accomplished, the repeated defeats were bitter disappointments to Greene. Here again, of course, Mr. McCrady finds a weak spot in the armor of this, to him, much overrated hero. Greene, we are told, was always finding some one else on whom to lay the blame for his reverses. At Guilford it was the North Carolina militia, whose inefficiency Greene had denounced in plain terms to Sumter. At Hobkirk's Hill it was Col. Gunby and the First Maryland Regiment. In the latter instance a court of inquiry only confirmed Greene's opinion, but Mr. McCrady thinks Greene's assertion "mere presumption," and that defeat might with as much reason be ascribed to Col. Washington's raid into the British camp, or, indeed, to Greene's own "mismanagement, by which, in advancing his centre, he covered his artillery so completely as to silence it, while, attempting to assail both flanks of the enemy, he exposed his own wings to a like danger" (p. 199). The charge that Sumter's absence was to blame for the disaster is examined at length, with the conclusion that Sumter was only obeying Greene's orders. At Ninety-six, again, Greene had "his usual consolation," this time in the failure of the Virginia militia to join him; while at Eutaw it was (to quote Greene's own words) "one of those incidents to which military operations are subject"—the incident in this case being "the want of discipline in his Continentals, who broke their ranks to secure the spoils of the enemy's camp" (p. 462). We have only to observe in this connection that, with the exception of the blame attached to Sumter for his absence at Hobkirk's Hill, Mr. McCrady appears not to have shown that Greene's explanations were not the true ones, or that, as an officer of the army, bound to report truthfully to his superior, he had any alternative but to state the facts as he saw and understood them. It would be a curious canon of military criticism that would disparage an officer whose defeat was primarily due to the misconduct of some one else.

But Mr. McCrady brings what he evidently regards as a still more serious charge against Greene, namely, a purpose to abandon the South to the British and to return to Virginia, where there would be more opportunity for personal distinction. On the much debated question of the responsibility for Greene's course after the battle of Guilford, Mr. McCrady takes, as usual, ground sharply adverse to Greene. In opposition to Johnson, he affirms that the plan of returning to South Carolina did not originate with Greene, but with Lee, and that, while adopting it, he did not "cordially approve or warmly enter into it" (p. 160).

"Indeed," he adds, "a want of final decision seems to have been one of the defects of his mind; he could never altogether help hankering after the rejected alternative; and so it was that, throughout the ensuing campaign, we shall find him turning to and longing for the field of Virginia as the proper sphere of operations for the commander of the Southern Department" (p. 161).

With his first reverse, Greene returns

to the Virginia plan, and writes to Lee that he thinks his duty calls him in that direction. This letter of May 9, 1781, already public in Lee's 'Campaigns in the Carolinas,' is given by Mr. McCrady the least liberal or generous construction. Greene is represented as meditating the abandonment of the South and retirement to Virginia, not because his presence was more needed in the latter quarter, but because his present service was uncongenial, and Virginia held out a prospect of personal distinction. Again we must dissent, not from the facts, but from the conclusion. Important as it was for South Carolina that the progress of the British in the State should not go unchecked, it was nevertheless obvious that the safety and independence of the State, as well as the safety and independence of North Carolina and Georgia, depended on the maintenance of communication with Virginia. No graver danger threatened Greene, particularly in the first months of his command, than that Cornwallis, eluding him, might get between Virginia and the American army and cut off all possibility of succor. It seems, therefore, a wise military instinct, rather than a venting of personal chagrin or craving for personal distinction, that led Greene to consider whether his place was not, after all, at the point where lay the greatest danger to the independence of the entire South. That Greene found campaigning in the swamps of Carolina an "uncongenial service," and would have been glad of as much personal distinction as he could properly attain, is as natural as that he should have had little confidence in the power of partisan warfare to rid the country of the British army; but as Commander of the Southern Department—a high-sounding title which seems to disturb Mr. McCrady—he was bound to survey the whole field, and entitled, also, to be himself at the place where, in his judgment, he was most needed.

So far as South Carolina was concerned, its political representatives seem to have been strangely insensible, during the active period of the war, to Greene's incompetency and vacillation. Gov. Rutledge's praise of Greene was echoed by the Jacksonborough Assembly, whose Senate concurred "most sincerely" with the Governor "in acknowledging and applauding the meritorious zeal and the very important services" of "the great and gallant General Greene." The House, in addition to extravagant eulogy of Greene, declared Sumter, Marion, and Pickens "deserving of the highest commendation"; but Mr. McCrady conjectures that it was the "modesty and delicacy" of Sumter and Marion, both of whom were present, that "excluded from the proceedings of the Senate any recognition of the great services they had rendered (pp. 568, 569). He doubts, also, whether the Assembly would have been so eager to testify to their admiration for Greene by purchasing an estate for him had they known that his return to the State "had not been of his own suggestion, and that he had unwillingly remained in the State after coming," or had the partisan leaders been aware that he "had sneered at and belittled their services" (p. 574). Again it was Sumter and Marion who, though sitting by, were "too high-minded to challenge" this undeserved praise.

Greene's relations with the State Government did not continue always so happy. The Assembly, in attempting to provide a system of supply, had forbidden impressment. The whole Continental line was "in a deplorable state for the want of clothing and other necessaries" (p. 619), while a spirit of unrest and insubordination was widespread. The "decisive conduct" of Greene quelled the mutiny, though Mr. McCrady, sure of finding something to complain of in the conduct of the Continental troops, reproaches them for declining to be satisfied with so "substantial and nutritious" a food as rice, which any soldiers not "pampered" would eat rather than mutiny. The controversy between Greene and Governor Mathews over the former's decision to claim on behalf of Congress certain horses, the property of citizens of South Carolina, recovered from the British by Kosciuszko, and between Greene and Governor Guerard over the reception of a Spanish flag, are treated by Mr. McCrady with his usual sneer at Greene's legal attainments and dictatorial ways. After the evacuation of Charleston by the British, Greene had the difficulties which often beset the commander of a victorious army in the interval between the cessation of hostilities and the definitive conclusion of peace. Solicitous over the supplies for the army, he took the liberty of addressing the Assembly on the subject —"most officiously," says Mr. McCrady—urging "the great necessities of Congress, the little to be apprehended from its powers, the injustice that had been done the army, its mutinous temper, the withering state of the treasury, and the imperious [*sic*] duty of enabling the general Government to fulfil its contracts" (pp. 688, 689). The Assembly, little interested in Congress, impatient at the presence of the army, and bent upon the rehabilitation of the State after the disastrous years of war, took deep offence, and was little appeased by a second letter in which Greene tried to smooth the matter over.

We have no space in which to follow Mr. McCrady in his account of Greene's connection with the firm of Banks & Co. It was an unfortunate transaction, ruining Greene's finances and clouding all his later days, and for it he is to be at least as much pitied as blamed. Mr. McCrady gives a clear and detailed account of the matter, with a degree of fairness to Greene much in contrast to his generally hostile attitude. Nor can we examine the many other interesting events in the history of South Carolina in the short period from 1780 to 1783, and note the criticisms of men, occurrences, and motives with which Mr. McCrady's pages are studded. We must take leave of the work with one or two summary statements.

The four volumes of Mr. McCrady's History of South Carolina unquestionably form one of the most valuable contributions to State history, and incidentally to the history of the United States, that have been made in recent years. References to manuscript sources are few, but the printed authorities have evidently been painstakingly examined. To be sure, if the history of every important State is to be written on a similar scale, the study of American annals may well become impracticable for any one who lacks abundant leisure, patience, and enthusiasm; but the larger part of Mr. McCrady's material is certainly of more than local interest. But, for the spirit in which the latter portion of the work has in large measure been carried out, there can be only reprobation. Ample as his equipment of knowledge undeniably is, one puts down Mr. McCrady's final volume with the uncomfortable feeling that the author is first a South Carolinian and second an historian. Jealous regard for his State, thick-and-thin admiration for Sumter and the other partisan leaders, contempt for Congress and the Continental army, and something strongly suggestive of hatred for Greene—these are the impressions which fix themselves most firmly as one reads on through Mr. McCrady's pages. That he has corrected many an error, dissipated more than one illusion, and revealed the weaknesses and inconsistencies of more than one prominent figure, must be admitted. The material for a life of Greene will be used all the better by some future biographer because of the critical and merciless examination to which it has here been subjected. But, from its lack of sober, unbiassed judgment and impartial analysis of motives, Mr. McCrady's great work fails, in its conclusion, at the very points at which an historical work ought to attain success. It offers a profusion of facts, but it breathes no true historical spirit. The voice is Jacob's voice, but the hands are the hands of Esau.

Literary Landmarks of Oxford. By Laurence Hutton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

This volume is dedicated to Dr. Patton, late President of Princeton, and is avowedly compiled "for the benefit of the general reading public and of the college men of to-day on the Western side of the Atlantic." Its object is to fill a gap which Mr. Hutton has discovered in Oxford college histories; they devote pages to founders, to prelates, and to politicians, but ignore the literary associations of the University. He deals with his subject in the alphabetical order of colleges, excluding living writers from his consideration.

The result is a piece of book-making which, in spite of its pretensions to learning and accuracy, is of a scandalous slovenliness. The author tells us that he has consulted hundreds of volumes, and that what he has learnt he has set down "patiently, carefully, and, he thinks, correctly." Actually, the book is thick with errors, many of which might have been corrected by the use of the commonest books of reference. The current University Calendar would have warned him against "Christ Church College" and "Brazenose." It would also have prevented him from printing the name of the Rector of Lincoln (Dr. Merry) as "Murray," and that of the Warden of Merton (Mr. Brodrick) as "Broderick"—thus misspelling the names of two out of the three living heads of houses whom he happens to mention. What would be thought of a writer on American colleges who, while making a boast of his accuracy, referred to Dr. Elliott of Harvard and Dr. Hadleigh of Yale? It appears from two distinct passages that Mr. Hutton is not even aware of the difference between a scholarship and a fellowship (pp. 42 and 116). He connects Magdalen Hall with Magdalen instead of with Hertford, there-

by reviving claims which everybody supposed had been finally disposed of by the Court of Common Pleas in 1694. Mr. Hutton explains that he does this "to make the confusion less confounded," though there is no confusion whatever in the matter to any one who will read the college histories. Clough did not gain the Rugby Balliol Scholarship (p. 44), for there is not and never has been any such thing. Dr. Routh was not a master of Magdalen College School (p. 149), but President of Magdalen College. Mr. Hutton reports a conversation between Swift and Dryden held as late as 1792 (p. 111), and repeats the same date as the year in which Swift received his degree. These are among the errors that strike the eye; one wonders what discoveries would be made by attempting to verify the dates and names page after page.

The author's choice of persons to write about throws significant light upon his knowledge both of English literature and of Oxford. If there is one name in English literature more closely associated with Oxford than any other it is that of Clarendon, from the profits of whose 'History' the Clarendon Press was established. But Mr. Hutton cannot spare a line for him, though he can afford nearly four pages for "Verdant Green." He complains that college histories dwell upon the men who made history rather than upon those who wrote it, yet for himself he ignores not only Clarendon, but Hallam, Gardiner, and Stubbs. His chapter on Christ Church, presumably, would have been overcrowded by a notice of these eminent sons of hers, as it was necessary, at all costs, that it should give a page to C. L. Dodgson. Mr. Hutton's account of Magdalen Hall recognizes Samuel Daniel, but ignores Thomas Hobbes. In writing of Oriel, he mentions Keble and Thomas Arnold, but omits Whately, the Mozley brothers, and Church. Bishop Butler is also forgotten in the chapter on this college. Mr. Hutton was shocked to find that, forty years after J. R. Green had left Jesus College, there was a college servant there who had never heard his name, but there is no evidence that he has himself ever heard the name of T. H. Green. During the nineteenth century there was no more distinctively Oxford man of letters than Mark Pattison, but he, too, is not important enough to figure in this collection. As Mr. Hutton admits Conington (whom, of course, he calls Connington) by virtue of his edition of Virgil, and Liddell and Scott by virtue of their lexicon, he would seem to regard distinction in classical scholarship as a title to mention, but Liddell's great predecessor Gaisford is entirely overlooked.

Being so imperfectly equipped with material for a book on his professed subject, Mr. Hutton was driven to seek padding outside it. He has, therefore, filled page after page with miscellaneous gossip about earlier Oxford customs, and stories of the university life of a few centuries ago, quite irrespective of any literary associations. Three times, for instance (pp. 15, 31, and 180), he notes with interest the small cost of meals in former times. To bring his book still nearer perfection, he bedews it with humor which would excellently serve the purpose of the funny man of a Sunday paper. And having completed this masterpiece, he writes an introduction in which he rebukes the Oxford of to-day for her indifference to, and lack of knowledge of, her past history, and suggests that a volume might be written on "What Oxford Does Not Know about Oxford!"

But this amazing production offers two compensations. Firstly, any subsequent writer on the Literary Landmarks of Oxford will find in it valuable material respecting Mr. Hutton's own connection with the place. He will learn, for instance, that Mr. Hutton's investigations were conducted during a visit of six weeks (p. 3); that he dreamed about Oxford every night during his visit (p. 37); that any baldness visible in him—there is reason for suspecting that a joke is intended here—is due to a disappointment about the identification of Hooker's rooms (p. 87); that he wrote most of this book in a house once occupied by Max Müller (p. 151); and that on several summer afternoons he talked cat-talk to the descendants of Tom Brown's College Toms at Oriel (p. 185). Secondly, the thirteen drawings by Herbert Railton, with which the book is illustrated, are exquisite. They afford a convincing plea for Grangerism, for no one could possibly be blamed for extracting them and pasting them into some book worth keeping. In spite of these compensations, however, the college man in America, whether likely to be a candidate for the Rhodes scholarships or not, would be better advised to try one of the sixpenny guide books.

The Characters of Theophrastus. Translated by C. E. Bennett and W. N. Hammond. Longmans. 1903.

The standard English translation of the 'Characters' is that published by Sir Richard Jebb in 1870, but it is unfortunately out of print, and meanwhile the version of Messrs. Bennett and Hammond is a very fair temporary substitute. Theophrastus was, like his master Aristotle, a savant, and stands outside the pale of pure literature. But Aristotle's 'Poetics,' in spite of its form, became the canon for the composition of tragedy, and so these slight character sketches by the Lesbian naturalist take a by no means insignificant place and represent a definite tendency in the literature of their age. The theory mentioned in the introduction of the latest translators, that Theophrastus influenced Menander, is probably unsound. It is more likely that the 'Characters' echoes the work of the "star of the new Comedy," the poet who hit off every human type—*omnem vitæ imaginem expressit*—who is the true representative of the Comedy that replaced political satire with the psychological study of manners. In the seventeenth century, Theophrastus inspired La Bruyère to translate and imitate him; but while the Greek had drawn the man whom one may meet any day in any century, the Frenchman was more personal and less philosophic. And so, though he covered far more ground than the narrow field of human defects recorded by Theophrastus, he is already less interesting and even less read. From La Bruyère's studies of character, though he scorned the imputation that he wrote maxims, one could make a very good anthology in the style of La Rochefoucauld and so extract the best of him; for we take no interest nowadays in trying to identify *Théodecte* the noisy diner-out, or *Cléon* or *Cléante*. But Theophrastus must be read intact. He did not go so deep into the human heart, but what he saw was the essential. We have all met his exquisite:

"He makes few purchases for himself, but sends presents to his friends at Byzantium, and Spartan dogs to Cyzicus, and Hymettian honey to Rhodes; and when he does these things he tells it about the town. Naturally, his taste runs to pet monkeys, parrots, Sicilian doves, gazelles' knuckle-bones, Thurian jars, crooked canes from Sparta, hangings inwrought with Persian figures, a wrestling ring sprinkled with sand, and a tennis-court. He goes around and offers this arena to philosophers, sophists, fighters, and musicians, for their exhibitions; and at the performances he himself comes in last of all, that the spectators may say to one another, 'That's the gentleman to whom the place belongs.'"

Or the stupid man:

"When he goes to receive payment of a debt, he takes witnesses with him. In the winter season he quarrels with his slave because cucumbers have not been provided. He forces his children to wrestle and to run until they fall into a fever. When he is roughing it in the country and himself cooks the vegetables, he puts salt in the pot twice and so makes the dish impossible. When it rains and others declare that the sky is darker than pitch, he exclaims: 'How sweet it is to consider the stars!' And if he is asked 'What is the mortality of the city—how many bodies have passed through the Sacred Gates?' he replies: 'Would that you and I had as many!'"

In these sketches Theophrastus appears to be a humorist with an eye on defects rather than vices, as we should use the term. But the Greeks had not learned to distinguish so broadly between ethics and æsthetics; to them, stupidity, talkativeness, impudence, and pompousness ranked with the vices, and Theophrastus wrote his 'Characters' as a study in ethics in which one may trace the influence of Aristotle as well as of the new Comedy. His Greek style gains by translation; the rendering of the present translators is faithful, and the introduction sufficient. English readers, therefore, who have not access to Professor Jebb's version, may well be grateful for this pleasing little volume.

The Battle with the Slum. By Jacob A. Riis. Illustrated. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1902.

This book would have attracted more attention than it has, but for the fact that most, if not all, of it is a republication. After writing 'How the Other Half Lives,' the author published, three years ago, 'A Ten Years' War,' a series of papers intended to account for the progress of "the battle with the slum" since the first volume appeared. Since that time, as he hints in his preface, a good many things have happened, and he has been occupied, not only in the conflict itself, but incidentally in writing about it. In the present volume he has passed the later stages of the conflict in review, "retaining all that still applied of the old volume and adding as much more." The "stories" are reprinted from the *Century*, and these, he adds, are fact, not fiction. The volume is copiously illustrated, and has plenty of real interest without the pictures.

This interest centres about two points: first, the author, and, secondly, what it is the fashion to call the "point of view" of the cause he advocates. Mr. Riis is, of course, an enthusiast, and in his enthusiasm fails to see that a much more restrained way of writing would be more effective for

his purposes than that which he employs. But his enthusiasm is genuine, and carries conviction. He is so evidently honest in his sympathy for human suffering and ignorance, and even for human perversity—his character shines so transparently through what he says—that the most critical (or, as he would say, most pessimistic) nature is forced first to attend and then to follow. "What the Fight is About," the first half-dozen pages of the book, sums up its whole theory. This theory, to put it in our own words, is that the slum is the measure of civilization. So far from its being tolerable, as those who went before thought, that squalor and filth and vice and crime should exist in great masses and plague-spots, side by side with wealth and education and order and happiness, the new theory is that, in a civilized community, the slum has no business to exist at all; that it can be extirpated, and that if it is not extirpated, the crime lies at the door of the prosperous classes who suffer it to go on. Now when we look at the slums of New York, we look at the worst case in point in the world, for here the slums have been permitted not only to fester and breed their kind, but to give a government to the city. Tammany, which thirty years ago meant only robbery, came in a generation to mean a government devoted to the propagation of vice and crime for private gain—probably the nearest approach to a "hell on earth" yet seen. Even Tammany never quite attained its ideal, but it came near enough to show us that it would have included, when perfect, a police dedicated to the work of deriving a revenue from the licensing not merely of bawds and pimps, but robbers and murderers; a fire department conniving in the work of the police by the spread of fires; a health board propagating disease; a building department aiding the main purpose of the government by selling licenses to violate the laws designed to secure life and limb and prevent the spread of pestilence—all directed to pouring a stream of money into the pocket of the man who managed the ingenious machinery by which he enslaved, plundered, and debauched his principality.

This system it is which has produced the New York pessimist for whom Mr. Riis has so little sympathy; fortunate for us if it has produced enthusiasts like Mr. Riis, who, seeing, as he says, that "we win or we perish," is ready for the battle. His battle with the slum is really only another side of the struggle for good government in which even "pessimists" now know they must take part or perish. Everybody cannot be an enthusiast; but everybody feels the force of inspiration, and Mr. Riis is inspired by that sympathy for the poor and weak and unsuccessful which drives men, not to alms-giving or psalm-singing, but to daily action against evil and its causes. The motive to which he appeals is in the end religious:

"We shall win, for we are not letting things be, the way our fathers did. But it will be a running fight, and it is not going to be won in two years, or in ten, or in twenty. For all that, we must keep on fighting, content if in our time we avert the punishment that waits upon the third and the fourth generation of those who forget the brotherhood. As a man does in dealing with his brother, so it is the way of God that his children shall reap, that through toil and tears we may make out the lesson which sums up all the commandments and alone can make the earth fit for the kingdom that is to come."

Biographic Clinics. By George M. Gould, M.D. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.

That curious nervous function which the physiologists call reflex action, illustrated when the pupil contracts under glare, the cheek flushes in anger or pales in fear, the mouth waters in anticipation of food or is parched under a test for guilt, is absolutely independent of the will and usually does not arouse sensation. Reflex action may also be potent as a cause of distress, with effects equivalent to disease, but without sensation in the part directly at fault. Nicotine poisoning is not painful to the nerves supplying the heart, but, when it weakens their control, that organ palpitates or intermits in its pulsations. Vision has been completely lost, without ocular pain, by reflex action from obscure dental conditions, to be restored simply by the removal of the distant cause. The range and list may be greatly extended.

Resting on this recognized foundation, Dr. Gould analyzes the notorious ill-health of five well-known literary men—De Quincey, Carlyle, Darwin, Huxley, Browning—and in each instance attributes the physical prostration to unconscious errors of vision, leading to profound reflex action, for whose existence he finds internal evidence in their published lives. The contention is very plausible in each case. From that text he argues with force and feeling that eye-strain is crippling multitudes with its unrecognized power. The primary defect does not lie in the nervous system. It depends upon aberrations of the refracting apparatus from the normal, often involving not more than a few thousandths of an inch in radii and curves. These trifles acquire their importance from the infinite repetition of infinitesimal stimuli of light rays upon the retina, each stroke distorted by the mechanical errors in the transmitting, not the receiving, equipment. The mischief follows the involuntary effort to correct these errors and to work with imperfect tools. The condition is parasitic to civilization. It is the man absorbed in near work who uses his eyes in ways, one is disposed to say, foreign to their design. Certainly savages, plainsmen, sailors, the men whose requirements are for long-range vision, are not those who fall back on spectacles.

The actual harm occurs in many and unsuspected ways. Headache, pain near the shoulder-blade, nausea, are common enough. Subjective sounds, want of mental concentration, vertigo, a nameless horror of places and conditions—in short, general wretchedness — are less common, but are frequent. Beyond all these, it is entirely conceivable that the nervous disturbances set in train may ultimately, by inhibition in some directions and overstimulation in others, originate disorders of digestion and nutrition, which, as Dr. Gould truly says, "are direct or secondary sources of a large part of the functional diseases and misery of the world." Glasses will not rejuvenate age, but in more cases than are suspected they will remove numerous and most trying infirmities of body and irritability of mind—that is to say, properly adjusted glasses. If Carlyle's physicians only knew!

The Roll-Call of Westminster Abbey. By Mrs. A. Murray Smith (E. T. Bradley). With illustrations and plans. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. x, 418.

Mrs. Smith has given special attention to Westminster Abbey and its memorials. Her 'Deanery Guide,' published in 1885, "has passed through twelve editions and has been constantly revised"; but it appears that it is now as large as it can be, and that the special coronation number will give it its final form. 'The Annals of Westminster Abbey' is also hers. We do not remember to have seen it, but it is spoken of in the preface now before us as rather a large work—much larger, for instance, than the present volume. The remarkable interest which English people of some scholarly habit take in Westminster Abbey, as forming, with its adjuncts and its contents, the embodiment of their national or at least their regal history, is the explanation of a perfect shower of publications of different sizes, of varying cost, but all prepared for the same class of visitors or sightseers, under the same semi-historic, semi-romantic influence.

The world of readers of English books thinks of England as that nation which, most of all in Europe, has continued to care for its historical traditions, retaining as it does mediæval features in its legislature, and mediæval ceremonies in the appointment and inauguration of its officials; but on examination it is found that there is much more of this conservatism in appearance than in reality. The one way in which this book may be useful to the historical student, is in pointing out the lack, even in England, of complete adherence to the conservative way of guiding a nation. One who turns these pages will see very frequent allusions to the spoliation by higher authority, to the plundering by unauthorized knaves, to the changes wrought by unworthy "restorers," to the blundering administration of careless or uninformed directors. The royal tomb is there, perhaps, but it has been opened more than once, and on each occasion some part of its contents has been removed; those very objects, so abstracted from the tomb in which they were to have remained until the day of judgment, have again disappeared, sold or pledged by necessitous monarchs, or simply appropriated by palace officials. And then, although there is indeed in England that spirit of continuity for which we give the English people so much credit, it has failed to act on many occasions when the indifference of a single official during his brief term of office has caused losses, and even more frequently changes, which it was impossible afterwards to replace or remedy.

The photographs given in this volume, twenty-five full-page plates, go far to illustrate this mingling or alternation of preservation and destruction, of care for the historical relic and of indifferent utilizing of it for immediate profit or convenience. The tombs, preserved in part but in new situations; the architecture, still there, but modified by restoration or by unrepaired destruction; the royal effigies, with their record of admitted importance, at one time so completely forgotten that their place of deposit was known to but a few custodians, and their exposure now to a public which, so far as it is careless,

laughs at their unsightly oddity, and, so far as it is studious, is annoyed by their dubious condition of frequent repair and modification—are all suggested by these illustrations, though, of course, the explanation given in the text is needed to make the truth obvious.

It is probable that that text is trustworthy. It consists of so great a number of studies in semi-historical legend that it must have required the half a lifetime which Mrs. Smith seems to have spent upon the subject to accumulate and arrange so large a collection of bits of information. And who is there who can check such a series of statements? It is not history, for there are no statements of general tendency, of gradual development, whether of the life of the community or of the governmental institutions of the country; and it is not merely legend, because the stories are not told merely as stories. Thus, in the case of Edward III. and his queen Philippa, there is much said of Froissart's view of the Queen, and Froissart is named as "her friend and faithful secretary"; and there is much about the tomb which Edward erected in the Abbey to her memory, and about the thirty little figures of mourners of whom all but two had disappeared when Sir George Gilbert Scott began his rather elaborate restorations of parts of the Abbey, some thirty years ago, while only one is to be found now; and there is something about so much as remains of the iron grille with its figures, and the wooden canopy with its decorations. The story goes on to tell in a quasi-historical way of the death of Edward, and the quarrels and the civil war which were to follow. With the next chapter this story begins again with the details of Richard II.'s life and actions; and his half-legendary history, with all its doubts and uncertainties and contrary allegations, is treated in a chapter (pp. 45-55), in which there is almost nothing about the Abbey or its contents—only mention of that tomb which Richard erected to his first queen, but from which the recumbent figures have disappeared; and of that other monument, the well-known painting so often reproduced as one of the few authentic and artistically valuable portraits of so early an epoch.

To pass over centuries, and to open the book quite casually at page 344, is to find ourselves amid the memorials of two unlucky campaigners in America, Major André and John Burgoyne, and associated with them some men of less fame who were also known at one time as soldiers in Great Britain's American possessions, as they then were—Enoch Markham and Sir Archibald Campbell. No possible artistic interest attaches to such memorials of these men as still exist, but it would appear that their somewhat romantic history is a part of the "Roll-Call of the Abbey." Indeed, the next chapter is devoted to the makers of the British-Indian Empire, and the final chapter (pp. 383-404), deals with literary men, theologians, and even men of science and of affairs whose tombs are enclosed within the Abbey walls. It is quite evident that the attempt to make a continuous narrative of all this, and to invest it with a sentiment half-patriotic, half-romantic, is so far an injury to the book, considered as a record, that one is never certain as he reads where the ascertained facts end and the author's imaginative treatment begins. There is, however, an index, limited, indeed, to proper names, and therefore excluding incidents or events, but still perhaps to be thought sufficient for a "Roll-Call."

Tracts Relating to the Currency of Massachusetts Bay, 1682-1720. Edited by Andrew McFarland Davis. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

This is a collection of tracts supplementary to Mr. Davis's important work in two volumes on 'Currency and Banking in the Province of Massachusetts Bay,' published two years since by the American Economic Association and reviewed at length in these columns. It embraces the text of some of the original matter by means of which students are enabled to trace the evolution of the prevailing theory of money and exchange in the New England colonies. It consists mainly of statutes and pamphlets, the latter now of extreme rarity and much scattered. Of some, only a single copy is known to exist. Mr. Davis aims to put all of them within easy reach of students. How great a service this will be, only those can understand who have attempted to find even a small part of them. Mr. Davis's success in bringing out future volumes will depend in part on the public demand for the present one, which contains eighteen pamphlets, embraced in 394 pages. The peculiarities of spelling and of capital letters and italics in the original are followed, and the paging of the old pamphlets is indicated. There is also a facsimile of one page of each.

The first of the series, entitled "Severals Relating to the Fund," is the oldest. Only one copy of this is known. It is in the Watkinson Library at Hartford. The late J. Hammond Trumbull established the date of publication as March, 1681, and identified the author with the Rev. John Woodbridge of Newbury, Mass. The Fund here contemplated was "a Fund of Land . . . in the nature of a Money Bank or Merchandise-Lumber" (*i. e.*, Lombard), based upon land. It is the first outline that has come down to us of the theory of land-banking that was afterwards put in practice in some of the New England colonies, and later in the Southern and Southwestern States of the Union, in each case disastrously. Mr. Davis has shown, in his second volume, how this conception of banking was derived by an illogical process from the example of the Bank of Amsterdam, which was itself not based on land, but on bullion, and was successful for that reason. "Severals Relating to the Fund" has several imitators in the volume before us, in which it is interesting to trace the growth and spread of the fallacy that ultimate security for payment can be made to answer the same purpose as immediate cash payment in establishing a bank.

"Some Proposals to Benefit the Province" is the theme of the last tract in the collection. It bears date 1720. The benefit proposed to the Province was to be a bank owned by the state, to issue bills to be loaned upon improved lands, "or any sufficient security," for twenty-one years at 6 per cent. per annum, payable in hemp, flax, turpentine, pitch, tar, resin, fish, oil, whalebone, "or any other specie that will prevent importation, or that is good for exportation." These articles were "to be stored up in the Lumberhouse," which was a part of the bank, and in due time to be exported to the "Streights" and sold for bullion, which should be brought back and lodged in the bank. In this way it was reckoned that in twenty-one years the whole bank stock would be converted into bullion, with which the bills might be redeemed. Then the debt of the borrower was to be cancelled without other payment. The benefits of this scheme to the borrowers were too obvious to need demonstration, but the author figured out a profit also to the state of no less than £928,700, if 2,000 farmers should take out bills to the extent of £100 each. This curious plan was never put in practice, but traces of it are to be found in the "Land Bank or Manufactory Scheme" of 1740.

The Grounds of Theistic and Christian Belief. By George Park Fisher, D.D., LL.D. Revised edition, in great part rewritten. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xx, 463.

This is much more than a new edition of a work published twenty years ago and long held in deserved respect. The author, in the leisure of his retirement from the active work of the classroom, and in the light of a score of years of added study and familiarity with two decades of discussion, has completely rewritten the volume and made it essentially a new work. In its new dress it offers, as it did in the first edition, for the day when that was published, a strong presentation of the arguments for the being of God, a critique of the principal anti-theistic theories, and a vigorous and scholarly defence of the historic verity of the Christian faith as set forth in the Gospels. It is interesting to observe how the proportion of argument has altered in the author's discussion; and now, in the evidences of Christianity, an increasing weight, in this edition, is given to its moral or internal proofs, though Professor Fisher by no means abandons confidence in the historic significance and apologetic value of miracles. The most extensive single discussion of the book is that regarding the authorship of the fourth Gospel, and Professor Fisher here presents the strongest argument that has recently been offered in defence of the traditional ascription of its composition to the Apostle John. The recent antagonistic literature on the subject is carefully considered, and combated with much skill and learning. Altogether, whether its conclusions are accepted or opposed, the volume is well fitted to sustain the reputation of one who has long been regarded as a leader among the church historians of America.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annual Literary Index, 1902. Edited by W. I. Fletcher and R. R. Bowker. Publishers' Weekly.
Babcock, W. H. Kent Fort Manor. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Bacheller, Irving. Darrell of the Blessed Isles. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company. $1.50.
Bailey, L. H. The Nature-Study Idea. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Barry, J. D. A Daughter of Thespis. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Batson, H. M. A Book of the Country and Garden. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Betts, Lillian W. The Story of an East-Side Family. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Boissier, Gaston. Tacite. Paris: Hachette & Co.
Booth, Charles. Life and Labor of the People in London. Third Series. Vol. VII. Macmillan.
Brady, C. T. The Bishop. Harpers. $1.50.
Briggs, G. R. The Elements of Plane Analytic Geometry, Revised by Maxime Bôcher. John Wiley & Sons. $1.

Cable, G. W. The Cavalier. (Julia Marlowe Edition.) Scribners. $1.50.
Chambliss, Paul. At the Heart of Old Pelée. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.50.
Churchill, W. S. Mr. Brodrick's Army. London: Arthur L. Humphreys.
Coleman, J. M. Social Ethics: An Introduction to the Nature and Ethics of the State. Baker & Taylor Co.
Dahn, Felix. Felicitas. Translated by Mary J. Safford. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Darwin, Francis. More Letters of Charles Darwin. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Dopp, Katharine E. The Place of Industries in Elementary Education. Chicago: University Press.
Duff, R. A. Spinoza's Political and Ethical Philosophy. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan, $3.50.
Dunbar, P. L. Lyrics of Love and Laughter. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Ellwanger, G. H. Love's Old Sweet Song. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Flynt, Josiah. The Rise of Ruderick Clowd. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Griggs, E. H. A Book of Meditations. New edition. B. W. Huebsch.
Gwilliam, G. H. Place of the Peshitto Version in the Apparatus Criticus of the Greek Testament. (Studia Biblica et Ecclesiastica.) Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.
Gwynne, Paul. The Pagan at the Shrine. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hamilton, G. L. The Indebtedness of Chaucer's Troilus and Criseyde to Guido delle Colonne's Historia Trojana. Columbia University Press (Macmillan). $1.25.
Hanotaux, Gabriel. Contemporary France. Vol. I. Translated by J. C. Tarver. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.75.
Holleman, A. F. A Text-Book of Organic Chemistry. Translated by A. J. Walker and O. E. Mott. John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.
Liljencrantz, Otillie A. The Ward of King Canute. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Livingston, B. E. The Rôle of Diffusion and Osmotic Pressure in Plants. (Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago.) Chicago: University Press.
Murray, A. S. The Sculptures of the Parthenon. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $6.50.
Lummis, C. F. Out West. Vol. XVII. San Francisco: Out West Co.
Morley, Margaret W. Down North and Up Along. New ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Moss, Fletcher. Pilgrimages to Old Homes, Mostly on the Welsh Border. Didsbury (England): Published by the Author.
Mowbray, J. P. The Conquering of Kate. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
New Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle. Annotated by Thomas Carlyle, and edited by Alexander Carlyle. 2 vols. John Lane.
Pears, Edwin. The Destruction of the Greek Empire and the Story of the Capture of Constantinople by the Turks. Longmans, Green, & Co. $7.
Peet, L. H. Trees and Shrubs of Prospect Park. Brooklyn, 755 Ocean Avenue: The Author.
Penal Servitude. London: William Heineman; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Phillips, D. G. Golden Fleece. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Price, W. L., and Johnson, W. M. Home Building and Furnishing. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Reed, H. B. Notes from Nature's Lyre. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Sachse, J. F. Justus Falckner, Mystic and Scholar. Philadelphia: Published by the Author.
Sangster, Margaret E. When Angels Come to Men. Fleming H. Revell Company.
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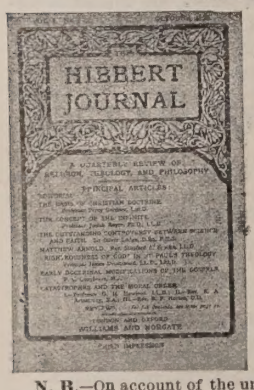

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 30, 1903.

The Week.

Mr. Carnegie's public benefactions come in such swift succession and such large sums that only a professional accountant can keep track of them. They have one distinguishing feature, however. Each gift has a definite purpose in the mind of the donor, and is precisely adapted to the end in view. Money is not handed out indiscriminately. Every dollar is made to go as far as possible to carry out the purpose, and none is to be wasted. The gift of $600,000 to the Tuskegee Institute is an example in point. It is coupled with a condition that, out of the sum named, provision shall be made for Mr. and Mrs. Booker T. Washington, so that Mr. Washington need not spend his energies and the best years of his life in scouring the country to get money for the support of the Institute, and need not be in anxiety for his own family. Declining years will come to him, yet since he has never employed his rare gifts as a speaker and an organizer for his own benefit, he has accumulated nothing. He has refused every opportunity to make money for himself. Although large offers have been made to him as a lecturer, he has always put them aside, in order to give all his strength to the training and upbuilding of his race. He has refused to be swerved from this great purpose, and now he realizes the truth of the sacred text: "All these things shall be added unto you." Mr. Carnegie gives more than an ordinary present to Tuskegee when he gives to Booker Washington the leisure to dispose of his own time for the best interests of his Institute and his people. But it should be clearly understood that further sums are greatly needed. Each year $152,000 has to be raised. The Carnegie gift will yield $30,000 annually. Others should come forward, not only to make up the deficiency, but to secure an endowment sufficient to carry on the work of this great educational institution.

After weeks of suppression, Secretary Root, in response to a rapidly growing public demand for it, has seen fit to give to the public parts of the report made by Nelson A. Miles, Lieutenant-General Commanding the Army, upon the atrocities which came under his notice while in the Philippines. Lest there be any misunderstanding as to how Gen. Miles came to make this report, we would recall to our readers that he was ordered by Secretary Root and President Roosevelt to proceed to the Philippine Islands upon a tour of inspection, and to report in writing as to the condition of the troops, their efficiency, discipline, stations, etc. It was in accordance with his written instructions, therefore, that he composed in Manila this remarkable document, full as it is of tales of horrors, rivalled only by the Spanish cruelties in Cuba about which we went to war in 1898. Now what must be said of a Secretary of War who selects the highest officer for inspection duty, and then, after suppressing the report on the ground that it is "confidential," seeks to prove as he has done, by publishing it, that the General is mistaken in his judgments? Had Mr. Root himself accompanied the report with a statement that Gen. Miles was misled, he would have been wholly within his rights. Instead, he has deliberately gone out of his way to break down the discipline of the service by ordering subordinate officers to attack the veracity of their military superior, or to expose the alleged errors of judgment into which he has fallen. The Chief of Engineers, the Chief of Ordnance, the Surgeon-General, the Commissary-General, the Judge-Advocate-General, and Major-Gen. Hughes, in whose department occurred the worst cases of water-cure (as *proved* by courts-martial), are all called upon to reply to those portions of the report which bear upon them. The bureau chiefs' replies are *embodied* in Miles's report itself; Gen. Hughes's is suppressed because it is "not gentlemanly." To cap the climax, Gen. Chaffee bursts forth in an interview declaring that the report of his superior is of no importance. If this is not military anarchy, what could be?

A detailed review of the legislation of the session of the Legislature which closed at Albany on Thursday is not necessary. Three measures were most debated—the canal-enlargement bill, the excise-tax law, and the mortgage-tax bill. The two former were passed, as unquestionably a majority of the people wished that they should be. The latter died of congenital weakness and early exposure. As for the so-called "grab" bills, designed to secure valuable privileges and franchises by sneak-thief methods, they have all been either killed outright or left in a position where a veto by Mayor of Governor will give them their quietus. This last is, we believe, distinctly the case with all the bills injuriously interfering with New York city government. Mr. Low can put the lot out of misery. As respects measures of taxation and finance, no account of the events of the winter would be fair which did not admit a pretty complete shattering of Gov. Odell's prestige as an authority in those subjects. In his first term, he built up for himself a great and apparently deserved reputation as a man of business grasp and unusual skill in devising fruitful schemes of taxation. Two years ago, his message was a programme of legislation. This year, his message was one long list of proposals which should not have been made, and which, in fact, have not been enacted. All his tax measures have been either abandoned or heaved overboard. His final message on the mortgage tax was filled with pitiable vacillation and confessions, so that it is no wonder the whole plan was given up in general disgust. Whatever credit the Governor may deserve in matters financial comes from his resolute turning, at the end, to economy in expenditure, instead of to wanton taxation, as a means of making the books balance. But this he should have done from the very first.

As was expected, the preliminary report of Messrs. Ford and Berard, the expert accountants, shows that our city bookkeeping is both cumbrous and lax. Different accounts are "jumbled," it says, and the whole system is in need of revision and simplification. Its present complexity and uncertainty almost place a premium upon extravagance, if not peculation. This whole subject has a vital place in the general movement for the bettering of American municipal government. Municipal accounts have been so incomplete, and sometimes misleading, that it has been difficult to determine precisely what has been done with the money of the taxpayers; while the diversity in the methods of bookkeeping has been so great as to make it almost impossible to establish satisfactory comparisons that would enable one city to profit by the experience of others. When the Department of Labor undertook, some years ago, to make a compilation of the financial statistics of municipalities, the officers in charge of the investigation learned that in some cities "no printed reports were available"; while the data secured in most cases were so unsatisfactory that an adequate comparison of the figures was a work of extreme difficulty. The financial statements of some cities have effectually concealed the fact that for a period of several years the expenditures had exceeded the current revenues. The capital accounts of public industries have often been neglected, so that the results of their operations have not been easy to ascertain. It has been possible for disputes to arise over such questions as the increase or decrease of municipal debts during one or several administrations, while important departments of the governments have kept little more than bare cash accounts. Such conditions have served inevitably to impair

municipal credit, and to raise the rates of interest which cities have been obliged to pay. Political bosses could hardly ask a fairer field for the display of their peculiar talents.

The organization of employers of labor at Omaha, to resist boycotting, sympathetic strikes, and other means of coercion by trade unions, seems to have been prompted by the action of the New Orleans Convention of Manufacturers. At all events it followed very closely after that deliverance. Yet it is not by any means a new thing in the country's experience. There have been previous local agreements of employers to stand by each other in resistance to trade-union tyranny. The great lockout of the building trades in Chicago, which lasted eighteen months and paralyzed that industry, was similar to the one with which Omaha seems to be threatened. It is much easier to utter warnings against these conflicts, to point out the losses they involve, and to show how nicely the differences between labor and capital might be adjusted by boards of conciliation and arbitration; but until these wholesome conceptions are woven into the framework of society so that they will work automatically to some definite conclusion, we see no other course open to the employers than to resist the boycott and other forms of organized coercion by counter-organization. No employer can wait till his property is gone from him before taking steps for self-defence. Long experience has shown that employers cannot successfully resist the boycott one by one. As we understand it, the Omaha employers have merely agreed to organize, as the trade unions are now organized, so that they can present a solid front as the unions themselves do. Perhaps we shall some time reach the happier industrial state which the North of England Boards of Conciliation represent; but we cannot expect it while the boycott and the sympathetic strike remain the most common weapons of organized labor.

In the receivership of the Chicago Union Traction Company, which embraces the West and North Side street railway lines, we see one of the consequences of the failure of the syndicate of New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago capitalists to secure from the City Council what they considered a sufficient extension of the franchises which soon fall in. This was the principal issue in the late municipal election. Both political parties were pledged either to short terms of lease or to municipal control and operation, and these pledges were held in force by the Municipal Voters' League, which has made it possible to elect and keep in power an unpurchasable Board of Aldermen. The receivership has been ordered by Judge Grosscup of the United States Circuit Court as the result of unsatisfied judgments aggregating $1,368,180. The significance of this debt arising against a company which has hitherto been very prosperous, is not apparent. We can well believe, however, that the step was not taken for the purpose of forcing the municipal authorities to make the extension of the franchises which the syndicate asked for. The fact is that the municipal authorities of Chicago can be neither coerced nor bought. The city itself has no money invested in the traction company, and it is not likely that Judge Grosscup's receivers will allow the roads to stop running. The franchises cannot be extended without the vote of the City Council or of the Legislature, and both of these are in sympathy with the Voters' Municipal League.

Ramsay County, Minn., of which the city of St. Paul is the principal part, is about to undertake an interesting reform of its jury system. This is rendered possible by the passage through the Legislature of a bill empowering six judges of the District Court to appoint three commissioners to prepare a list of men who "by education, business habits, moral character, and physical health" are qualified for service as jurors. These are the qualities which jurors chosen in the careless fashion of most localities do not possess. The question whether or not the persons named in the new list actually have the required attributes is not to be left to mere conjecture or chance. The law provides that the fitness of prospective jurors be ascertained by "actual inquiry," for which work of investigation the commissioners are to receive suitable compensation. If, in addition to applying this promising system, the county authorities and judges insist on the performance of jury duty by men thus declared to be fitted for it, the result cannot fail to be beneficial. Many a scheme of jury reform has failed by reason of undue exemptions selfishly demanded and weakly allowed.

Significant of the present attitude of Canada on tariff matters is the readiness with which she has met the increased German schedules by applying her own maximum schedules to German imports. This somewhat abrupt interference with a promising trade of about $9,000,000 a year is perhaps due to political rather than economic considerations. Taking advantage of the present anti-German feeling of the British Empire, the Liberals in power are able to throw a sop to the ultra-protectionist Conservatives without fully committing themselves to their policy. Yet the pressure to increase the Canadian duties is going to be strong. Even a lavish bestowal of direct bounties has not served to abate the protectionist thirst. But it would still be possible, if our Government would assume the initiative heartily, to negotiate a reciprocity treaty with Canada, and it will obviously be more advantageous to do so on the basis of the present duties than it will be after Canada, adopting German policy, has set her duties absurdly high, "as a basis of negotiation." It is in the interest of both Canada and the United States to avoid a tariff war. The duty of making it impossible rests largely with us. And we must bear in mind that we can never get, what so many of us appear to desire—namely, the Irishman's "reciprocity all on one side."

Casual attention in England, and, we presume, in this country, will be caught by the remission of taxation which the Chancellor of the Exchequer is able to announce in the new budget. All told, this amounts to about $50,000,000. Cutting down the income tax by fourpence means a relief to taxpayers of more than $40,000,000 annually, and the abolition of the grain duties signifies not only the removal of a political grievance and a taking party cry—that the Government was responsible for a "bread-tax"—but a lowering of the taxes by some $10,000,000. Here, then, would appear to be a notable reduction of taxation; but the really significant thing is not the amount taken off, but the amount left on. Going back to the last year of the last Liberal Government—1895-96—we find that the total sum raised by taxation was $475,000,000. This year's budget, counting in Chancellor Ritchie's remission of taxes, proposes to raise $723,000,000. That is to say, with the Boer war over and the country again on a peace basis, the expenditure has gone to a permanently higher level. Taxes that went up nearly 50 per cent. as a result of the war, are to stay up about 30 per cent. after the war is over. This phenomenon is perfectly familiar in financial history. Taxation does not, after a war, flow back into its old channels. As Sir George Cornewall Lewis pointed out after the Crimean war, the inevitable tendency of any war is to leave behind it an increase of taxation in a permanent form. It is what John Morley has called the "backwash of war."

We have had ample experience of it in this country. It is not necessary to go back to the period following the civil war. That was an era of extravagance, in spite of the fact that the country was almost exhausted by the long and fearful struggle. But take a later and fresher proof of the old truth. The Spanish war did for us what the Boer war did for England—raised permanently the level of national expenditure, and so of national taxation. For the four years before the blowing up of the *Maine*, the annual appropriations, as printed in the

Government 'Statistical Abstract,' averaged about $300,000,000. The war drove them up at once to $673,000,000. But they fell back only part way when the war was over. They dropped first to $462,000,000, then to $457,000,000, but shot up again in 1902 to $479,000,000. The last Congress pushed them higher yet. Thus we are in the same boat with England. An "easy" war has fastened upon either country a permanent burden of new taxation amounting to $150,000,000 annually.

Mr. Balfour's retreat from something that looked like another German alliance, in the matter of the Bagdad railway, is ostensibly based on financial grounds. The Government, he said on Thursday, had not found it advisable to guarantee the British capital which it was proposed to embark in that enterprise. This of itself was a sufficiently humiliating confession for him to have to make, since he had assumed a particularly jaunty tone when the matter came up in the Commons on April 8, in regard to the alleged financial difficulties of a "railway which goes through a very rich country." He has perhaps found that the country was not so rich as he thought it was, and has surely discovered a strong sentiment in England against any more entanglements with Germany. The incident may help the Ministry at home—where it certainly needs all the help it can get—but will be apt to make a bad impression in Berlin.

International junketing is seldom of any permanent usefulness—so the myriad entertainers of Prince Henry of Prussia often reflect; but the official visit of King Edward to Paris may prove an exception to the rule. The enthusiasm which will be manifested for the royal guest will be only an official expression of the kindly sentiments he has won for himself during many visits as a private gentleman. His urbanity has endeared him to the many Frenchmen with whom he came informally in contact, and it will not seem ungracious to observe that a legend of indulgence did him no harm in the pleasure ground of Europe. He comes at an opportune time when old grudges, like the occupation of Egypt, have been forgotten, and outstanding disputes at least temporarily adjusted. The mob which sees him pass will perceive that he is not, as the caricaturists have represented him, an ogre who eats Boer babies. It appears that his reception will fairly rival in heartiness that given to the Czar when the Franco-Russian alliance was proclaimed. It will be a distinct gain if the Parisians forget their pet phrase, *perfide Albion*, for there are many worthy causes—notably that of reform in the Balkans—which have much to gain from a good understanding between France and England.

That the French War Office is to reopen the Dreyfus case will hardly be doubted by anybody who has read the debates of April 8-10, in the Chamber. There it appeared clearly that Cavaignac, Minister of War at the time of the Zola trial, had deliberately suppressed a letter of Gen. Pellieux. This extraordinary letter charged the General Staff with forgery. Cavaignac never presented the letter to President Brisson, and, through Gen. Zurlinden's mediation, persuaded Gen. Pellieux to withdraw it. Under cross-examination before the Chamber, Cavaignac avowed this act, and defended it. His reason for failing to show that one of the capital pieces upon which Dreyfus's condemnation rested was a forgery, was that he, personally, was convinced of Dreyfus's guilt. Or, as Jaurès, interrupting, drove home this extraordinary confession, Cavaignac assumed to be "sole judge" of Dreyfus's moral guilt, and took the ground that, though wrongfully condemned, the Jewish captain was yet guilty. It is doubtful if a Minister of State has ever before been forced to so disgraceful an avowal. In striking contrast to Cavaignac's wholly contemptible attitude, was Gen. André's statement that, in view of the charges of Gen. Pellieux made while conducting the prosecution, the whole evidence would be reviewed, and appropriate action taken. But, in fact, it makes little difference what is done by the Government and the War Office, which have, however, given every assurance of loyalty; through Jaurès's indefatigable zeal in seeking new evidence, and his eloquence in presenting it to the people of France and to the world, the Dreyfus case *is* reopened.

At the French Socialist Congress recently sitting at Bordeaux, the question arose of expelling M. Millerand, the Parliamentary Socialist. As Minister of Public Works under Waldeck-Rousseau, and subsequently as a private citizen, he has steadfastly insisted that Socialism must seek its ends not by revolution but by gaining control of the regular machinery of Government. Those who believed with him in the theory of gradual reform were contemptuously called "the yellows" by the revolutionary Socialists —who are "the reds." His vindication by the representatives of Socialists of all degrees can only mean that in France Socialism is taking its place among the Liberal parties, and is ceasing to be a subversive force. The same process has gone much further in Italy and Germany, where the Socialist parties work regularly with the other parliamentary groups, and base their hope of supremacy not in fomenting the war of classes, but in dealing with things as they are. This tendency of Socialism to convert itself into the ordinary forms of Radicalism is a very hopeful sign of the times. It shows that, before the practical work of legislation, the wildest theories yield to common sense; and some day the United States is likely to have more than an observer's interest in the matter, for it is wholly unlikely that the labor movement in this country will end short of some form of political Socialism, if by a slower and more devious process.

The report that Russia has presented severe demands touching Mantchuria, the substance of which is "J'y suis, j'y reste," is grave, but not unexpected. Indeed, the demands embrace something more. Not only does Russia remain where she is in Mantchuria, but she requires China to promise not to admit any other Power into that vast territory. No new treaty ports are to be granted, and no new foreign consulates are to be admitted. From St. Petersburg, however, we are told that, of the eight demands said to have been made by Russia, four are absolutely false, one is unimportant, two others involve no change in previous arrangements; and that the only one which is both new and important relates to a sanitary commission to keep out contagious diseases. Be this as it may, nothing but divine power or an internal revolution of her own can prevent Russia from absorbing Mantchuria eventually. She has the position and the forces to carry out her purpose, whatever it may be, but her policy in the past has been to accomplish her ends by diplomacy. In Korea she avoided trouble with Japan by allowing France and Germany to intervene in an advisory capacity. In the later troubles at Peking she got her standing at New Chwang recognized by promising to restore its government to China at a definite time. She now says that its revenues must be paid into the Russo-Chinese bank instead of the Chinese Customs Bank. Where the revenues are, there the Government is also. But who is going to dispute this point with Russia?

A dispatch from Yokohama says that three Japanese warships have been ordered to New Chwang, and that Japanese feeling is much excited by the Russian demands. For Japan, indeed, the situation is crucial. She needs a field for trade and emigration to the west which the Russians are occupying. She will never again be able to fight to so good advantage as now, when she could make a great deal of trouble for the Russians. But in such a campaign she could not claim the support of England, for the alliance becomes operative only when either party is at war with *two* hostile Powers. France, of course, may be counted out of the folly of taking any active part with Russia in the Far East. Before deglutition, the Bear declares his intention of licking the Mantchurian morsel into shape. Who dares interfere with his feast?

THE ALABAMA DECISION.

The exact legal effect of the recent decision of the Supreme Court in the Alabama case, involving the disfranchisement of negroes under the new State Constitution, is difficult to determine. It is not certain, from the somewhat confused report of the different opinions, whether the court passed upon the Constitutionality of those clauses of the Alabama Constitution which were ingeniously and avowedly framed to disfranchise the negro. But no doubt appears to be left that the prevailing opinion of Judge Holmes extinguishes the hope of colored men in the South that their electoral wrongs might be righted by the Supreme Court of the United States, exercising its powers of equity. No such relief can be granted, decides the majority of the court. It rejects the appeal of the counsel for the disfranchised negroes—himself a negro, by the way—to "look through forms at the substance" and to "detect and expose fraud and conspiracy and cunning and chicanery."

That this language is not a whit too strong to describe the intent and effect of the Alabama Constitution, will be doubted by no one who has read the proceedings of the recent Constitutional Convention in that State. Discrimination against the negro was written all over it. Not the slightest concealment was attempted. The Convention, made up *exclusively* of white men, though nearly half the population of the State is colored, met under the distinct pledge of successive party platforms to disfranchise no single white man, except for infamous crime. It was boldly stated by one speaker, whose views prevailed, "We cannot afford to disfranchise the ignorant and illiterate white." Another debater declared, accurately betraying the animus of the Convention: "This is a white man's country, and I believe that not a single white man should be disfranchised, and I am opposed to the enfranchisement of any negro in the State of Alabama, let it be *Booker Washington or any one else.*"

Now how did these men get around the plain inhibition of the Constitution of the United States (which they had all taken an oath to support) against the denial or abridgment of the right to vote "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude?" The truth is, they scarcely expected to be able to get around it. They were plainly warned that their proposed action would be unconstitutional. Senator Morgan frankly told them that the Supreme Court would be bound to declare their plan null and void under the Constitution, and so, we believe, did Senator Pettus. On the floor of the Convention, able lawyers spoke to the same effect. Yet the scheme was persisted in, and by an intricate and crafty plan of qualifying and registering voters, the end has, in fact, been attained. Under what purports to be an impartial educational and property qualification, every white man in the State, illiterate and worthless though he may be, has been made a registered voter, while thousands of negroes have been deprived of the suffrage they once enjoyed, and hundreds fully able to qualify under the new provisions have been refused registration.

The tricky means by which this work was accomplished cannot be set forth at length here. There was the so-called "grandfather clause." Under it, those who bore arms in the war between the States, or their *descendants*, are entitled to vote all their lives, irrespective of the test of literacy or property. This, by the way, was in flat violation of one of the clauses of the Alabama Constitution itself, which declared that "no hereditary distinction . . . shall ever be granted or conferred in this State." It was confessed that some of these ex-Confederates and their sons were ignorant and immoral in the extreme. One speaker admitted that "some of those people and the descendants of those people carry the mark of rascality written upon their face." Yet all that white riff-raff had to be admitted to the suffrage. One member of the Convention gravely argued that the worst of them had "inherited" the ability to share in self-government, and, in the good old Southern style, he quoted Scripture for it: "I am persuaded that the unfeigned faith which dwelt in thy grandmother Lois and thy mother Eunice dwells also in thee." The solemn President of the Convention cited that text as proof of the "inherited capacity" of the poor and illiterate whites, and nobody laughed. But the rule is not allowed to work both ways. Negroes who bore arms in the civil war have applied for registration, and have been rejected. They were on the Northern side, unluckily. They fought for a Government which afterwards declared them citizens of the United States, though now the Supreme Court confesses itself unable to protect them in their rights of citizenship.

The enormous and indefinite powers put into the hands of the Boards of Registration in Alabama have been a potent means of disfranchising colored voters really qualified. In their discretion, they could register "all persons who are of good character, and who understand the duties and obligations of citizenship under a republican form of government." How easy, under that, for white registrars to shut out negroes! That was in the "temporary plan"—that is, the plan for getting all white men permanently upon the list of voters in the first year. The "permanent plan," which went into effect on January 1, 1903, had special provisions of which the obvious intent was to shut out negroes who might be able to qualify under the general educational and property system. Thus, any negro might be rejected if he could not state, under oath, "where he lived during the five years next preceding, and the name of his employer or employers, if any, during such period." The intent to intimidate and discriminate glares in this provision, as it does in other parts of the sections relating to the suffrage.

Judicial relief from this injustice is denied by the Supreme Court. It declares that the remedy for such political wrongs must be political. That points the way to the next step. Congress must act. It has full legal power to enforce a political remedy. Under the Fourteenth Amendment, it can reduce the representation of those States which disfranchise large classes of their citizens. Still more effectively, perhaps, can action be taken under that clause of the Constitution which provides that "each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members." The House may go behind the face of the credentials of Southern Congressmen. It can inquire into the registration of voters, can expose unequal disfranchisement, and seat contestants who may allege and prove that lawful voters were deprived of the right of suffrage. In any case, and in all ways, the South must be given to understand that there is a national conscience which will not sleep in the presence of injustice to the negro. He is entitled to the full and equal protection of the laws. The suffrage cannot be taken away from him unfairly. His right to be educated, to improve his lot, to hold office when fit, can be questioned no more than that of any other American citizen. And the sooner the Republican party sets about the work of completing its mission in behalf of the negro, the sooner will it create a soul under the ribs of death.

NORTH AND SOUTH AT RICHMOND.

The Richmond meeting of the Southern Educational Conference, which ended on Sunday evening with a memorial service in honor of the late J. L. M. Curry, marked a long step forward in the movement begun six years ago by a handful of Northerners and Southerners at Capon Springs, Va. At the Athens Conference, a year ago, it was still necessary for the Southerners to proclaim their adherence to the cause, while the Northerners devoted a good deal of time to explaining its *raison d'être*. This year, from the statements of the field directors to the shortest of the impromptu addresses, there were few words wasted along these lines. It was essentially a conference to report progress, and, in many respects, a most gratifying advance. If the spirit and enthusiasm of the crusader were somewhat

lacking this year, there was, on the other hand, a broader range in the discussions; and some noticeably inspiring and encouraging notes were sounded—principally, it must be said, by speakers from the South.

Hitherto the conferences have dealt very largely with the problems of the rural schools, the necessity of consolidation, of longer terms, better teachers, and improved buildings. This year there were discussed, in addition, such questions as the relation of the teacher to the State; the responsibility of Government for public education; local taxation; the duty of the citizen, and the work of the university in the Southern States. The last-mentioned subject offered a most excellent opportunity for frank speaking, for the thraldom of the Southern professor to Southern prejudice has long hampered and still continues to hamper the growth of Southern colleges into true and broad institutions of light and learning. The opportunity was eagerly grasped by Prof. Edwin Mims of Trinity College, Durham, N. C. Evidently having in mind the case of Professor Sledd, who was dismissed from a Southern college for an article on the negro problem in the *Atlantic Monthly*, Professor Mims made an eloquent plea for academic freedom of thought and utterance, without which no college can hope to fulfil its duty to the community which maintains it or to the nation whose youth it educates. That such clear and fearless speech should have come from a Southern-born teacher is as encouraging as it is exceptional. It would seem to indicate that the broad spirit of the Southern educational movement is already stirring collegiate circles.

A still more striking utterance from a Southerner was the address of Chancellor Hill of the University of Georgia, It dealt with the question of negro education in so broad and unprejudiced a spirit as to delight all advocates of justice to a downtrodden race, who heard or read it. It is not too much to say that it would have been impossible ten or even five years ago. Yet Mr. Hill's insistence upon the South's duty of educating the negro was warmly applauded by the Southern audience which listened to him. It would be well if every white schoolhouse in the South could have upon its walls Mr. Hill's declaration that "the only thing which the South cannot afford in its relation to the negro race is injustice; all history teaches that injustice injures and deteriorates the individual or nation that practises it, while on the other hand it develops and strengthens the man or race upon which it is inflicted." A similar sentence in Mr. Cleveland's recent address in this city would have increased its value enormously.

While these and other speeches of Southern men were among the most encouraging features of the Richmond Conference, it must be said frankly that the Northern men did themselves far less credit. Dr. Lyman Abbott went out of his way to reiterate his assertion that "manhood suffrage means manhood first and suffrage second," and that "no man has a right to govern his neighbor who has not the intelligence and the conscience to govern himself." As with similar utterances of Northern men, these views are accepted by the ignorant and prejudiced as justifying any amount of repression of the negro. "We cannot afford," said the President of a Southern college, "to permit Dr. Abbott to speak as he does; it encourages those who would for ever disfranchise the negro, and makes the tasks of those of us who would uplift the negro infinitely harder."

The greatest danger which confronts the Southern Conference in its annual meetings is obviously the desire to avoid friction and to pour oil upon troubled waters. To express sympathy with the South in its difficult problems, as Mr. Cleveland did, is both wise and just. To allow one's sympathy with the South to blind one to its wrongdoings and shortcomings is to help no one. Academic freedom is to be obtained only by such courageous words as those of Professor Mims, and by public approval of those like him who have in their hearts the true conception of the functions of a university. Justice for the negro is to be obtained only by words like those of Chancellor Hill, and by outspoken reprobation of deeds of violence and injustice. Hand in hand with applause of Southern gifts to negro education, of Southern patience and Southern bravery in facing problems of readjustment, must go wise insistence upon Southern faults and Southern weaknesses, together with reproval of Southern wrongdoing. Otherwise the true aims of the Conferences will be overlooked in the general desire to forget the past and to avoid what are known as "dangerous topics."

"PERSONAL PUBLICITY."

When the Lieutenant-Governor of Missouri, Mr. Lee, went into hiding for several days, after the publication of the bribery scandal in which he was involved, it was surmised that he was a shrinking and sensitive soul. This suspicion is now confirmed by his letter of resignation, in which he says that he surrenders his office out of a strong wish "to retire from personal publicity." Evidently, Mr. Lee is one of those delicate natures never meant for contact with a rough world. He should now be left to that seclusion (with the Grand Jury) and secrecy (in a prison cell, if he doesn't make a c'ean breast of it and turn State's witness) which he so much craves. His case, however, furnishes an instructive instance on a small scale of what is now going on wholesale at Washington. The overweening desire of the authorities engaged in running down the Post-office frauds is all too plainly to avoid the same "personal publicity" which is so highly distasteful to Lieut.-Gov. Lee of Missouri.

A high official gave out on Monday a friendly account of Postmaster-General Payne's method of investigation. It was to be thorough, but "quiet." He never expected to permit "so much publicity as has been given the affair." His idea was softly to find out who the scoundrels were, and gently to get rid of them, without any fuss or scandal. It was not Mr. Payne's purpose, this semi-official explanation informs us, to "publish from the housetops" all the "various doings of the Department relating to the investigation." It was not that he had friends to protect, but he wanted to spare the feelings of the incriminated officials and their families, and to prevent the good name of the service from being smirched.

This plan of pursuing fraud with felt slippers and catching rogues with fur gloves is said to have had the approval of the President. With him, according to the statement, the Postmaster-General went over the whole situation. Mr. Roosevelt insisted upon thorough investigation, but agreed that it should be purely a family affair, the dirty linen to be washed under cover, and none of it hung out on the line. There was thus to be no offensive "publicity." Before going on his Southern trip, Mr. Payne arranged to have his "thorough" investigation kept under lock and key, and accordingly he was "greatly surprised," on his return to Washington, to "find the situation in a very bad way, and an extent of publicity which he thought harmful." We note, in passing, that the surprise which he publicly expressed at the time related to the charges of rottenness in his Department. He did not then say, as he does now, that he had long known about the crookedness, and had given orders to have it corrected, all as between friends. But it is not the Postmaster-General's sincerity, only his tactics, upon which we are moved to comment.

And the first thing to be said about this "gum-shoe campaign" against fraud in the public service is that it is a policy utterly impossible to carry out, even if it were wise. To say nothing of an inquisitive press, how could the Postmaster-General imagine that he could thrust a quiet hand into a ramified Department, tainted in many parts by fraudulent operations, and pluck out here and there an offender, in silence and concealment? It was certain that he would bring the hornets about his ears. Detected cheats do not take their medicine so meekly as Mr. Payne thought. They fly to their Congressional backers. They complain of "star-chamber methods," allege that they were the victims of spies and informers, assert that oth-

ers were more guilty than they, and, in general, kick up all the dust and make all the row they can. Obviously, the way to eject a scoundrel from the public service is not to open a back door for him in the night, but to fling him out at the front entrance, with a plain statement of his offences given to all the world. Publicity is the very thing you must seek when turning out discredited officeholders, and the more personal and offensive you can make it the better—that is, if you are really bent on making thorough work of it, and affixing a brand of shame to every man caught prostituting public office.

What we have felt to be lacking in this whole business, from the beginning, is a resolute and uncompromising tone on the part of the responsible authorities. In so far as the President suffers from having an evasive and shirking Postmaster-General, when he should have a perfect *malleus hereticorum* for this emergency, the fault is his own. He chose a man for the office, purely as a politician, not as an administrator. While Mr. Payne was devoting all his energies to making smooth the path of renomination, fraud and cheating flourished in the Department which it was his first business to keep in order. This blow to the Administration is not, therefore, undeserved; there is even a sort of poetic justice in the sight of Roosevelt the reformer, who has undoubtedly done a great deal for the improvement of the public service, now embarrassed by misdeeds in a Department which he sacrificed to political demands. It shows how quick Satan is to catch a saint tripping. The pleasant vices of a reformer become whips to scourge him. But the President can yet clear his own skirts if he will insist upon the most unrelenting and open pursuit of every implicated official. To "mismanage trifles" has been said to be the cause of wars and of the loss of battles. The Post-office scandals are no trifle, but they have been greatly mismanaged thus far. It is for the President to see to it that the truth is brought out, no matter whom it may hurt, and the guilty men punished, whether it harms the party or not. Nothing can so harm it as the Postmaster-General's course of leniency and suppression.

INCORPORATING TRADE UNIONS.

A bill is pending in the Legislature of Connecticut for the incorporation of trade unions. Besides giving opportunity for associations of workingmen to be incorporated, if they so desire, it provides that thirty days' notice must be given of an intended strike on any railway, or public-service corporation, such as a gas, or electric light, or power company. The need of such legislation was strongly suggested by the action taken by Judge Adams in the Wabash Railway case, in which the court granted a temporary injunction against strikers, without any law, but simply on the ground that irreparable harm would be done to whole communities if the movement of trains should be interrupted. The injunction was obeyed by the strikers, and when the differences between the railway company and its employees came up for hearing, the injunction was dissolved. The strikers were then free to retire from the company's service, but they decided not to do so, the interval having been wisely used to effect a compromise. In this case everything that could have been done by the court, if the employees had been incorporated as a company, was done without incorporation; and there are men of repute in the legal profession who hold that it would be of little, if any, advantage to employers to have a law passed compelling trade unions to become incorporated, even if such a law should be Constitutional. If an incorporated company has a fund in its treasury, damages can be collected from it in certain cases; but since the amount on hand at any given time would be at the discretion of the officers, the amount of damages collectible would be within their own control.

In the first number of the *Monthly Review* of the National Civic Federation, Mr. James A. Miller, Chairman of the Legal Committee of the Building Contractors' Council of Chicago, discusses this question from the employer's standpoint, and holds that the latter has all the law that he needs now. What is wanted is not more laws, but the enforcement of what we already have. If what we now have cannot be enforced because judges, governors, and sheriffs fear the "labor vote," what, he asks, is the use of enacting more laws of the same kind?

This number of the *Review* of the Federation contains a symposium on the question, "Should Unions Incorporate?" There are fifty-four participants in the discussion. Every possible view of the subject is presented. The papers are necessarily brief, but in general they are well written from the standpoint of the respective authors. Most, but not all, of the labor leaders who take part are opposed to the incorporation of trade unions. Mr. Samuel Gompers tells us that there is already a law of Congress for such incorporation if the unions desire to avail themselves of it. He advises that they should not do so, although he thinks that the men who caused it to be enacted thought that they were doing a real service to organized labor. He thinks that the judiciary is often prejudiced against labor organizations, and that if the latter had money within reach of an execution issued from the bench, they would suffer in damages oftener than they do now. Mr. Henry White, General Secretary of the Garment Workers, concurs in this view. On the other hand, Mr. Henry Grossman, President of the Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, tells us that his organization actually is incorporated, and has found it much easier to defeat claims of employers for damages caused by members than other trade unions not incorporated. This experience bears out the opinion of Mr. Miller of the Chicago Building Council already cited. Mr. E. E. Clark of the Railway Conductors' Order is not disposed to take a stand either for or against the incorporation of trade unions, but is against compulsory incorporation.

On the latter question Mr. Levi Mayer, general counsel of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, maintains that a trade union cannot be forced to incorporate. In support of his views he quotes Chancellor Kent and several court decisions, and Angell & Ames on Corporations. But if they could be thus forced, he holds that incorporation would not make the members of a union more responsible than they are at present, except as the union might possess property. Plainly the mere act of incorporation of a body of men united not for the purpose of pecuniary profit would not ordinarily create any more financial responsibility than previously existed, on the part of the individuals composing it.

Mr. F. H. Cook, attorney-at-law, New York, points out that under the law of this State an unincorporated society of seven or more persons may be sued in the name of its president or treasurer, and that the judgment so obtained binds the property of the society. Therefore, the principle of the Taff Vale decision already prevails here. Mr. F. J. Stimson of Boston, author of 'Government by Injunction,' agrees that the Taff Vale decision lays down no new principle of law. In this view Mr. John De Witt Warner concurs. He does not, however, advise trade unions to incorporate. Mr. John Brooks Leavitt, on the other hand, does so advise. His reason is, that he thinks that incorporation would have a steadying influence upon the unions and bring their most conservative and cool-headed men to the front. The Taff Vale decision, he says, "simply applied to labor organizations the same law which has, for many years, been appplied to other unincorporated bodies." Professor Farnam of Yale is of the opinion that incorporation would add to the feeling of responsibility which the leaders would be governed by, and would be desirable in that sense. President Eliot is not in favor of compulsory incorporation of trade unions, even if it were feasible, because incorporation is essentially a privilege and not a duty.

COPYRIGHT IMPROVEMENT.

In the current number of the *American Law Review* is printed the address recently delivered before the Maine State Bar Association by Mr. Samuel J. Elder of Boston, on what he styles "Our

Archaic Copyright Laws." Mr. Elder points out many directions in which he believes our present copyright statutes should be amended. The substitution of a single term of protection for the present double term is recommended in order to do away with the requirement of a second registration of title and deposit of copies, and with the opportunities which the renewal term offers for unnecessary and delicate complications between the author and his assignee. A longer period of protection, also, is favored, and it is pointed out that Mr. Edward Everett Hale has already outlived the copyright of some of his earlier works, and that James Russell Lowell's earliest copyrights expired during his lifetime. The English method, Mr. Elder thinks, is preferable, namely, to grant protection during the life of the author and for seven years beyond, or for forty-two years from first publication—whichever is the longer term.

A simplification of the procedure as regards registration and deposit in the case of newspapers is advocated, and the protection, which should be secured by the fact of publication alone, "ought to be temporarily extended beyond the mere language in which the news is stated." As great expense is incurred by the Press Association and individual papers in procuring news, "the news itself, the facts stated, should be protected, and not merely the literary vehicle in which it is conveyed," but only for a brief period of time; the public should be entitled shortly after publication to the full use of all news material. Improved legislation taking into account the natural differentiation between books and plays is advocated; and the penal clauses for unlawful representation, involving possible imprisonment, are deprecated and ascribed to the influence of the "theatrical trust." The general lack of harmony in the provisions of the statutes as to infringement and the penalties imposed are dwelt upon, and it is insisted that "the whole system, in the light of its interpretation by the courts, calls for revision."

Mr. Elder has concerned himself mainly, however, with the statutory formalities upon exact compliance with which, under the provisions of our laws, copyright protection rests. He traces the development of these from the English act of Queen Anne (1709) through the copyright legislation of the original States and the various Federal enactments to date, showing how the formalities of registration of title, deposit of copies, and printing of copyright notice have become conditions precedent to obtaining and maintaining the copyright; and he inveighs against these provisions as "so many traps for the feet of the unwary," by which "the person entitled to be secured may be deprived of all protection by the most trifling slip for which he may not be, and usually is not, in any degree responsible." Notable examples are given of cases involving the loss of copyright protection under the decisions of the courts, by reason of failure to comply exactly with the statutes as to registration, deposit of copies, and proper printing of the notice of copyright. Thus, in the case of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table,' the copyright was lost because it could not be proved that copies of the *Atlantic Monthly* in which it first appeared were duly deposited. The copies of Gottsberger's expensive edition of 'The Ebers Gallery' (sold at about sixty dollars) were detained in the express office until the express charges could be collected, and hence not delivered at the Library of Congress within the statutory time, and this delay led to the loss of the copyright. The misprinting of the year date by a single year in the notice of copyright has been held to invalidate the right. The printing of Mrs. Stowe's 'The Minister's Wooing' with a notice of copyright in the author's name before the last chapters of the book appeared in a number of the *Atlantic Monthly* bearing notice of copyright in the name of the publishers, was held to constitute a variance which created a fatal defect. On the other hand, 'The Professor at the Breakfast Table' having been brought to completion in the *Atlantic Monthly* which contained a notice of copyright in the name of the publishers, subsequent publication of the work with a notice of copyright in the name of the author was held to be equally fatal. In effect, an author may be entirely at the mercy of a mailing clerk in some publisher's office, so that if the title is overlooked and does not reach the copyright office before publication, the work of years may lose protection, while the failure of a shipping clerk to see that the copies of the book go seasonably forward to Washington may destroy a publishing right of great value. "It is absurd and wicked," Mr. Elder exclaims, "that a slip of a clerk or binder, or a mistake of the author, publisher, or printer, should utterly destroy all copyright protection!"

The additional prerequisite that books copyrighted must be "printed from type set within the limits of the United States, or from plates made therefrom," Mr. Elder explains, was inserted in the International Copyright bill because it could not be passed without this proviso. The opposition of the typographical unions throughout the country, which feared that the proposed legislation might transfer the setting up and printing of many books to foreign countries, would have been fatal to the passage of the act. The agitation for international copyright had continued fifty years without success, and it was thought best by nearly all friends of the cause to yield the point rather than lose the measure. He acknowledges that much severe criticism has been made upon this part of the act, and, by way of exemplifying the ground of such criticism, states that a recent publication which had been set up and printed in England entailed an expense of upwards of $40,000 for resetting and electrotyping in this country. "The American market, however, is so vast and so profitable," according to Mr. Elder, "that the expense is not prohibitive," and it is now, at all events, he concludes, "too late to consider any change in that branch of the statute."

His conclusions may be thus summarized: that there is need of revision and simplification of the law of literary and artistic property; that as it is the securing of an existing right, and not the creating of a new one, for which the law makes provision, as a corollary the law should liberally protect and not fetter, hamper, or in any case defeat the right. "The basis on which our copyright provisions rest is erroneous. It being true that the author's right of property results from his labor, genius, and ingenuity, and that protection was intended to be secured to him because of his dedication of his work to the public, there is no reason why the security itself should be imperilled by a variety of technicalities, or why the value of the work should be frittered away in litigation on questions which have nothing to do with the real work of ownership." Finally, Mr. Elder contends that "the law requires adaptation to modern conditions. It is no longer possible to summarize it in a few sections covering every thing copyrightable. It should be revised so that protection to the honest literary worker, artist, or designer shall be simple and certain."

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY MEETING.

WASHINGTON, April 23, 1903.

The session of the National Academy of Sciences, which has just been brought to a close, has been one of unusually varied interest. From the point of view of utility to human life, the most important paper was one by Dr. Weir Mitchell, in which he announced the acquisition of an antidote to the poison of the rattlesnake. It was many years ago that Dr. Mitchell originated the theory, soon demonstrated by himself and Dr. Reuchert, that the venoms of the cobra and of the rattlesnake, though they appear at first sight to be as different as possible in their effects, have the same qualitative composition. The bite of the cobra is almost always promptly fatal, without much local soreness or swelling. The victim dies before any such symptoms can manifest themselves. The bite of the rattlesnake is not usually fatal; but frightful swelling ensues, followed by a breaking down of the health, from which the person may not recover for years, or not at all—phenomena only too well known in those parts of our country where the *Crotalus* abounds. Yet both venoms are mixtures of the same two in different proportions. One of these is a nerve poison, acting, roughly

speaking, like strychnine. If it does not kill promptly, its effects pass off, the matter is eliminated from the system, and that is the end of it. This constitutes nine-tenths of the cobra venom. An antidote for it has been known for some time. The other constituent, which is predominant in the poison of the rattlesnake, acts like a zymotic poison, dissolves some of the fine tissues of the blood cells and its vessels, and in particular destroys the resistance of the blood to bacterial poisons generally. It does not kill at once, but brings about fearful lesions, and lays the system open to all sorts of malignant influences. It is against this poison that Dr. Flexner of Philadelphia, a well-known student of Dr. Weir Mitchell, has succeeded in finding a protective serum which has been tested upon guinea-pigs and other animals, and whose practical efficacy has been demonstrated.

Of a widely different kind of practical interest was a paper by Mr. Alexander Graham Bell, describing an invention applicable particularly to the construction of kites. The idea seems to have been a corollary from a remark of Professor Newcomb to the effect that since the weight of a flying machine of given shape would be proportional to the cube of a linear dimension, while the area of the supporting planes would be proportional to the square only of that dimension, the smaller a flying machine of given shape, the greater would be its proportional lifting-power. From this it would seem to follow that a flying machine or a kite ought to be built up of small independent elements. In order to obtain the greatest three-dimensional stability, the eminent inventor gives to each of the elements out of which the structure of a kite is to be built up the form of a regular tetrahedron or triangular pyramid, formed of six equal bars. He calls attention to this tetrahedral form of elementary framework as recommending itself by its extraordinary stiffness and lightness, not merely for kites, but wherever framework is to be used. It would certainly seem to merit the attention of engineers. Mr. Bell forms a larger tetrahedral element of structure by connecting four such tetrahedral frames so that their bars shall be parallel, leaving an octahedral vacancy between them; and with numbers of such larger tetrahedra he builds various kinds of structures for which lightness and three-dimensional stiffness are needed. In particular, by stretching membranes over all the small triangles that are parallel to two of the triangles of one of the smallest elements, he obtains a kite which experience has proved to be a very light flyer. Photographs were exhibited showing kites built up in several ways from such elements, and in actual flight.

Two distinct studies, of which accounts were given, seem to have been provoked chiefly by the extreme discordances which different determinations of melting-points often show. One of these, by the celebrated chemist, Prof. J. M. Crafts, had been directed towards a more accurate method for the measurement of temperatures up to about 400° C. The proposal was to observe directly the vapor tension of naphthalene, which boils at 218° C., of benzophenone, which boils at 306° C., or of mercury, which boils at 360° C., according to the temperature whose ascertainment might be desired. This method would require, as a preliminary, a very accurate series of experiments to be made, once for all, in order to ascertain the tensions of those vapors at different temperatures. The other study, by Mr. Arthur L. Day, who was introduced by Dr. Becker, and who explained the matter with admirable perspicuity and most agreeable delivery, related to the phenomena of the heating and cooling of anhydrous borax, as the beginning of an investigation into the melting-points of rock-forming minerals.

It appears that if a body with a sharply definite melting-point, such as silver, be allowed to cool, under constant conditions, from a temperature considerably above the melting-point, the cooling proceeds regularly, though at a slightly diminishing rate, until solidification sets in, when its temperature suddenly becomes fixed until the entire mass is solidified; after which the cooling begins again at somewhat the same rate as before. Analogous phenomena are observed when the body is heated from the solid condition. But when borax melted to a thin liquid is allowed to cool to a glass, the only hitherto known form of solid anhydrous borax, the cooling is continuous and without any particular irregularity from beginning to end, the heat of solidification being gradually evolved as the borax cools; and the same phenomenon appears when the glass is melted. If, however, the molten borax during the process of cooling, and while at any temperature between 741° C. and 490° C., be jarred or subjected to other influences which usually induce crystallization, a very marked retardation of the cooling will at once ensue, no matter at what temperature between those limits the jarring or whatever agency it be takes place; and what results after the cooling will be found to consist of a mass of crystals, a hitherto unknown form of this salt. If, now, anhydrous borax in this new crystalline form be heated again, it will be found to behave like silver, having a perfectly definite melting-point at 741° C. Quietly cooled, it will be reconverted into the vitreous form, or, if sufficiently shaken at any point below the melting-point of the crystalline form and above 490°C., it can be recrystallized. Below the latter temperature the vitreous form becomes incapable of crystallization by any means that could be employed. These facts suggest a probable explanation of the discrepancies in the observed melting-points of rock-forming minerals, although there is no reason to suppose that all the large disagreements in determinations of melting-points are thus to be accounted for.

Prof. Crafts gave, besides, another instalment of his researches into the catalysis of concentrated solutions—researches which ought to excite a lively interest among the higher physicists, and doubtless do so. Two other chemical papers were extremely interesting. One of these, it is true, was merely historical, being an account, by Professor Barker, of the researches of the late Mathew Carey Lea chiefly into the mode of action of light in photography, showing how patience and genius had, after a long chase of elusive facts, finally led that admirable chemist to run down the so-called photosalts. Some beautiful specimens of Carey Lea's allotropic silver prepared by him were shown at the meeting. Pure silver of the color of gold, and pure silver approaching the color of copper, are very suggestive sights in view of the chemical relationship of these three metals; silver being intermediate between the other two in chemistry as it is in trade. There was also a whole sunset of gradations between the golden-colored silver and a soluble silver of a purple hue. Another paper by Prof. Barker refuted last year's assertion of Hoffmann and Zerbann that thorium owes its radioactivity (or unceasing emanation of peculiar rays) to admixtures of uranium, thus advancing our understanding of that subject by one essential step. But the interest of this particular point was quite absorbed in that of Dr. Barker's clear account of the whole history of research into radioactivity, beginning with the discovery of the Becquerel rays in 1896.

It appears that the radioactive elements are four: thorium (which has the highest atomic weight of any known element), radium (whose atomic weight has been ascertained to be about 225), polonium, and actinium (both of unknown atomic weights). Specimens of the salts of the first three were exhibited. Actinium has never gone out of the laboratory, where alone it has been found. The radiations of these bodies are of three different kinds. The simplest, known as the β-rays, consist of those particles a thousand of which are said to compose an atom of hydrogen. They are shot out with a velocity of the same order as that of the propagation of light, and are charged with negative electricity. Others, known as the α-rays, consist of relatively large and heavy particles, of slower motion and positively charged. The third kind, known as the γ-rays are remarkable for their penetrative power, their intensity not being reduced as much as one-half by passing through three inches of metallic aluminium. In some of the exhibits they had so shone through a brass stencil-plate that the letters could not be made out on the photographs. The radiations are all invisible, but there are two ways of recognizing them. They can be photographed, and, by rendering the air a conductor of electricity, they discharge any pair of oppositely charged bodies between which they pass in a suitable way. Two of the radioactive bodies—to wit, radium and thorium—seem to emit effluvia, which have the property of rendering any bodies they reach radioactive; so that, after a long course of experimentation, Professor and Mme. Curie found that the furniture of the room and even their own persons had become so radioactive that it was impossible to make any use of an electroscope, and their work had to be suspended. Polonium has no such power of exciting secondary radioactivity; nor has uranium. Professor Barker exhibited photographs which, in view of the circumstances under which they were taken, conclusively proved thorium to be primarily radioactive when entirely free from uranium.

Of the remaining papers, the one most generally interesting was that of Mr. George E. Hale of the Yerkes Observatory, giving an account of his work with his spectro-heliograph, for which the Academy at this meeting voted him the Draper medal, and for which he received this month the Rumford medal of the Boston Academy. It would be impossible to give much idea of this elaborate work without fine engrav-

ings, for which we can only refer to the magazines; they will doubtless do justice to it. We must limit ourselves to saying that Dr. Hale has found means to photograph, all over the face of the sun, a particular stratum, or rather two distinct strata, of the lower part of the chromosphere, which is that outer rind of the sun whose splashes or eruptions, whichever they may be, produce the red prominences visible to the naked eye in total eclipses.

A paper by Mr. Lewis Boss, a model of skilful manipulation of a vast mass of numerical data, showed precisely the effect of differences of brightness of stars in accelerating or retarding the observed times of their transits. A very elaborate and meritorious study of the tides of the northern Indian ocean, by Mr. R. A. Harris of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, who was introduced by Prof. Cleveland Abbe, gave evidence that the Survey, under its present management, is not forgetting the obligations entailed upon it by its scientific past. *Noblesse oblige.* The reading of a biographical memoir of T. E. Holbrook by Dr. Theodore Gill, the eminent ichthyologist, closed the proceedings very appropriately with a handshake between science and human life. Dr. Holbrook was a South Carolinian, who died at a good age during the war of the Rebellion. He was an ichthyologist of the finest scientific quality, well known to Louis Agassiz, to Jeffries Wyman and a few more, but known to very few even of the scientific world. Forty years after his death the National Academy reads, as it were, the "Siste, viator," and drops a tear over the monument that Dr. Gill sets up over him. As usual, in the hurry of the meeting, a number of good papers went unread.

The Academy added five regular members to their number: Chamberlin of Chicago, geologist; James of Harvard, psychologist; Thurston of Cornell, engineer; Webster of Clark University, mathematical physicist; and Mark of Harvard, biologist. It also elected the following foreign associates: Picard of Paris, Marey of Paris, Backlund of Pulkova, J. J. Thomson of Cambridge, Brögger of Christiania, Ray Lankester of London, Vogel of Potsdam, Pfeffer of Leyden, Mendeléef of Petersburg, Zirkel, the petrographer, and Koch of Berlin. The next meeting will be held in Chicago, beginning November 17.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

April 22, 1903.

To present and discuss in little more than twelve hours nearly sixty papers, to the reading of each of which were alloted fifteen minutes, was the awkward task set before the Oriental Society at its one hundred and fifteenth meeting, held in Baltimore on the 16th-18th of this month. As was to be expected, some of the papers took more than the scanty measure of time allowed, some were read by title or were briefly described, and some were good-naturedly suppressed. What wealth of wisdom was contained in those thus withdrawn will be discovered when they are printed. To sketch even cursorily the contents of those actually presented requires all the space that can be given to the present report of the meeting. The Society, not being distracted by rival attractions, such as at times disturb associations meeting in the hurly-burly week of festivities and general convocation, held together, and the sessions, five in number, were well attended. A very agreeable feature was the intrusion of an informal sixth session (in the shape of a luncheon and smoker at the house of President Gilman) between the formal morning and afternoon sessions of the second day. The hospitality of the University itself, of the Johns Hopkins and University Clubs, and of private hosts, added to the comfort of the unusually large number of attending members, while the weather, at first anything but oriental, became at last almost springlike. So persuasive were the sun and the voice of the pleader that the Society indulged for the first time in the amusement of being photographed; though some point was given to this performance by the recollection that the picture would serve as a memorial of the Society's sixtieth birthday. For the A. O. S. is almost the oldest "learned body" in this country. Apropos of these facts, it is pertinent, by the way, to bring to the attention of the public the action of a book-selling concern in New York, which calls itself "The Oriental Society," and sends out advertising letters signed by "The Oriental Society, F. Cooper, Secretary." It also gives itself the title "Oriental Society of London," and may be a bona-fide English society, though it appears to be merely a business firm. It has, of course, no connection with the American Oriental Society.

Of the fifty-nine papers presented in one way or another, those on Semitic subjects were in the majority, and several of these touched on topics more or less familiar to the laity. Hammurabi and Moses, the former recently introduced to the public by the German Emperor, furnished the subject-matter of two independent papers by Professor Jastrow and Professor Johnston, respectively. The latter scholar instanced the similar phraseology of the *lex talionis* in the codes of both lawgivers, and from this and similar parallels concluded that, as Israel passed from a nomadic state into the condition of a settled people in a district under the influence of Hammurabi, there could be as little doubt whence the Hebrews got their code as there is in regard to the source of their myths. Professor Jastrow set the date of Hammurabi at *c.* 2250 B. C., the definitive character of this date being especially important in view of the recent rehabilitation of other dates before and after this epoch. Nine hundred to a thousand years are now cut off from periods assumed as certain a decade ago. Professor Jastrow inclined to the opinion that the influence exerted upon the pentateuchal code was less specifically Hammurabi's than generally Babylonian. Courts of procedure and an established legal system must have existed before Hammurabi. But the latter's code, in its cruelty and in other regards, is more antique than that of Moses. In the discussion that followed, Dr. Ward expressed the opinion that Hammurabi unified not the religious, but the civil law. Dr. Ward himself contributed a paper on representations of Ea and Shamash. In identifying Babylonian gods, there are certain types easily recognized, while others are obscure. A seated god with a notched sword and with rays coming from the shoulders is the sun-god Shamash; a god not seated, but standing, with streams of water, may represent Ea, the god of water and wisdom.

Of more esoteric character was an exhaustive paper by Professor Moore on the liver in sacrifice. The importance of the *caput* in divination was shown, and the relation of the parts of the liver was sketched in diagrams. Besides other more technical Semitic papers—by Professor Hyvernat, on the interpretation of Genesis vi. 14; by Dr. Arnold, on a Hebrew phrase; by the Rev. Mr. McPherson, on Is. xxviii. 25 (*sôrah* and *nismân* as kinds of grain), and by others—Professor Price described a pearl cylinder of 2000 B. C.; Professor Torrey exhibited some Jewish inscribed weights from Jerusalem; Dr. Bliss, recently returned from Beirut, spoke of six jar handles (*c.* 650 B. C.) marked with royal stamps and discovered by him in Palestine; Professor Prince gave a translation of the Sumerian Belit hymn, K. 257, than which, in his opinion, "there is no better example of henotheism merging into monotheism"; and Professor Haupt, in a paper on David's dirge on the death of Saul and Jonathan, maintained that there were no pre-exilic hymns and no real psalms of David.

An important paper on religious development was that of Professor Jastrow on the national Assyrian god Ashur. Hammurabi's code speaks only of protecting deities restored to the city of A-usar, the god not being named, which indicates that this title originally referred to the district. On the other hand, *ashur* (meaning 'beneficent' or 'saviour') was originally an epithet of the god who was contributed to the Babylonian pantheon by Assyria, where, in contrast to the Babylonian triad, Anu, Bel, Ea, this divine lord paramount made for monotheism. Possibly in Babylon there was a confusion between the form of this name and that of *asari*, Marduk. This was one of the papers read at the Friday afternoon session, devoted to comparative religion. The first place on this occasion was given to the maiden effort of a new member, Miss Margaretta Morris of Philadelphia, who, in a rapid survey, discussed the development of religion from the point of view of sociology, her theme being that the idealization of the useful explains religious modifications. Dr. Gilman, who at this meeting was for the tenth time reëlected President of the Society, spoke the same afternoon on aspects of the archæological researches proposed to the Carnegie Institution, and mentioned that several scholars, among them Prof. Seymour in the interest of Greek archæology, were already afield for preliminary surveys of work which hereafter might be aided by the Carnegie Institution. In conclusion he remarked that the funds of the Institution were not sufficient to carry out half the plans submitted to it by various other institutions, and begged the public to have patience, and remember that every plan of work must be carefully considered before action was taken.

On the same afternoon was read a letter from Professor Jackson, written in Persia, on local devil-worship, a few first-hand additions to what was previously known about the Yezîdîs; and the Rev. Mr. Oussani described the mourning rites of Arabia. A curious link between the Middle Ages and the present was suggested by the former American Consul at Bagdad, Dr. Sundberg, who gave from personal experience an account of the Salibiyeh, a little known

tribe of the Arabian desert. Dr. Sundberg made friends with them years ago. He reports that they are the only tribe whose music is European in character, and what they call their "mark" is the cross, though they attach no meaning to the symbol. Their traditions point to their being aliens who came from afar, and Dr. Sundberg believes that they are the last remnants of stranded Crusaders. They refuse to drink coffee, "because they might learn to like it, and then, failing to obtain it, would be the more unhappy." Professor Haupt concluded the "religions session" with a paper on Bible and Babel, pointing out that Delitzsch's famous address contained nothing new, and that only the Emperor's own interest in the subject gave the matter its present prominence. Professor Haupt took the usual conservative attitude of the devout scholar who, undismayed by the results of higher criticism—a term objected to by the Rev. Mr. Ramsey, who offered as a substitute "genetic criticism"—believes that the question of *Prioritätsrecht* is not one to disturb the Christian. The source of Biblical mythology—the cherubim, for example, being originally storm and winds, as the seraphim are serpentine lightning-flashes — does not really affect that which is essential in religion; a view that seemed to give the usual satisfaction afforded by this convenient expression.

Professor Prince's review of recent excavations in Babylon was perhaps the most drastic paper ever read before the Society, which as a rule expresses a difference of opinion in notes sedulously attuned to universal harmony. Yet in this case also there was no lack of unanimity; only it was voiced in emphatic disapprobation of the recently published work called 'Explorations in Bible Lands,' which Professor Prince stigmatized as unfair in so many particulars as to necessitate public correction. The author of this book, Professor Hilprecht, ignores, or mentions only with haughty contempt, the good work of scholars who preceded him, and in ridiculing his former superior violates every canon of scientific criticism. What is valuable in his book, said Professor Prince, is so buried under egotism as not to be recognizable. Professor Price fully endorsed this expression of opinion, and Professor Moore summed up the general condemnation in the sentence: "It is a book no American can read without being ashamed." After this the Society took a rest, and enjoyed the lunch and smoker at President Gilman's, where American relations with the Orient were informally discussed by scholars well able to throw light on several interesting points, not the least of which was the question of the present attitude of the Vatican toward American control in the Philippines. Without violating the confidential character of the remarks made, it may be said that the recently appointed rector of the Catholic University of America expressed it as his opinion that no better man than Judge Taft could be found for the work to be done in the Philippines. "Broad-minded and conciliatory," he is just the man for the place, and affairs there "are adjusting themselves in a perfectly satisfactory manner."

Apropos of our islands, linguistic papers on Tagálog were not lacking at this meeting. One, by Dr. Blake, discussed Sanskrit words in Tagálog; and one, by Mr. Seiple, treated of Tagálog numerals; while Dr. Scott dissected the languages of the Philippines and gave a list of Philippine words in English. Dr. Blake instanced as a curious corruption *lingo*, 'week,' from *domingo* (Sunday), and derived Manila from *nīla* (Sanskrit, 'dark blue'), 'indigo-trees,' and *may*, 'having.' The Sanskrit word for poet, *kavi*, means 'jargon' in Tagálog! Before adjourning, the Society appointed Dr. Gilman, Mr. Rockhill, and others a committee to make to the President of the United States such representation as they may think proper concerning the survey of the Philippine Islands.

Contributions on the Sanskrit side were offered by several members. Professor Lanman presented to the society a finished copy of the annotated Atharva Veda, long ago begun by Professor Whitney. At the close of his commemorative address, others expressed appreciation of Professor Lanman's own expenditure of strength and time on the elaboration and perfection of this work. Professor Whitney left a complete translation of the Veda, and it might have been published at once. The value of this, however, Professor Lanman has greatly enhanced by adding a very complete critical apparatus. A description of the first book of the same Veda, according to the Kashmir text lately photographed (as described in the report of the last meeting), was presented by Mr. Barret, while Professor Bloomfield, in a paper on the genesis of the Sāma Veda, defended the thesis that the Sāman owes its ejaculatory characteristics to its Shamanistic nature, the latter being a hypothesis based on Oldenberg's hypothesis of the ogre-origin of Indra. The temporal ablative in Sanskrit formed the subject of an investigation by Professor Hopkins into the real value of the temporal character of cases in Vedic and Epic Sanskrit. Indo-European philology was represented by two papers, one by Professor Collitz on the status of the *ā*-declension, which he derived from an *āy*-type, thus being enabled to draw a parallel to the earlier (Vedic) *ī*-declension. Stated in terms of classical philology, this is equivalent to deriving the first Latin declension from the fifth; but Professor Collitz's contention affects only the pro-ethnic forms. Another Indo-European paper was presented by Professor Oertel, who combated the conclusions of Knudtzon, recently reviewed in the *Nation* (March 5), contending that the evidence was insufficient to warrant the assumption of the "Arzawa language" being either Indo-European or Semitic, and that the former was certainly not represented on the Tel el-Amarna tablets.

So this report is brought around to Egypt, represented at the meeting by papers on Egyptian stone implements and the transliteration of Egyptian by Mr. J. T. Dennis, and on recent papyrus finds in Egypt by Mr. Seiple; while Coptic words in modern Egyptian Arabic were discussed by Dr. Littmann. China was not on the programme, but, as Professor Hirth was elected a member of the Society, it may be hoped that before long this deficiency in the annual list of papers may be made good. After an exceptionally pleasant meeting the Society adjourned, to meet again on April 7, 1904, in Washington, D. C.

MADAME DE STAËL AND NAPOLEON. —III.

PARIS, April 9, 1903.

We left Mme. de Staël in Vienna. Before returning to Coppet, in the beginning of 1808, she made a pilgrimage to Weimar. How changed she found everything! Weimar had been pillaged; the Grand Duke had been forced to enter the Confederation of the Rhine, and to pay a war contribution of 2,200,000 francs; the Grand Duchess, worn with emotion, was ill; Schiller was dead. Mme. de Staël had more personal troubles: she found in Switzerland Benjamin Constant married to Charlotte von Hardenberg, who, having lost her first husband and divorced the second, had chosen Constant for her third. She was neither handsome, nor intelligent, nor virtuous.

Auguste de Staël, who was only seventeen years old, made a visit to Napoleon at Chambéry, in order to obtain for his mother permission to go to Paris. The Emperor received him kindly, talked with him for nearly an hour, and told him that he looked upon his mother as a woman "who was accustomed to no sort of subordination," and he meant above all to be obeyed. In Paris, she could not help "making pleasantries." "She attaches no importance to them, but I do; I take everything seriously. Your mother would not be six months in Paris before I should be forced to send her to Bicêtre or to the Temple; I should be sorry to do that, for it would make some noise, and it would hurt me a little in public opinion." He added that, with the exception of Paris, she could go wherever she liked. "It is only your mother who finds herself unhappy when all Europe is left to her." In reality, in 1808, she could not travel easily, and was obliged to remain at Coppet.

A great movement was beginning in Europe, tending to a coalition against Napoleon; the Spanish war was the turning of the tide. Madame de Staël was under the eye of the French police; her friends hardly dared to make her rare visits. She felt so unhappy that at one time she resolved to go to America with her son Auguste. In April, 1810, she left Coppet with a passport for the United States; she went to Lyons, where she saw Camille Jordan, and from there to the Château de Chaumont, on the Loire, where she stayed, waiting for the proprietor, M. Le Ray, who was on his way from America. At Chaumont, Madame de Staël was soon surrounded by a sort of court—Mathieu de Montmorency, Elzéar de Sabran, Barante, Schlegel, Benjamin Constant, Mme. Récamier; she invited many people to come and see her. When she paid an occasional visit to Blois, people stood before the door to get a sight of the famous woman. When M. Le Ray, the proprietor of Chaumont, came back, she left Chaumont and went to the Château de Fossé, where, unconscious of danger, she corrected the proofs of her book on Germany. She was very happy there with Madame Récamier, and renounced the idea of going to America.

From Fossé she went to a house near Blois belonging to her friend, Mathieu de Montmorency. It was there that she received the order, signed by the Duke de Rovigo (who had replaced Fouché in the Ministry of Police), to leave, within forty-eight hours, either for Geneva or for Coppet, or

for a seaport where she could take passage for America. The prefect who executed the will of the Duke de Rovigo had also orders to take possession of the manuscript and the proof sheets of 'L'Allemagne.' Whatever was ready for publication was at the same time seized in the house of her publisher in Paris, Nicolle. The manuscript was saved by Auguste de Staël, a few hours before it was to be seized. Madame de Staël was away when the order of exile came; the prefect, M. de Corbigny, allowed her a few days in which to make her preparations. Madame de Staël, who always hoped against hope, tried again to use the influence of her numerous friends. She asked for an audience of the Emperor, which was peremptorily refused. Napoleon would not believe in the submission of Madame de Staël, and answered those who promised it with the Italian proverb, "Passato il pericolo, gabbato il santo."

Madame de Staël took again the road to Coppet. The real reason of her exile was the fear which was felt of her book, 'L'Allemagne.' Every precaution was taken to prevent its publication.

"The book," says M. Paul Gautier, "in the thought of its author essentially a weapon, political as much as literary, a hardly concealed attack against the Empire, against the spirit of the Empire, against the France of the Empire; a generous book, full of pity for the oppressed, of hatred against the oppressor, animated by the purest and highest sentiments; novel in many respects, abounding in observation, in fine and exact details on the German character, on German literature; a book also of candid enthusiasm, full of grave errors and strange illusions on the state of Germany at the time, on the true nature of the Germans, their patriotism, their spirit of revenge, their hatred, on all those dangerous forces which the author does not seem to suspect and the explosion of which was so near; a book, in short, of which all the tendencies, moral, social, political, literary even, were made to shock, to irritate Napoleon—such is the 'De l'Allemagne' of Madame de Staël. It remains the most audacious monument which has been opposed to the power of a man, against the spirit of that man."

On her return to Coppet, in the last days of October, 1810, Madame de Staël entered into a sort of mystic phase; she made the acquaintance of Madame de Krüdener, of Zacharias Werner, who was preaching the "religion of holy love." She kept up, however, a sort of perpetual warfare with Capelle, the prefect of Geneva, who had replaced the amiable Barante. Capelle became afterwards a minister of Charles X., but he was a severe imperialist in 1810. Madame Récamier, who tried to see her friend, was exiled herself. M. de Montmorency was not allowed to go to Coppet. All the letters addressed to Madame de Staël were opened.

It was at the end of 1810 that Madame de Staël made the acquaintance at Geneva of a young officer, Jean Rocca, who belonged to an old Italian family which had established itself in Switzerland. Rocca had served in the Peninsular campaign, and had been severely wounded. He was handsome, and had about him something romantic; he was only twenty-three years old. Madame de Staël, who was already forty-four years old, fell in love with him. Rocca returned her affection, and they were married in secret, as she wished to preserve her name; they were even twice married—the first time at Coppet, the second time in Sweden. On the 17th of April, 1812, Madame de Staël gave birth to a child, a boy; the *liaison* with Rocca could no longer be concealed. The scandal was such that she left Coppet with Rocca, her daughter Albertine, and her eldest son, Auguste. The newly born child was confided to the care of a doctor, at Longirod, in the Jura. She went to Vienna, to Moravia, to Galicia, to Moscow. She wrote afterwards the details of her journey in 'Dix Ans d'Exil.' From Moscow she went to St. Petersburg, where she was triumphantly received. She there made the acquaintance of the famous Stein. She had two long interviews with the Emperor Alexander, and conversed with him on the interests of Europe. They talked on constitutional subjects, and, in her usual enthusiastic mood, she exclaimed, "Sire, your character is worth a constitution to your empire." Alexander answered her modestly: "If it were so, it would only be a happy accident." Alexander spoke to her with favor of Bernadotte, the "royal Prince of Sweden," knowing well that his words would not be lost. Alexander had twenty thousand men in Finland, and wished to join them to his army; but he desired at the same time to be guaranteed against aggression on the part of Sweden.

Madame de Staël arrived at Stockholm on September 24, 1812. A common hatred united her and Bernadotte; they had once together plotted against Napoleon when he was First Consul. Madame de Staël flattered the vanity of Bernadotte, calling him "the *true* hero of the century." She persuaded him that he alone could stop the Emperor in his career; that he might become the arbiter of Europe. She wrote a pamphlet which was published at Hamburg anonymously under the title, 'On the Continental System and its Relations with Sweden.' Schlegel accepted the paternity of the work, which was republished under his name, but there is little doubt that Madame de Staël was the real author. On the 20th of April, 1813, Bernadotte left for Stralsund, the headquarters of the Army of the North, accompanied by Schlegel and Albert de Staël, whom he had taken for aide-de-camp. Madame de Staël left for England with Auguste de Staël and Rocca. She was received with enthusiasm, and her salon was soon filled with members of the highest society. Everybody wished to see the great enemy of Napoleon—the Prince-Regent, the Queen, the Duchess of York, the Duke of Gloucester, Lords Lansdowne, Grey, Liverpool, Erskine, Wellesley, Holland, Byron, Castlereagh. She could not accustom herself to English life; she wrote to Schlegel: "You must be of this country to prefer it to all others."

The time was near when the power of Napoleon was to come to its end. The allies had crossed the Rhine, and France was invaded. Let us do justice to Madame de Staël: she did not triumph with the triumphant allies. She writes eloquently to Benjamin Constant: "Don't you see the danger of France? . . . I am like Gustavus Vasa: I have attacked Christian, but they have placed my mother on the ramparts. Is it the moment to speak ill of the French when the flames of Moscow threaten Paris?" And she adds, "Let God banish me from France rather than that I should go back to it by the help of foreigners." She returned to Paris, however, in the spring of 1815, not with the help of the allies; but she found Paris occupied by Germans, Russians, and Cossacks. She was well received by Louis XVIII., though he did not much like her. She saw all the representative men of Europe, all her old friends. When the news of the landing of Napoleon arrived, she was thunderstruck, but she was not deceived as to the result of the Emperor's bold enterprise. She told Lavalette, who remarked that the distance was great from the Gulf of Jouan to the Tuileries, "He will arrive—he will arrive; he will be here in a few days. I have no illusions." She left at once for Coppet.

When she saw Benjamin Constant, La Fayette, Sismondi rally round Napoleon, who had convened the Chambers and offered constitutional guarantees to the nation, she became reassured. She declared herself satisfied with the Constitution. King Joseph presented her son Auguste to Napoleon, who received him with much kindness. After Waterloo she returned to Paris. A new life began for her. M. Gautier abandons her at that point, and gives in his concluding chapter a remarkable résumé of the long war between the all-powerful Emperor and the woman who was "the empress of thought." She was eminently the representative of those *idéologues* whom Napoleon detested, being himself essentially the man of action, as Emerson has called him in one of his famous essays. The glory of Madame de Staël was in her uncontrollable belief in an ideal of justice, of liberty. She was an enthusiast, and in the end her enthusiasm triumphed over the iron will of her adversary; for Napoleon was upset by moral as much as by material forces.

Correspondence.

"BLIZZARD."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 8th instant your correspondent, Mr. Matthews, calls for "examples of *blizzard* in any sense previous to 1880"; and I would refer him to the following extract from Dr. Craven's 'Prison Life of Jefferson Davis' (New York, 1866), given on page 13 of that book:

"He had ridden right in on top of the Sixth Connecticut regiment, and our boys had given him what we called 'a blizzard.'"

In my army days I have heard the same expression to denote a fearful volley of musketry, which was the sense in which my old comrade, Dr. Craven, used it.

Another instance of the use of the word—and much earlier—is found in the *Massachusetts Gazette*, November 7, 1765, where "the ship Blizard, Robert Davis, Commander," is mentioned, the name of the vessel being spelled with one "z." From the fact that it was applied to a ship, I infer that the word originated among sailors.

Samuel A. Green.

Massachusetts Historical Society,
Boston, April 21, 1903.

Notes.

The first volume of thirty-eight of Messrs. Scribners' "Library of Art" will be Charles Holroyd's 'Michael Angelo Buonarroti.' The same firm will publish 'Letters of a Diplomat's Wife,' by Mary King Waddington.

'Studies in Contemporary Biography' is

the altered title of Mr. James Bryce's volume of biographical sketches just issued by Macmillan Co., who now announce for October 2 the appearance of Morley's Life of Gladstone.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have nearly ready 'The Solar System,' by Percival Lowell.

John Lane will shortly publish 'Walks in New England,' by Charles Goodrich Whiting, with numerous full-page photographic illustrations.

The Council of the Bibliophile Society of Boston have determined to pass from their nine-volume edition of Horace to a four-volume reissue of Dibdin's 'The Bibliomania' (1809-1843), with much retrenchment and free handling. Mr. William P. Cutter of the Library of Congress will contribute a bibliographical study of the most memorable prices brought at auction or private sale of notable books during the past two centuries.

Lemcke & Buechner invite orders for a Greek-German School Dictionary compiled by Prof. Dr. Herman Menge, and offering some features more extensive and thoroughgoing than school dictionaries commonly possess. The range of the vocabulary will cover several standard anthologies and Wilamowitz-Möllendorff's 'Lesebuch.' The eight parts will cost 75 pfennigs each.

The first general convention of the International Association of Scientific Academies held in Paris in April, 1901, assigned to three of its members, the Académie des Sciences and the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques of Paris and the Berlin Royal Academy of Sciences, the preliminary labor for a complete edition of the works of Leibniz. They have reached the conviction that the manuscripts and the rarer editions of the great philosopher are not yet sufficiently known, and have accordingly published an appeal addressed to libraries, archives, and specialists in general to furnish further material and data for this international edition. A list of questions has been prepared for all who are willing to act. A full report is to be made by the three societies to the next general convention of the Academies to be held in London in 1904.

"The Fireside Dickens," conjointly in course of publication by Chapman & Hall and Henry Frowde, has a homely aspect consistent with its title. The letterpress makes a "plain tale," with large type somewhat compacted, and there is an equally unpretentious green cloth cover with a hearth stamped upon it. The original illustrations by Cruikshank, "Phiz," and others, are reproduced once more. The attraction lies in the price of these handy volumes, which are very cheap indeed. There are to be twenty-two of them, and already we have 'Pickwick,' 'Sketches by Boz,' and 'Oliver Twist.' They can be purchased separately.

The Dent-Macmillan Thackeray proceeds with 'The Irish Sketch Book' and 'The Yellowplush Papers,' still under Mr. Walter Jerrold's auspices, with Mr. Brock's clever illustrations, more happy, on the whole, on Irish than on English ground.

Miss Margaret Warner Morley's 'Down North and Up Along' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) well deserved the second edition it has obtained at the end of three years. It is the story of the journey of two women from Digby, N. S., to the northern extremity of Cape Breton, related graphically and with delightful humor, with intelligent observation of nature, and with an optimism which sees beauty even in the Annapolis and Minas Basins at low tide. The Cape Breton itinerary was mostly off the beaten track, and stamps the book with originality; but no district visited is slighted, and at Grand Pré some history and some pretty historical reverie are indulged in. We could wish that between the two editions the author had repaired her omission to stop off at Annapolis, and to cross to the north shore of the Basin for a nearer view of that fine country, especially if in quest of apples; and again, that she might have crossed North Mountain from Grand Pré to glimpse the Bay of Fundy and the modest bayside bathing resorts. Her laborious drive through the wilds of Cape Breton might well, we should think, tempt the horseman to an easier excursion. We heartily commend the book as an unconventional guide to a region quite accessible, still primitive, extremely healthful, and abounding in fine scenery and grand historic associations.

Prof. James A. Harrison's 'Life and Letters of Edgar Allan Poe' in two volumes (Crowell) was thoroughly reviewed by us at the time of its appearance with the "Virginia Edition" last fall. Since the memoirs contain a greater collection of Poeana than had previously appeared in a single work, it was desirable that they should be issued separately, as they now are, with all the facsimiles and illustrations.

The gruesomeness of the tales collected in Ambrose Bierce's 'Can Such Things Be?' (Washington: The Neale Publishing Co.) is associated with undeniable power of relation and visualization. The dead are always present, and, as usual with this writer, the battlefield is a favorite scene. There are some terrible war pictures in this volume, not Mr. Bierce's best in literary execution, but in line with his other work. His manner is perfectly quiet. "Some Christian soul," he says of the body of a Federal sergeant, "had covered it with a blanket, but when the night became pretty sharp a companion of the writer removed this, and we lay beneath it ourselves." "One Kind of Officer" is a good illustration of "War is hell."

'The History of Oregon: The Growth of an American State,' by Horace S. Lyman (New York: North Pacific Publishing Society), is a pretentious work in four volumes, patently defective at every point. It is prolix, poor and ungrammatical in style, destitute of grasp and sense of proportion, with no chronological landmarks at the head of the page or in the table of contents. The meagre index is not analytical. The opening sentences are orphic: "This history of Oregon is in response to a demand, as public events of great significance are approaching." The editor has tried "to group subjects so as to recognize the grand order of time; and also the conclusions of Providence." He has also held himself in: "With the rise and development of the United States as a whole we cannot linger here," he says at the beginning of volume ii.; but by a less praiseworthy forbearance he compresses the romance and drama of Oregon's railroad connection with the East within seven pages. In his lucid phraseology, "no minute, or even a general sketch of the labors and struggles, involving men and political parties, and developing all the excitements and even the hostilities of actual warfare, can be entered into here. This is a theme for the character student and the sociologist." Jay Cooke is ignored in text and index; and the queer bibliography for volumes iii. and iv. contains no mention of any work relating to the building of the Northern Pacific Railway. This is history with a vengeance.

The second and concluding volume of the 'Correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island, 1723-1775,' published by the National Society of the Colonial Dames of America in the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, edited by Gertrude Selwyn Kimball, has appeared (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In every respect it confirms the favorable judgment we passed upon the first volume. Military affairs claim even a greater attention between 1746 and 1775, the period covered by the present volume, than between 1723 and 1746; nearly 150 of the letters and documents deal wholly or in part with the French wars. On the other hand, a greater variety of subjects are touched upon. After military matters, the questions most prominent are the navigation acts and the organization of the customs; the growing irritation between the colonies and England after 1765; the colonial currency; the development of colonial manufactures, and the organization of the Admiralty courts. Other matters, which are mentioned in one or more letters, are the scheme for requiring all Assemblymen to take an oath of allegiance to the King; postal service in the colonies; electioneering; colonial debt; petitions to Parliament; slave trade; Indians; colonial agency, etc. The volume contains five illustrations of remarkably good quality—three portraits, two houses. A single appendix is devoted to giving a chronological list of the correspondence of the Governors of Rhode Island from 1731 to 1775 printed in the Colonial Records. Between 450 and 500 letters are chronicled here with exact reference to the Records—a service which greatly increases the practical value of the work. The volume closes with a carefully prepared index of twenty-seven pages. Each subject will ordinarily have been entered at least three times, often four or five times, depending on the subject. Mechanical devices increase the usefulness of the index. The work of the editor in preparing the notes for this volume shows the same restraint, exactness, and good judgment exhibited in the first volume. On the whole, these two volumes must be considered as among the most valuable contributions to American colonial history that have appeared for some time.

Three books from the Friedenwald Company, Baltimore, on Hebrew subjects are evidently products of the Semitic Seminar at Johns Hopkins, and give laudable proof of the variety of Old Testament and Jewish studies there. Two appear to be dissertations. One, by Dr. William Rosenau, is on 'Hebraisms in the Authorized Version,' and is a very elaborate, often overstrained, but suggestive treatment of an important source of the English speech. Dr. Rosenau's weakness is, if anywhere, on the English side, which he is apt to take too mechanically. The second, by Dr. Adolf Guttmacher, on 'Optimism and Pessimism in

the Old and New Testaments,' is a more ambitious attack on a deeper problem. The success, too, is certainly greater, and the book forms a really solid piece of work. There is independent thought in it, besides the exhaustive citation of references becoming in a dissertation. The third, also by Dr. Rosenau, consists of a series of lectures on 'Jewish Ceremonial Institutions and Customs,' delivered in 1901 before the Semitic Seminar of Johns Hopkins, and now cast into book form. The result is a most interesting little book, straightforward and terse, and very well illustrated.

The first part, just published, of Dr. Cheyne's 'Critica Biblica' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan) is a series of textual, exegetical, and historical notes on Isaiah and Jeremiah. Prefixed is a prologue, which is practically a manifesto of "the new criticism." A great period in criticism has closed, and we are in the lull which had to follow. To open another forward movement was the aim of the 'Encyclopædia Biblica'; and to carry it further, of this new series of publications. Later there will appear a comprehensive historical work stating this new criticism in positive form. The present notes are intended to form a basis for that work, and to prepare the student who works through them for the new and very different standpoint and method. Thus, in time, doubtless, we shall learn whether Jerahmeel is the greatest mare's-nest ever discovered by a scholar of the first rank, or the most revolutionary and important step which Old Testament criticism has ever taken.

If there has been any doubt as to the negative position, at least, of Professor Delitzsch in his 'Babel und Bibel,' it must be completely removed by his "Zweiter Vortrag" (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). For him flatly there is no revelation, in spirit or letter, in the literature of the people of Israel, nor special divine working in their historical development. The Old Testament ceases to have any claim to a place in theological study; it is part of the history of religions. In a "Dritter Vortrag," Professor Delitzsch promises us, when the dust has cleared away, his positive views on religion.

The first part of Hann's 'Handbuch der Klimatologie' has been translated by R. De C. Ward, assistant professor of climatology in Harvard University, and is just issued by Macmillan under the title, 'Handbook of Climatology.' The volume is an excellent treatise on general climatology, with a few changes from the arrangement of the original work approved by the author, and with numerous additions of notes and references by the translator to bring it up to date from the time of the second German edition (1897). It makes a great advance on anything in English, and must at once take with us the high rank that the German original holds in Europe. It is in particular a marked improvement, so far as climate is concerned, over the books that have been prepared by physicians, with special relation to the medical aspects of the subject and with too little attention to its physical aspects. Part i. treats of climatic factors, temperature, moisture, wind, etc. Part ii., occupying nearly three-quarters of the book, gives a systematic discussion of the controls of climate, beginning with the action of sunshine, and then tracing out the various modifying influences of land and water, mountain and plain, forest and desert, and discussing in much detail the effects of various kinds of winds. The volume will serve excellently as a text-book or as a book of reference.

The Women's Auxiliary of the Civil Service Reform Association of Maryland has issued, as its first publication, under the comprehensive title 'School Conditions with and without the Competitive System,' two papers given recently before the National Association in Philadelphia by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon of Vassar and Dr. H. O. Reik of Baltimore, respectively. Dr. Reik makes a dramatic presentation of the change that has taken place in the public schools of Baltimore since the time when Mr. Rice characterized them in the *Forum* as among the very poorest in the country—a change brought about through the agency of the new charter, which became completely effective in the spring of 1900, together with the good choice of a School Board that was made by Mayor Hayes. The paper of Professor Salmon deals with the more general aspects of the question. This little pamphlet has already been widely circulated by the organization above named. It is an instance of very useful work that is being undertaken by women (in Boston, New York, and Baltimore) who find themselves unable to endure with patience the political ills from which both sexes suffer alike.

The *Journal of Geography* turned over a new leaf with its second volume, begun in January. It is henceforth to be published by Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, and edited by Professor Richard E. Dodge of the Teachers' College, Columbia University, and Professor Edward M. Lehnerts of the State Normal School, Winona, Minn. Its chief intention is to promote the study of geography in elementary, secondary, and normal schools, through the teachers. The original articles in the first number are excellently adapted to that end, and skilfully illustrated. The selected matter also shows the expert hand.

In the *American Historical Review* for April (Macmillan) will be found the report of the meeting of the American Historical Association at Philadelphia last December. We have found of special interest in the remaining contents Professor Henry E. Bourne's paper on "American Constitutional Precedents in the French National Assembly." The American example was regarded, weighed, and discussed more or less intelligently; but there was nothing analogous in the French past to build upon, and the American bill of rights proved more attractive than any single provision in the American system.

A correspondent writes: "It is not so new as many people suppose—the treatment of consumption by means of fresh air and milk. The following passage is from the 'Letter to a Friend' of Sir Thomas Browne, which was first published in 1690. 'Some think there were few consumptions in the old world, when men lived much upon milk; and that the ancient inhabitants of this island were less troubled with coughs when they went naked and slept in caves and woods, than men now in chambers and feather beds.' "

The Roman papers announce that an Englishman, Mr. Lionel Phillips, has made the Italian Government another gift of one hundred thousand lire for the purchase of the remaining private houses that stand over the site of the Basilica Aemilia. It will thus be possible to complete the excavation of that structure, about half of which was uncovered in 1899 and 1900. Excavations are at present in progress in the House of the Vestals, where the earlier, underlying structures of imperial times are being investigated, from the Arch of Titus to the Porta Mucionis on the Palatine, and between the Temple of Augustus and the Church of S. Teodoro, where foundations in *opus quadratum* and concrete are being brought to light, which Huelsen thinks may belong to the Horrea Germaniciana.

—None better than Mr. Apthorp could have been chosen by the Oliver Ditson Company as editor of the collection of 'Fifty Songs by Robert Franz' which constitutes the latest volume in their "Musicians' Library." Not only is he an enthusiast, but he enjoyed the personal friendship of the man who had only one equal, Schubert, as a song writer; of whom Emanuel Garcia, the most eminent teacher of the Italian method in the last century, said that of all German songs his were the best suited to the voice; who was one of Liszt's idols, and who aroused the enthusiasm of even Wagner, who cared so little otherwise for the compositions of his contemporaries. Once before, in 1879, the Ditsons brought out a collection of Franz songs, in two volumes, which had his own sanction; but it was badly printed. The present edition is an improvement in every way, except in the omission of the footnotes briefly characterizing each of the songs; but, for this omission, Mr. Apthorp's luminous preface makes ample amends. It gives a brief sketch of Franz's life, and describes the peculiarities of his genius, as well as his relations to Wagner and other composers. A glimpse into his workshop is given in the form of a facsimile of an inedited song. Of the fifty songs selected by Mr. Apthorp, about forty are undoubtedly the gems of all the collections. Concerning the others, opinions may differ. It may have been wise to omit the quaint "Es ragt der alte Elborus" as being caviare to the general; but the editor will certainly have an extra week in purgatory for leaving out "Childe Harold," "Dic schlanke Wasserlilie," "Ich hab' in deinem Auge," and, above all, the heavenly "Wonne der Wehmuth," which was evidently one of the favorites of Otto Dresel, Franz's most intimate friend, since the opening of one of his own best songs, "Lieb Liebchen," is an echo of it. However, it was impossible to squeeze all of the best Franz songs into one volume. The gems in this one are worth a thousand times their cost.

—When Matthew Arnold, in his lectures "On Translating Homer," objected to blank verse as the medium, because it lacked the rapidity of movement which is one of Homer's most obvious qualities, he was thinking of that slow and dignified rhythm which we have come to associate with the idea of blank verse, because such is its movement in the hands of masters like Milton and Tennyson. He admitted that a style of blank verse was conceivable which should move rapidly enough for the purpose; and he thought that it would be interesting to see such a style applied to Homer. If we had any reason to believe that Mr. T. H.

Delabère May of Trinity College, Cambridge, the latest translator of Virgil's Æneid (London: Nutt), had ever read Arnold's lectures, we might fancy that he thought it would be interesting to see that style applied to the very last poet upon whom such an experiment should have been tried. The result is something which, rhythmically considered, is as much unsuited to most of Virgil as it might perhaps be suited to much of Homer. Bristling with monosyllables (there are more than a hundred in his first twelve lines to only eleven in the corresponding ten lines of Virgil), Mr. May's verse jerks the reader along through nine syllables only to bring him up sharp with a constantly recurring monosyllabic close. He has a fond affection, too, for the letter *s:* not only do some verses positively hiss their swift way along, but on the third page we observe no less than five phrases in which a word ends and the next word begins with the sibilant. It is a pity that Mr. May did not realize the part which rhythm should play in the faithful rendering of a poet like Virgil for he certainly has, so far as the rendering of the mere words is concerned, shown that he understands their meaning, and he has brought this out with a clearness worthy the emulation of the great Mr. Bohn himself. Perhaps this was his main object; for in his preface he remarks that he has "thought that a blank verse rendering of the Æneid might be written which should be as helpful to the student as an ordinary prose crib, *and more easily remembered*" (we have ventured, also in the interests of students, to italicize these words). But when he proceeds to suggest that his translation is faithful in spirit to the original, he entirely overlooks another of Arnold's dicta, that it is not fidelity to an original to give its matter unless you at the same time give its manner. Nothing could be further from the manner of Virgil than what Mr. May has presumed to call his "literal rendering" of the Æneid. Nobody who has not read the Latin could ever get an idea of the greatness of the original from Mr. May's book; and nobody who is able to read the Latin need trouble himself to look into it.

—The Germans undoubtedly excel in such handbooks as the "Künstler Monographien" or the "Monographien des Kunstgewerbes" (Leipzig: Seeman), of which No. 9, Cornelius von Fabriczy's 'Medaillen der Italienischen Renaissance,' lies before us. The large size of the page permits of a sufficient number of illustrations, in the present instance 181, to represent the whole matter graphically. There is this inevitable drawback to the study of Renaissance medals, that, after the founder of the art, all else is decadence. No one of his successors attained the absolute simplicity of plane and line that make Pisanello's portraits equal if not superior to the best Greek coins, nor again the grand manner of the allegorical designs which adorn the obverse of his pieces. This said, the beginner will find Herr Fabriczy's treatise an agreeable guide for the one hundred and fifty years from Pisanello's first medals to the death of Pastorino in 1592, while the numismatist will note that, with scrupulous acknowledgment of earlier investigations, he pursues throughout an independent course. After preliminary discussion of the method of producing medals, cast and stamped, he treats successively Pisanello and his school, the other medal makers of northern Italy, those of Florence, and of Rome. A second and much shorter section treats of sixteenth-century medals struck from a die, under the captions, The Medici, The Popes, and The Paduan and Milanese Designers. Throughout, the treatment is sober, and the reproductions generally speak eloquently for the score or so of new attributions hazarded by the author, who, for example, adds a medal or so to the lists of L'Antico, Cavalli, and Alessandro Vittoria, the virile portraitist of the pamphleteer Aretino; and distinguishes between the rather feeble medals of Francia and those of a pupil.

—More important are Fabriczy's comments on the Florentine medallists, who, with a technique inferior to that of the north, had a great advantage in their subjects—the Medici Academy notably—and a gravity all their own. To run over the list of Nicolò Fiorentino, for instance, is to renew acquaintance with Lorenzo, Giuliano, Poliziano, Pico della Mirandola, with Lorenzo Tornabuoni and his wife, Giovanna degli Albizzi, to celebrate whose nuptials Botticelli painted the frescoes of the Villa Lemmi now in exile in the Louvre. Fabriczy actually adds a new medallist, Adriano Fiorentino, to the Tuscan roll. This artist, a scholar of Bertoldo, is known only from a medal of Elizabeth, Duchess of Urbino, and by a portrait of Degenhart Pfeffinger, Marshal of Lower Bavaria, with his arms in a wholly German feeling on the obverse. Very interesting, too, is the assertion that the unique Ercole II. of Este in the Weimar cabinet is a trial proof of Benvenuto Cellini's. But the expert reader will gather from these instances that the connoisseur as well as the amateur must consult Herr Fabriczy's monograph. At only one point would we take sharp issue with his opinion. The superb plaquette of Leon Battista Alberti in the Louvre is too unlike the work of Pisanello to be safely attributed to the greatest of the medallists. It shows a solicitude for detail—note only the hair, the ear, and the drapery—which is wholly alien to Pisanello's inflexibly austere style. To the present writer it seems distinctly Florentine. The hypothesis that it is Alberti's own, allures, but it is better to leave it anonymous, thanking Heaven for a time that provides anonymous works of this quality.

—The actual situation in China, as concerns education and reform, is shown in the fifteenth annual report of the "Diffusion Society," of which Sir Robert Hart is President, and funds for which are supplied mostly in China by merchants and some liberal-minded Chinese. The modern Government colleges now number thirteen, eleven being provincial and two prefectural; a half million of taels being set aside for modern education in a region containing three-fourths of the population of China. Over these, so far, three Americans preside. About 700 Chinese young men and a score or so of young women are studying in Japan, while probably as many as 200 Japanese are in the employ of the Chinese Government as teachers, engineers, advisers, etc. Four pages of specimen questions, now used at the triennial examinations, which 150,000 students attend, on modern and Western subjects are given, *e. g.*, "What are the Western sources of economical prosperity, and, as China is so poor, what would be the best for China?" The appendix shows that the Reform movement of 1898 owed its initiation and development largely to the literature published by this Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge among the Chinese, which proceeds upon the belief that the distinction so commonly drawn between the "secular" and the "sacred" is a vicious one. Its object is to supply high-class literature to intelligent Chinese. Of the long list of publications issued or in preparation, the majority are standard works on biography, geography, history, literature, nature study, handy cyclopædias, etc. Among the new books in press are Paul Bert's 'First Year of Science,' 'Comparative Anatomy,' Pouchet's 'Universe,' 'Story of Eclipses,' 'Fifty Years of Science,' 'Life of Queen Victoria,' 'Relative Strength of Nations,' 'Principles of Western Civilization,' etc. Dr. Y. J. Allen, editor of the *Review of the Times* (48,500 copies and 2,910,000 pages in 1902), is issuing in twenty-one parts, fully illustrated, a comparative 'Study of Civilization,' in all ages and lands, as self-determined by the treatment of women, 'History of the Czars of Russia,' and Lawrence's 'International Law.' In 1902 there was an unprecedented demand for the Society's publications, which are furnished at half-price to those who start circulating libraries. In place of the Boxer suggestions of extermination, or conservative remedies fitted for ancient times or conditions, or racial opposition and brutal materialism, this society offers as the solvent of China's difficulties education and enlightenment. Such need is seen in the fact that until very lately no Mantchu prince was allowed to spend a night outside Peking. Dr. Timothy Richard of Shanghai, the Secretary, has recently by Imperial invitation spent four months in Shansi, organizing the Government college there. This institution has, besides seven foreign and six Chinese professors, the largest staff of translators of any Government college in China, who are busy at Shanghai in preparing text-books on Western principles, an example now being followed in Chi-li by the viceroy, Yuen, the successor of Li Hung Chang.

DIABOLUS EX MACHINA.

Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties. By M. Ostrogorski. Translated from the French by Frederick Clarke, M. A., formerly Taylorian Scholar in the University of Oxford. With a Preface by the Right Hon. James Bryce, M. P. In two volumes, 8vo, pp. lvii, 627, xliii, 758. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

This is a very notable contribution to our knowledge of the contemporary politics of English-speaking peoples. It entitles its author to the rank of master craftsman in that guild of political thinkers which boasts Bagehot, Bryce, and Tocqueville among its brethren. It is essentially a painstaking and minute study of machine politics in all its phases. Upon this extra-constitutional aspect of modern democracy Ostrogorski has concentrated his penetrating scrutiny. He is interested in the *vis viva* of politics, not in the stereotyped apparatus erected by public law for the safe

conduction of fluid political energy. Back of the dummy styled by courtesy the legislator, he sees the wirepuller and the boss; and, "unduped of fancy" and unblinded by the great political superstitions of our age, he is stubbornly intent upon discovering the vital heart of things political. In this dissection of the body politic he plies a patient but relentless scalpel; and if the morbid anatomy of politics hides at times any secret from him, it is seemingly this—that civic tissue is not universally gangrenous. Despite the fact that, in his presentation of his theme, the miniaturist's fidelity to details is everywhere in evidence, he does not allow his reader to lose the forest in the trees. He loves occasionally to leave the political laboratory for an adventurous flight in the "cold, thin atmosphere" of dialectics, and the sweep of his final generalizations betrays an affinity for the 'Politics' of Aristotle.

Mr. Ostrogorski comes well equipped to his task. The position which he held in the Russian bureaucracy required of him a wide acquaintance with the science of comparative legislation. One may also fairly surmise that his personal experience of an autocratic régime—of its excellences no less than its defects—induced in him an intellectual detachment vastly serviceable in the scientific study of a diametrically different political system. To the survey of a new land he brought a fresh eye, not jaded by the glare of so-called popular government. He brought also to his task judicial impartiality and candor, and the rare patience of fifteen years of study and reflection. Most unique of all his qualifications is that he combines a profound knowledge of political philosophy with a personal knowledge of living politicians. He not only has studied in the library, but has kept his eyes open in the ward meeting. He knows Plato's 'Republic,' and he knows the Platt machine, and he knows them both thoroughly.

The first of the two volumes is devoted to party organization in England, its rise, its spread, and its results. The political machine in England is fairly recent, dating from 1867, and is a Brummagem ware. Prior to the Reform Bill of 1832, organized and permanent political parties were to be found only within Parliament. Particular issues, it is true, like Catholic Emancipation, had, previous to this time, recruited their adherents throughout the kingdom, and had induced concerted action in the way of political agitation. But such movements were sporadic. With the attainment of their object or the cooling of their fervor, they collapsed. It is also true that, long before 1867, on the eve of a Parliamentary election, the Whigs and Tories hastily devised throughout the provinces local agencies to attend to the business of registration and to bring out the party vote. The Eatanswill election in the 'Pickwick Papers' is not improbably a veracious picture of this early form of party activity. But when a new Parliament had once been chosen, virtue went out of the local political agency, and it lay dormant until another Parliament was to be elected.

The beginnings of the permanent political machine in England verify what we may take to-day as a political axiom—that the more legislative safeguards against political injustice abound, the more will partisan deviltry superabound. The act of 1867 had been devised to secure minority representation in certain constituencies like Birmingham, which returned three members to Parliament. The Birmingham Radicals, casting about to circumvent the law so as to secure a solid Liberal delegation, hit upon the machinery of the caucus or primary meeting. A convention of delegates elected in the wards made regular Liberal nominations. The Central Liberal Committee in the town, by means of a careful canvass of their voting strength in each ward, effected such a nicely calculated delivery of their adherents' ballots as to elect a solid Liberal delegation. The machine had worked. But, like many another invention, its profits were destined to enrich, not the inventor—an architect by the name of Harris—but the man who first gauged its possibilities. It is hardly necessary to say that this was none other than Joseph Chamberlain. Along with Aaron Burr, he shares the fame of having first fastened upon his country the régime of machine politics.

But men do not light a candle and put it under a bushel. Neither do they devise a successful machine and confine it to Birmingham. The Liberals in other places were induced to build similar machines. Then a national federation of the Liberal associations was effected, and its permanent headquarters were established, first at Birmingham, and finally at London. By 1886 the Tories had devised their chain of machines under the style of the Primrose League. Essentially this was and is a political machine, although its founders were shrewd enough—or simple enough, for it is not quite clear which—to give it a veneer of sham mediævalism.

Ostrogorski contends that the true government in England to-day is essentially an oligarchy, anonymous and irresponsible, consisting of the leaders of the machine which happens to have a majority in Parliament. The leaders of the machine have been able to usurp power by their hypocritical obeisance to the dogma of democracy. They hide their usurpation by the pretence that they are but registering the voice of the caucus, as that in turn echoes the *vox populi*. The fact is, "that the ward meetings are deserted, as the agents of the caucus themselves admit frankly enough" (I., 332); and "it is in these, which contain 2 to 3 per cent. of the whole electorate, that the delegates are chosen who are to invest the caucus with its representative authority" (I., 333). In practice, therefore, a few active politicians manipulate the meagrely attended ward meetings, and secure therefrom an ostensibly popular ratification of nominations which the leading politicians have themselves previously concocted. This hierarchy of wirepullers thereupon dons what it gives out to be the livery of public opinion, and in this disguise serves the devil—that is, themselves.

Sadly amusing is the description of the manner in which the organization proceeds to wake up the electorate to vote for the candidate who is supposedly invested, by virtue of his regular nomination, with the democratic pallium of "popularity." The proportion of voters that would go to the polls spontaneously is variously estimated at from 35 to 50 per cent. To the lost sheep of the house of Indifference the canvasser is sent with blare of trumpet and clang of tom-tom. The political platform also is perverted from serving as a school of reason to the base function of educing a flow of feeling sufficient to bring out the party's voting strength at the polls.

With its creatures once ensconced in office, the caucus, for so Ostrogorski designates the permanent organization, practically nullifies true democratic government. It exercises an obtrusive intervention between the Parliamentary leader of the majority of the House of Commons and the members of his party, between the member and his constituency, and between Parliament and outside opinion. The Premier is responsible primarily to the caucus. Let him conform to its behests, and the "Parliamentary party leader is converted into a party dictator" (I., 215). Let the individual member kick over the traces of the caucus, and the local organization in his constituency is straightway charged by the central caucus to regard him "as an heathen man and a publican." Let the mutterings of public interest become audible with reference to a new issue, an issue unwelcome to the caucus, as jeopardizing party solidarity, and the caucus straightway struggles to garrote its professed master, Public Opinion.

This sweeping indictment of the political machine in England Mr. Bryce, in his preface, seeks to evade by confession of all the concrete facts alleged, and yet by avoidance of the verdict pronounced. He urges that the author has taken certain phenomena as unduly typical, and has underestimated certain factors which greatly relieve the sombreness of the picture. It would savor of the ridiculous in one not intimately acquainted with English politics at first hand to attempt to decide when such learned doctors disagree. But, by comparison with machine politics in America, it would seem that England might find cause for a large degree of residual satisfaction when the arch-critic of her politicians admits that "the motive powers which set them going" are "the feeling of duty and that of self-love" (I., 353), and that "when all is said and done, the members of the English caucus who reap material benefit from it in one form or another are only a minority" (I., 358).

The second volume is devoted principally to a study of the machine in the United States. It combines the history of the machine's evolution and the philosophical rationale of its inevitableness under the contemporary social conditions. Both of these fields had been previously explored. The first was the common property of a score of investigators, while Bryce in his 'American Commonwealth,' and more particularly Henry Jones Ford in his 'Rise and Growth of American Politics,' had staked out the main landmarks in the latter province. Still, Ostrogorski's delineation of both subjects has an independent value of its own. It affords a far greater wealth of detail. It assesses pertinent social and economic considerations more accurately. It throws a flood of light over certain collateral topics, such as the comparative influence of women upon politics in England and America. The portraiture of the machine's Rake's Progress is drawn with an unerring pencil from the point where "the managers of the Organization, disguised as members of Congress, forced the Executive to make over the whole Federal patronage to them" (II., 133), to the culminating in-

famy where the Boss arises as a political dictator and a broker in legislation and administration.

On the other hand, Ostrogorski evaluates most discriminatingly the intrinsic efficiency of the machine as a government—a government without honesty of purpose or legitimacy of origin, to be sure, but one whose leaders "are recruited by natural selection," whose adherents are bound together "by mutual attachment and feudal loyalty to the chief," and in which "individual responsibility and personal merit are the only principles that govern their relations" (II., 439).

In the hundred pages entitled "The Struggles for Emancipation" which portray the various reform movements in the United States, he appraises very sagaciously both the gains and the losses attributable to civil-service reform, the Australian ballot, and other projects which externally look towards political betterment. It is a matter for regret that he did not think it worth while to devote a chapter to a formal comparison of party organizations in England and in the United States. The reason for this omission was probably his conviction that the machine in this country is what the caucus in England is bound eventually to become. But this is far from certain; nay, it does not seem even probable. This is the strong point that Bryce in the preface makes against Ostrogorski, that the democracies of the self-governing British colonies, and particularly in Australia, have not developed upon the lines of the American machine.

The materials for such a comparison of the English and American party organizations this work affords in abundance. The two organizations are alike usurpers, veiling their usurpation by their ostensible deference to popular sovereignty, and maintaining their power through the apathy of the electorate. They are alike incapable of representing living public opinion. Even with its ear to the ground, the machine is often so blinded by its fear of disintegration that it frequently persists in a policy under which it is buried in a political landslide. But, despite these likenesses, between the two organizations there is a great gulf fixed, and that gulf is money. Not that the use of money as a corruption fund is unknown in England, for the author shows how the Corrupt Practices Act of 1883 is largely nullified through the agency of the caucus; but the English politician is working generally for the power and dignity that attach to a seat in Parliament, whereas the typical member of the American machine, though doubtless moved by a number of motives, is chiefly "working for his own pocket all the time." This sharp distinction between the party organizations of the two countries holds true for local as well as for national politics. In spite of the fact that national party lines are drawn to an increasing extent in British municipal elections, Ostrogorski, who is nothing if not Draconian in the judgments he passes, allows (I., 488) that "municipal interests are not sacrificed to those of the political parties or of the politicians." This by itself differentiates the two systems *toto cœlo*.

There are occasional minor slips in the second volume. A carelessly framed statement (II., 181) seems to imply that almost all railroads in the United States were built by Federal subsidies. The statement relative to municipal public debts ignores the relative slackening in their growth since 1880, and it is certainly incorrect to say that the colossal sums expended left "the cities with no thoroughly developed or well executed public works" (II., 177). The statement as to the place of United States history in our schools is largely erroneous; in particular the allegation that in the common schools it is "brought to a close with Washington's Presidency" (II., 324). Aaron Burr is spoken of as "poorly connected" (II., 42); and a name is occasionally misspelled. But in the main the picture is accurate. And, dark as it unquestionably is, its sombreness is relieved both by its ungrudging admission of the "sovereign protection" accorded by our courts to the fundamental rights of the man and the citizen, and by its generous recognition of awakening public spirit.

The closing part of the work (II., pp. 607-741) is an attempt to construct a theoretical system of government capable of realizing the goal of democracy. This is an elaborate, often a profound, but after all a futile, exercise of political ingenuity. Ostrogorski does not make the mistake, so common among fledgling reformers, of thinking that we may be saved by machinery. No one insists more emphatically than he that political salvation rests fundamentally on individual and national integrity, and that without unselfish public spirit the best calculated schemes of reform are bound to shipwreck. But he is persuaded that the knell of party has rung, and he is concerned to point out the substitute that must be introduced if true democracy is not to perish from the earth. This substitute he finds in political leagues seeking each of them to realize only a single object, and naturally dissolving when that object is attained or its quest is abandoned. This scheme of "temporary single-issue organizations" would, he thinks, involve as its corollary under régimes of the English type the abolition of the collective responsibility of the Cabinet, for which the responsibility of the individual minister would be substituted. It makes the reader sit up and rub his eyes when he is told that the exploitation of power by political parties in the United States is to be abolished by making over the election of the President to Congress; but we are reassured when we learn that the Congress which is to exercise this function is one "no longer organized on the basis of party majorities." Of such an ideal scheme we can only say, "It is high, we cannot attain unto it." For, if the political experimentation of free countries has proved anything, it seems to be this, that those political devices which prove of most benefit in the long run are those which minimize the strain upon the political activity of the body politic. Such, for example, are our judiciary system, particularly our Federal judiciary, and in England the infrequency of elections and the small number of elective offices. Ostrogorski's scheme would vastly increase the political strain upon the individual citizen, and is calculated to work successfully only

"Hereafter, in a better world than this."

RECENT NOVELS.

The Lieutenant-Governor. By Guy Wetmore Carryl. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Spoilsmen. By Elliott Flower. L. C. Page & Co.

The Wind in the Rose-Bush. By Mary E. Wilkins. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Handicapped among the Free. By Emma Rayner. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Substitute. By Will N. Harben. Harper & Brothers.

Walda. By Mary Holland Kinkaid. Harper & Brothers.

A Lad of the O'Friels. By Seumas MacManus. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Mr. Carryl, on his title-page, calls his book a novel, and we are bound to believe him. Otherwise we might have thought that he was preparing speeches for the School Reader of the future, always supposing that in the future there will be schools and Readers. For the hero declaims upon his love for his State, the heroine declaims upon optimism, upon the creed of an American and upon the redemption of rejected lovers, while between clauses she is calling the accepted one "boy dear" and "Johnny boy." The characters all declaim, indeed, so that particularization is not needed. Their orations run in part upon patriotism, State-allegiance, temperance, political corruption, and strikes. There is not a wrong sentiment in the book except where Natalie momentarily defends the act of shooting a corrupt office-holder, and even this mistake is made productive of good, since it helps the Lieutenant-Governor to see clearly the opposite side of the question; which only goes to show that incessant oratory cannot fail to be useful. If it does not instruct, it warns. Whether it adds to the reality of a story is another matter. The truth is, that while the book may justly claim as its own some mildly amusing characters, some rather clever sayings, and not a few strong pleas for love of country and State, as a whole it is formless and raw.

'The Spoilsmen' is a good example of a style of story which is fast multiplying, and threatens to swamp American libraries. The motto of the type is "Art for the Inartistic's Sake"; and it seems indispensable that the nature portrayed should be the nature of something sordid, unlovely, mortifying, clattering with modern machinery, phrased in ultra-modern slang. When, as in Mr. Flower's book, the object drawn from its dread abode into the cheerful day is the ward politics of a large city—Chicago in this case—there is no fault to be found with the moral trend of the display. There is even edification for voters, for would-be office-holders and others in the exposition of Bossism and corruption which Mr. Flower makes in glaring colors and with Röntgen-ray detail; and that he makes it through the experiences of two honest men trying faithfully and in vain to serve their respective wards, an aristocratic and a plebeian, only brings home the more forcibly the lesson of political difficulty and despair. It would not be reasonable to expect ward politicians to express themselves in the language of Ruskin, or to ask authors to eliminate automobiles from their stories of modern cities; but it may be permitted the fiction-loving reader to regret that his novels nowadays too often progress from song to sermon, from sermon to saloon primaries. They ought to be rechristened and called wholesome lessons disguised as bitters. As pamphlets in

a "Good Citizenship Series," they would be no less readable, perhaps no less read, than in dramatic form, necessitating prosaic properties and a language which makes one cry, "How long?" Hear what the fight-for-the-right pugilist says, for instance:

"He can put up a nasty straight-out fight, but he's shy of speed in his head-piece. You're all right with your quick-action think-tank, but you're out of it now."

Thus far as to the æsthetic pleasure to be gained from this book and its fellows. It is cheerfully added that Mr. Flower has done his task well. He has inquired within at the doors of esoteric ward work to great purpose, and holds up to the gaze of thoughtful citizens a picture of bribery and cunning that is full of caution to sinners and victims.

It ought not to be surprising that Miss Wilkins, the apostle of naturalism, should make an excursion into supernaturalism, and assuredly it ought not to be surprising that she should look for her new material close to where she found the old. To gaunt, hollow-eyed New England housewives and mind-starved spinsters, ghosts should easily appear, born of isolation and monotony. But here comes the strange thing: it is not out of her half-crazed, lonely folk that she has made her spirit-seers. She has gone into the comparatively worldly stratum of New England country society, to the women who wear ruffled black-silk dresses, to those who board the school-ma'am, to those who are left in comfortable circumstances and move into town. It is not favorable soil for ghost-seers, and the ghosts show it, they are so gratuitously ghostly; they go out of their way to be ghosts. Obeying no law of shadowland, they work jugglers' tricks rather than supernaturalism. They plague rather than haunt. They annoy the nerves rather than curdle the blood. What they do, seems the result of their author's ingenuity rather than of their own need to be recognized. True, a ghost need not wear samite. Cordial welcome awaits the gingham ghosts of Yankee-land. But they must be really ghosts, not sleight-of-hand performers. Of all the present group, the one that gives the reader the nearest approach to a chill is the little child-spirit of the concluding story. Mr. Newell's illustrations are in keeping. His phantoms are dyspeptic, more than mysterious; his phantom-gazers express no more than a reasonable, black-alpaca consternation.

'Handicapped among the Free' is a story of the "Black Belt" of Alabama, and a moving document in the great case. Passionately on the side of the negro, the writer makes her plea the more potent by permitting herself to delineate here and there a just white and an unjust black. While with a hot pen she describes the horrors pursuing the black race in the South, she can yet put a cool finger on the pivot of part of the agitation in saying:

"No race can ever rise so long as the best men and women in its own ranks look upon it with scorn." "When uplifting is, to the better among any people, synonymous with shaking off from their feet the dust of their own race, and preferring admission amongst men of another nationality to that leadership in their own to which their higher position should point, then there is little hope for the race to which they belong." "Unconsciously, Free [the negro hero] had fallen into the selfishness—very natural, perhaps, but very much to be deplored—of most of the rising men of his own race. He had thought of achievement as making his way among white men. He had taken his public to be a white public, and all around him were black men looking up to him, and he did not see them—except as so many darkies. He chafed at the scorn of the white man, and he passed on that scorn to the lower ranks of his own people, and did not even know he was doing it."

The problem is well stated by the old negress, who says: "De nigger he got to race wid de white man, and de white man . . . hab de long legs and de go-aheadness all inside him. De nigger hab de behindness and de hab-nothingness." And old Betsey touches the kernel of the matter when she says of her husband's persecution and business ruin, because he had aspired to the magistracy, "And now West's laid low and most everything's swept away, the white feelin' 'll maybe stop workin'."

The workin' of the white feelin' leads to the tragedies which, though heaped high, are commented on in a temper of wonderful moderation. As a story, the book is too long, and too much given to preachments, black and white. But if its style is wordy, its incidents are like hammers. It rises superior to small criticisms, an appalling human brief, yet not without a hope—that hope, the negro schools of the South and their effect upon the negro's attitude toward his own people.

Mr. Harben is a master at reproducing the atmosphere of Georgia, and he has a fund of good Georgia stories. His main story is good, too, but would have been better had it stood more by itself. His hero is a young man who has been substituted as expiatory heir to the affections of an older man who, years before, had killed his own friend in a drunken passion. The substitute has in divers ways a checkered career, the history of which would be of more dignified interest than it is if it were not interwoven with an overplus of mere local anecdote. The book is a not perfectly happy fusion of a good story and a sheaf of comic-paper clippings. For the story part of the combination, it may be said that it shows Mr. Harben's unquestioned skill at portraits of all Southern sorts—the mountaineer, the storekeeper, the patrician, the sons and daughters of the soil.

'Walda' is a story of America, too, but of an engrafted and not native America. It concerns itself with a religious community of German settlers in the West, where property is held in common and love and marriage are discouraged. Walda is the maiden who, from her noble character and spiritual tendencies, is about to undergo consecration as prophetess of the community when the story opens. The chance visit of an outsider changes the current of affairs in Zanah, and many community affairs run rough when confronted by the facts of human feeling. The "almost photographic fidelity" claimed for this picture of an actually existing community gives the book an interest which might flag were it approached as a mere story.

'A Lad of the O'Friels' recalls the little Provençal boy whom Félix Gras has celebrated in his matchless story, 'The Reds of the Midi.' Like him, Dinny O'Friel spent his time curled up in the corner of the shoemaker's shop which was the neighborhood club in Knockagar, hearing and learning many things. From the boy's standpoint, we have a chronicle of an Irish village. His neighbors are admirably drawn types of deviltry or sensibility; he himself is happily compounded of both, equally at home in the shoemaker's corner, rambling over the hills, lighting the fires on Bonfire night, buying ribbons at the harvest fair, or going on a pious pilgrimage to the Holy Island. Notwithstanding a few broken heads and a certain amount of billingsgate, the prevailing air is one of Irish kindliness and neighborliness lending cheer and charm to the story. The realness of the Irish dialect falls persuasively on the ear grown used to colonial adaptations. The humor is thoroughly Irish, but not all local; the good-bye note of the "Vagabone" departing for America is a thing of worth to all literature. Indeed, we think that those who are indifferent or hostile to Irish stories in general, considering them oppressive by reason of plots and potheen, may yet find in this humor-shot idyl an hour of relenting, if not of refreshment.

DOCUMENTARY HISTORY OF THE PHILIPPINES.

The Philippine Islands, 1493-1803: Explorations by early navigators, descriptions of the islands and their peoples, their history, and records of Catholic missions, as related in contemporaneous books and manuscripts, etc. Translated from the originals. Edited and annotated by Emma Helen Blair and James Alexander Robertson, with historical introduction and additional notes by Edward Gaylord Bourne. With maps, portraits, etc. Volume I., 1493-1529. Volume II., 1521-1569. Cleveland, O.: The Arthur H. Clark Company.

This is in almost all ways the most extensive and most important project ever undertaken in the line of Philippine history in any language, above all the English. To quote from the scholarly introduction of Professor Bourne:

"The American people are confronted with two race problems, one within their own confines and long familiar, but still baffling solution; the other new, remote, unknown, and even more imperatively demanding intelligent and unremitting effort for its mastery. . . . To govern them [the Filipinos] or to train them to govern themselves are tasks almost equally perplexing, nor is the problem made easier or clearer by the clash of the contradictory estimates of their culture and capacity which form the ammunition for party warfare. . . . In the Philippine question, however, although the sources are no less abundant and instructive [than in the case of the negro problem], they are and have been highly inaccessible, owing, on the one hand, to the absolute rarity of the publications containing them, and, on the other, to their being in a language hitherto comparatively little studied in the United States. To collect these sources, scattered and inaccessible as they are, to reproduce them and interpret them in the English language, and to make it possible for university and public libraries and the leaders in thought and policy to have at hand the complete and authentic records of the culture and life of the millions in the Far East whom we must understand in order to do them justice, is an enterprise large in its possibilities for the public good."

In the prospectus for the contemplated fifty-five volumes of the series, we note a preponderance of ecclesiastical decrees, friar chronicles, etc. Not knowing how fully the editors have yet developed their material for the later volumes, it is perhaps unfair to remark that nearly six

pages of documents are listed for the period 1493-1650, roughly the discovery period and "missionary age," and but two pages to the more strictly administrative period, 1650-1803. Of the many documents covering 1570-1610, the really more significant are five, De Loarca's "Relation," De Plasencia's 'Tagalog Customs,' the 1599 'Ordinances of Good Government,' the Jesuit Chirino's Relation, and the work of De Morga, the justice. One might suggest omitting, if necessary, some of the documents for 1570-1650, especially regarding commerce, in favor of data coming closer to the life of the Filipino people in that period, such as the local revolts of the early years, the five-day earthquakes of 1644, and the miracle tales surrounding them. As against the attention paid to commercial regulations and the unsuccessful missions to the Palaos Islands in the early eighteenth century, there is little relating to plans for education, then assuming new shape, and no mention of Governor-General Bustamante, charged with plans for secular education and slain in the Palace in a revolt organized and led there by Jesuits and friars. The royal decree of 1751, ordering a restoration of the old boundaries of the friar estates in central Luzon, "extended by fraud" (to quote it), is not mentioned; it followed the pacification of the Tagalogs after risings (in 1743-4) which were in every way the prototypes of the revolts of 1872 and 1896. We will say no more to show that there must be, in some particulars, a broadening of scope if this work is to give us "the complete and authentic records of the culture and life of the millions in the Far East whom we must understand in order to do them justice."

The series, it is noted, will end with 1803, a date chosen because Zúñiga's story of his travels appropriately closes the eighteenth century. It was aimed to include only documents not otherwise easily accessible; perhaps, also, there was a little shrinking from entering into the controversies of the nineteenth century in the islands.

Professor Bourne's introduction occupies seventy pages; within those limits he has given us the best considered essay on Philippine history ever published in English. One is especially impressed with his plea for fairness toward the record of Spanish colonialism. We might urge that the climatic conditions in Spanish colonies precluded that ruthless extinction of the native stock which followed Anglo-Saxon colonization in the temperate zones; but results speak for themselves, and the fact is that Catholic Spain, missionary and fanatic, has left a more benevolent colonizing record than Protestant England. His extensive reading in Philippine history has led Professor Bourne to side with the traditional view of the islanders at the time of the conquest, as a set of savages, whose descendants owe almost everything to their monastic preceptors. In this he has been unduly influenced by such writers as Retana, a consummate friar-eulogist (some charge, a hireling); and he apparently gives face value to the description of the islanders by Pigafetta, an Italian adventurer who accompanied Magellan. Some will challenge the statement that the Spanish conquerors "preserved the essential features" of the Filipinos' social organization, and that they "introduced" village life. With his estimate of the accomplishments of the Orders in the heroic period of missionary labors, the "Golden Age," as he calls it, it is hardly possible to disagree. He charges the decline from thenceforward on the retrogressive economic policy of the Spanish Government, on its system of trade monopolies, its inept Governors, and corrupt provincial administrators. It is following the pro-friar authorities a little too closely to say that "a corrupt civil service and a futile and decrepit commercial system were, through the friars' efforts, rendered relatively harmless, because circumscribed in their effects." The Orders really ruled at Madrid and Manila, developed the general policies, and jealously guarded prerogatives over details; it is only fair to hold them responsible for the general results, to say nothing of the cases where they deliberately balked civilian measures of progress.

Volume I. contains, besides the historical introduction, 140 pages of documents (papal bulls, treaties, etc.) relating to the "Line of Demarcation" between Spain and Portugal, Pope Alexander's famous "division of the world" in 1493. About 100 pages are devoted to documents concerning Magellan's memorable voyage, closing with the interesting letter of Maximilianus Transylvanius, 'De Moluccis Insulis,' 1522, reciting the details brought regarding Magellan's death and the "spice islands" by the handful of sailors who returned in the only one of the five vessels which circumnavigated the globe. Bibliographic data are appended, and chronological tables of the Popes and the rulers of Spain, 1493-1803. Volume I. is illustrated by a portrait of Magellan, a photographic facsimile of a manuscript bearing his signature, and a facsimile of the title-page of 'De Moluccis Insulis.' There is also appended an excellent map of the Philippine Archipelago. Volume II. is made up of contemporaneous documents concerning the expeditions of García de Loaisa (1525-6), of Ruy Lopez de Villalobos (1541-3), and Miguel Lopez de Legazpi (1564-68), and the voyage of Alvaro de Saavedra (1527-8). Authentic portraits of Legazpi and of Fray Andrés de Urdaneta, with more autographic facsimiles and a picture of the Santo Niño of Cebú, constitute the illustrations.

The work is printed on deckle-edged paper, uncut, gilt top, and is neatly bound.

Life and Correspondence of Henry Ingersoll Bowditch. By his Son, Vincent Y. Bowditch. In two volumes. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

Few biographies are more helpful than such as present the lives of men who, in private station, exhibit lofty public spirit; who, abiding in their calling, crown it with dignity and honor, and in their personal and domestic life are everything that is noble and attractive. The recent biography of John M. Forbes was one of the most notable of these, so that nothing could be more fit than that the biography of his friend, Dr. Bowditch, should come next in order. It would have ample justification (though it might have been condensed into one volume without injury) if it were only a picture of the large-natured man, the good physician, the genial friend, the enthusiastic reformer, the devoted son, brother, husband, and father, and the deeply religious soul; but Dr. Bowditch liked to write of those events of which he saw much and was an active part, and what he has written of certain phases of the anti-slavery conflict will take a place among the most entertaining and instructive recollections of that conflict, both for the future delight of the reader interested in such things and for the supplying of warmth and color to the historian's page.

Dr. Bowditch was born in Salem, Mass., August 9, 1808, and died in Boston, January 14, 1902. The son of Nathaniel Bowditch, the great mathematician, and Mary Ingersoll, he was well born in the best sense of a term often much abused. He inherited the scientific if not the mathematical vigor of his father's mind, and from his mother a profound religiousness, which in him was quite independent of a dogmatic theology. For a long time he could not feel at home in any church, partly because the recreancy of the churches as a body to the anti-slavery cause discredited them all in his judgment. He had, moreover, his period of religious doubt, and, once having lost it, he never recovered his confidence in the supernatural character of Christianity; but one would have to read many clerical biographies to come upon one so essentially religious as this is in its ultimate expression. The little Bible that his mother gave him when he was ten years old he carried about with him his whole life long, and not as a mere fetish; to read his favorite passages to his family and friends was one of his purest pleasures.

There is brief but pleasant mention of the Salem life, with pictures of the old house and garden which must have afforded him the beginnings of a liberal education before he went to Harvard in 1825, entering as a sophomore. His college work showed little sign of his mature mind and character. He entered on the study of medicine without any of that enthusiasm which was in general his most characteristic trait, and with a strong æsthetic repulsion to the dissecting room; but he was always subject to the inspiration of men of high character and ability, and in Dr. James Jackson, his chief medical instructor, he found one of these. Going to Paris, shortly, to continue his studies, he found another in the celebrated Louis. His enthusiasm for this great teacher knew no bounds. It quite outran that of Dr. Holmes, who was in Paris at the same time, and who afterwards grew up to Bowditch's appreciation of Louis's master mind. A visit to Louis in 1867 was one of the most striking incidents of one of Dr. Bowditch's later trips to Europe. While studying in Paris he had valuable experience. He saw much of Lafayette, then (1833) seventy-six years old, and dying the next year. Medicine did not exhaust his interest. He attended the lectures of the then celebrated Jouffroy, and sent the philosopher a criticism on them which was not ill conceived. In London, like Garrison and Emerson, he attended the funeral of Wilberforce in Westminster Abbey, but there was little in his emotions to predict his anti-slavery career.

His return to America was hastened by his falling in love and thereby incurring the displeasure of his father and other members of his family. Told with extreme delicacy, the story is a very pretty one, and heightens not a little the interest of a book that has no paucity of interesting matter. The only trouble was that the

home circle did not know the girl who had engaged his affection, and that his impulsive nature gave them pause. The lovers bore a year of painful incommunication, and then the son wrote such a letter as no good father could resist, and the interdict was removed. The marriage that ensued was of ideal completeness, more finely tempered in the fire of a great sorrow when, in 1863, the eldest son, Nathaniel, whom, as a child, the father had taken to Torrey's funeral and the rendition of Sims, to indoctrinate him with hatred of slavery, died in the great war fought for the maintenance and destruction of that national wrong.

Hardly less significant to Dr. Bowditch than his wedding day was October 21, 1835, the day of the Garrison mob, which made Bowditch an Abolitionist. In this character he was consciously implicated in a great reform, and liked to put on paper his impressions and his recollections of the most notable events. We may have had more exact accounts of some of them, but we have had none more vivid. When Garrison declared for disunion, as Channing had already done and as many Conscience Whigs were doing, Dr. Bowditch dissented from his particular theory, but held fast to the man and to his general work. "I believe," he wrote, "that I am almost the only one in the Board of Managers of the Anti-Slavery Society who does not go for disunion. Possibly I may agree with them at some future time, but at present we are at swords' points upon the subject. But we embrace at the same time that we fight, for we have learned to tolerate differences of opinion when honesty is the foundation." A year later he wrote: "My anti-slavery is rather of the medium stand," and five years later that, while still a member of the Anti-Slavery Board, he sympathized less and less with Garrison's disunion views, but added: "Nevertheless, to Garrison and the Anti-Slavery Society proper, I believe, belongs the honor of ever raising the standard of freedom higher. They do so by their very energy of expression of what I think to be an impracticable plan." Here is one proof, of many, of the absurdity of the too common allegation that no one could work with Garrison without being stretched on his Procrustean bed and cut down to the measure of his personal methods and beliefs.

Nothing was more characteristic of Dr. Bowditch than a vein of frolic humor which crops out frequently in his letters as it did in his life, but he could be serious and strenuous enough on such occasions as the Latimer imprisonment, the Torrey funeral, the Ottoman rendition of 1846, the Shadrach and Craft escapes, and the Sims and Burns renditions. Not even Theodore Parker was a more active member of the famous Vigilance Committee. The account of Shadrach's escape differs materially from Col. Higginson's in his 'Cheerful Yesterdays,' agreeing better with Theodore Parker's more serious view of it. Both the Shadrach and the Craft narratives are pregnant comments on Daniel Webster's anxiety about the two cases as disclosed in his just published letters. In the escape of William and Ellen Craft, Dr. Bowditch enjoyed a part as intimate as Theodore Parker's. His blood was up, and when he was taking William Craft to the place where his wife was in hiding, he pledged himself to the negro to shoot any one who should assail his liberty. The shame and horror of the Sims and Burns renditions have never been described more impressively than here. We are made, as it were, living witnesses of those monstrous crimes. It is almost a pity that the Anti-Man-Hunting League had never an opportunity to try its ingenious tactics on a kidnapper. They do not appear to have been ill-conceived.

The interest of the second volume of this biography is distinctly inferior to that of the first, in spite of a great deal of excellent matter, most of it taken from Dr. Bowditch's letters and journals. In the civil war his urgency, at first despised by Wilson and neglected even by Sumner, effected a great improvement in the ambulance system. As medical examiner of Massachusetts volunteers and substitutes, he obeyed one of the most erratic impulses of his life in branding a Canadian deserter from the British army, who offered himself for enlistment. There are interesting, but not first-hand, reminiscences of John Brown, and notes of European travel that give us pause, not doubtful, but highly satisfactory. A night walk in East London under a policeman's shield, and a visit to Strasbourg just after the bombardment of 1870, are two of the more important subjects dwelt upon. A chapter on Dr. Bowditch's "Medical Work" has the brevity appropriate to a book intended for the general reader, not for the medical specialist, but it is made sufficiently plain that he held an advanced line in his profession, both as instructor and as practitioner, especially in respect to auscultation, paracentesis thoracis, and lung and heart diseases generally. When a Boston paper made a bid for a boycott that would punish his anti-slavery activity, he registered a vow in his journal that he would live or die in Boston, practising his profession there or nowhere, and that he would have an opinion on any subject that attracted him, and express it when and where he chose. He did not think he should be prevented from doing this, and he was not.

A closing chapter tells with due reserve the story of his failing health and welcome end. A succession of portraits is convincing that the exterior semblance of the man expressed the habit of his soul.

The Story of My Life. By Helen Keller. With her letters (1887-1901), and a supplementary account of her education, including passages from the reports and letters of her teacher, Anne Mansfield Sullivan, by John Albert Macy. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1903.

Here is a biography of a deaf and blind girl written by herself—a book which can be considered from so many points of view that the choice is bewildering. To the writer of this article its chief interest lies in corroborating a long-cherished theory that the greater part of the authors of the present day are made, not born. Most of us write because other people have written, because the idea of writing is attractive; our only genius being a certain facility in combining fragments of other people's observations and ideas so as to hide the joinings and give an appearance of unity and newness. Eyes have we, but we see not; we hear not with our own ears, solely through the eyes and ears of others. In Helen Keller's life and education we have an experiment tried under perfect conditions, showing how little essential are observation and experience to the trade of author. All her knowledge is hearsay knowledge, her very sensations are for the most part vicarious, and yet she writes of things beyond her power of perception with the assurance of one who has verified every word.

It seems cruel to criticise this unfortunate girl who has made so much of nothing, whose life has been one long courageous effort to overcome her terrible disadvantages. No one can help feeling the utmost sympathy for her deprivations, the greatest admiration for her pluck. And yet the criticism must be expressed, not so much for her own sake as because her writing exemplifies in a wonderful way the disregard of a principle for which writers who have the true vocation would lay down their lives. Literary sincerity is so entirely absent from it that the subject spills over from the domain of literature into that of ethics. If she were to be judged like less afflicted mortals, we should have to call a great deal of Miss Keller's autobiography unconscientious. Here are some examples of the illegitimate use of the imagination. There are countless others:

"The glorious bay lay calm and beautiful in the October sunshine, and the ships came and went like idle dreams; those seaward going, slowly disappeared like clouds that change from gold to gray; those homeward coming sped more quickly, like birds that seek their mother's nest" (p. 225).

"The rooms are large and splendidly furnished; but I must confess, so much splendor is rather oppressive to me" (p. 227).

"I shall have to content myself with a stroll in the Gardens. Somehow, after the great fields and pastures and lofty pine groves of the country, they seem shut-in and conventional. Even the trees seem citified and self-conscious" (p. 245).

"Virgil is serene and lovely, like a marble Apollo in the moonlight. Homer is a beautiful animated youth in the full sunlight with the wind in his hair" (p. 111).

"Venus [of Medici] entranced me. She looked as if she had just risen from the foam of the sea, and her loveliness was like a strain of heavenly music" (p. 250).

Doubtless it seems unfair to call Helen Keller to account for sins which others commit unrebuked every day. It is part of her misfortune that they can be proved against her, when, in other cases, short of actual plagiarism, we can only suspect. At the great mistake in Helen Keller's life the editor points when he says: "All her life she has been trying to be like other people" (p. 173). If it could have been brought home to her that such likeness in her case could be attained only by the sacrifice of truth; if she could only realize that it is better to be one's self, however limited and afflicted, than the best imitation of somebody else that could be achieved! One sees a dawning consciousness of this great truth in one of the last letters of the book, to Mr. Copeland, her instructor in English composition at Radcliffe, dated December 20, 1900:

"I have always accepted other people's experiences and observations as a matter of course. It never occurred to me that it might be worth while to make my own observations and describe the experiences peculiarly my own. Henceforth I am resolved to be myself, to live my own life, and write my own thoughts when I have any" (p. 273).

It is a pity that she did not keep to this

resolution in her autobiography, which was presumably written after the letter.

There is another reason for regretting that Helen Keller has not confined herself to that which is within her own knowledge. In this making herself over on the every-day pattern, we lose what she could teach us by showing wherein she varies from the normal. It seems almost as if every fact of real psychological value had been perversely withheld; the few observations of importance that she does record being so mingled with her imaginings in regard to the perceptions of others as to be worthless. One resents the pages of second-hand descriptions of natural objects, when what one wants is a sincere account of the attitude, the natural attitude, towards life of one whose eyes and ears are sealed. Of what use are such records as these?—

"Mr. Chamberlin initiated me into the mysteries of tree and wild flower, until with the little ear of love I heard the flow of sap in the oak, and saw the sun glint from leaf to leaf" (p. 122).

On the other hand, some accurate observations of the manner in which the senses of touch and smell can play substitute to the missing ones would be of real scientific value. It would seem, also, as if Miss Keller's limitations might develop instinctive, indefinable powers, similar to those which animals possess; as if what we call, for want of a more accurate term, the spiritual sense, meaning the reaching out toward the unseen and eternal, might in her case yield much of interest, if not of actual value. But of such things we are told only enough to arouse the desire for more, as, for instance, when she writes:

"Frequently, as we emerge from the shelter of a cove or inlet, I am suddenly conscious of the spaciousness of the air about me. Whether it comes from the trees that have been heated by the sun, or from the water, I can never discover" (p. 120).

In another place she says, speaking of the differences between town and country, that her whole body is alive to the conditions about her (p. 124); but she does not analyze this consciousness.

Helen Keller has attained a certain facility in writing, as, indeed, almost any one would to whom it was nearly the sole medium of human intercourse. To the fine quality of her brain her achievements in actual examination testify. She is said to have wit, but the specimens given seem evidence to the contrary. She shows real penetration, however, when she speaks of toleration requiring the same effort of brain that it takes to balance one's self on a bicycle (p. 295). When she defines beauty as a form of goodness (p. 216), she is merely repeating one of those mystical sayings that have truth only for those who do not think for themselves.

The editor naïvely explains some of the contradictions in the book by reminding the reader that Miss Keller wrote many things in her autobiography for the fun of writing them (p. 283). He does not seem to be aware that he thus makes himself her keenest critic. Can there be a greater sin, from a literary point of view—not to speak of a moral one—than to advance opinions for the fun of writing them, regardless of the truth thereof?

The Private Life of the Romans. By Prof. H. W. Johnston of Indiana University. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. 1903.

This is by far the best introduction to the subject which we have ever seen. Very well adapted as a handbook, to be consulted by students of the Latin authors who need to know something about the manners and customs of the men in the midst of whom these authors lived, it will serve also as a good résumé to which lecturers on Roman private life can send their classes for information on the broader outlines of their course, thus saving for themselves time to speak upon details and mere difficult points. The book is clearly written and its contents are well arranged. It lays claim to no originality, being drawn entirely from the best French and German sources; for few save Frenchmen and Germans have produced much that is original in this field. Of these a good bibliography is given. Among the twelve chapters, those on amusements, the Roman name, the development of the house, and in particular the chapter on the family, deserve special praise. A full index renders consultation easy.

There is, however, no list of the sources of the illustrations, a great desideratum in such a book, and some of the illustrations seem to have nothing to do with the Romans; for example, that of a jointed doll, found, we believe, on the Athenian Acropolis; the necklace of amulets, here called *crepundia*, which came from the Crimea; the Greek vase paintings of the mortar and pestle and of the parasol. The so-called *bisellium* is a humbug which has often been exposed, and the explanation of one of the Pompeiian forum scenes as "the sale of a slave" is a strange novelty. On the whole, the pictures are the least satisfactory part of the book. We wish that they had been more carefully selected and all relegated to a few pages at the end of the book. Then the reading matter could have been printed on a paper neither so shiny as to hurt the eyes, nor so loaded down with whatever the substance is that makes American books illustrated with process cuts such a burden to hold in the hand.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Batson, H. M. A Book of the Country and Garden. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Bell, J. J. Wee Macgreegor. Harpers. $1.
Brandes, George. Poland. Macmillan.
Bryce, James. Studies in Contemporary Biography. Macmillan. $3.
Carpenter, E. J. The American Advance. John Lane.
Caster, Andrew. Pearl Island. Harpers.
Chamberlin, F. C. A Blow from Behind. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Copenhaver, Laura S. An Adventurous Quest. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Corbin, John. A New Portrait of Shakspere. John Lane.
Curtis, W. E. The Turk and his Lost Provinces: Greece, Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Diary and Letters of Wilhelm Müller. Edited by P. S. Allen and J. T. Hatfield. Chicago: University Press.
Du Bois, W. E. B. The Souls of Black Folk. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Eliot, C. W. More Money for the Public Schools. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Elizabeth's Children. John Lane.
Fischer-Hansen, Carl. Om Amerika. Brentano.
Griggs, E. H. A Book of Meditations. New edition. B. W. Huebsch.
Hadden, J. C. Haydn. (The Master Musicians.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Halsey, F. W. Women Authors of Our Day in their Homes. James Pott & Co. $1.25.
Henniker, Florence. Contrasts. John Lane.
Hyne, Cutcliffe. Capt. Cuttle, K. C. B. Federal Book Company.
Lavignac, Albert. Musical Education. Translated by Esther Singleton. D. Appleton & Co.
Lawson, W. R. American Industrial Problems. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Lemon, Don. A Book of Curious Facts. Edited by Henry Williams. New Amsterdam Book Co. 75 cents.
MacGrath, Harold. The Grey Cloak. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co.
Mackie, Pauline B. The Voice in the Desert. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Peet, L. H. Trees and Shrubs of Prospect Park. Brooklyn, 755 Ocean Ave.: The Author.
Penzance, Baron. A Judicial Summing up of the Bacon-Shakspere Controversy. Edited by M. H. Kinnear. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Boston: W. B. Clark Co.
Sangster, Margaret E. When Angels Come to Men. Fleming H. Revell Company.
Sedgwick, Jane M. Love Songs from the Greek. (The Lover's Library.) John Lane.
Thackeray, W. M. The Yellowplush Papers. Edited by Walter Jerrold and illustrated by Charles E. Brock. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan.
The Kaiser's Speeches. Forming a Character Portrait of Emperor William II. Translated by Wolf von Schierbrand. Harpers.
The Musician's Library: (1) Twenty Original Piano Compositions, Franz Liszt. $1.25; (2) Fifty Songs, Robert Franz. $1.25. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co.; New York: Charles H. Ditson & Co.
Tolstoy, Leo. Resurrection. Translated by Louise Maude. (Players' Edition.) Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Ulmann, Albert. A Landmark History of New York. New ed. D. Appleton & Co.
Until Seventy Times Seven. Thomas Whitaker.
Van Zile, E. S. Perkins, the Fakeer. The Smart Set Publishing Company. $1.
Wagner, Charles. The Better Way. Translated by Mary L. Hendee. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Washburn, jr., W. D. Some Rejected Verse. The Knickerbocker Press.
Whitcomb, Merric. A History of Modern Europe. (Twentieth Century Textbooks.) D. Appleton & Co.
White, Mary. More Baskets and How to Make Them. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Whitson, J. H. Barbara: A Woman of the West. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Wilamowitz-Möllendorff, U. Von Timotheos: Die Perser. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 3.50 marks. Also, Der Timotheos Papyrus. Lichtdruck-Ausgabe. Lemcke & Buechner. 3.50 marks.
Wilson, W. R. A. A Rose of Normandy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Woods, Bertha Gerneaux. Verses. Washington: Neale Pub. Co.

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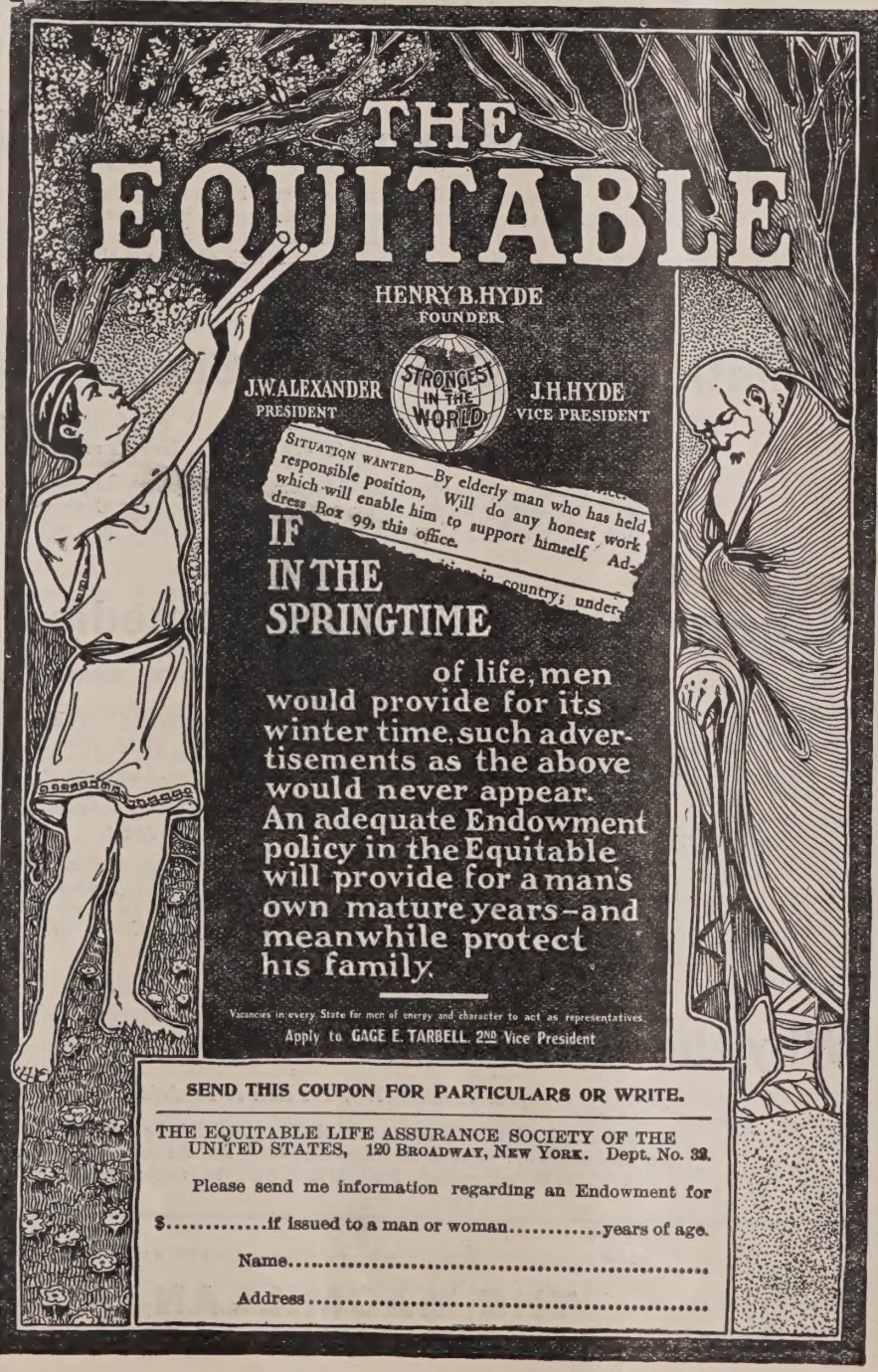
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 7, 1903.

The Week.

The dedication of the World's Fair in St. Louis on Thursday found it in a far more prominent position than was thought possible a year ago. Even in St. Louis there were many men of standing who took slowly to the idea of another world's fair, particularly when it was planned for one of the hottest of American cities, and perhaps the most corrupt. But as the time for the dedication has approached, there has been a remarkable growth in public interest, particularly in Europe. Able as the Exposition's advance European agent, ex-Gov. Francis, is, he would undoubtedly be ready to admit that the present zeal for the Fair on the other side of the Atlantic is by no means wholly due to his clever campaign. St. Louis was fortunate in undertaking an Exposition at a time when every nation in Europe is anxious to propitiate the United States. Russia has just officially assured us that there is no nation whose trade she solicits half as earnestly as ours. The German Emperor's desire to stand well with us has had many illustrations; and the Prince of Wales has expressed the wish of the English to pay a compliment to their American cousins by sending a splendid exhibit to St. Louis. So far as this country is concerned, the extraordinary period of industrial expansion through which we have been passing insures some remarkable displays of progress in the arts and crafts. In the matter of sculpture, too, the St. Louis Fair is likely to outdo all its predecessors. But it is evident that the city must make use of the year which is to elapse before the actual opening to provide adequate accommodations for the expected crowds.

If the Missouri exposures continue, the public is likely to gain considerable valuable light on political methods there and presumably elsewhere. Senator Farris has just been indicted in Dent County for a little affair which he planned and carried out in connection with one Callahan, a Democratic editor. Farris was bent on retaining his seat in the Senate, but felt unable to secure the Dent County delegates. Accordingly, he gave Callahan $1,000, with instructions to become a candidate himself and secure the delegates. This the editor did, and promptly delivered the votes in convention to Farris. This was the main line of activity on Farris's part, but there were sundry side lines which have also been productive of scandals and indictments. He had a candidate for Congress whom he suddenly abandoned to support a man more popular with the "better element." Subsequently the abandoned candidate showed signs of satisfaction and contentment. There were also some instances of plain, old-fashioned bribery, for which suitable rewards, such as employment in various capacities at the Capital, were provided by Farris. He began public life in the humble capacity of justice of the peace, but, with methods like these, he naturally rose rapidly, until he became distinguished as the leader of the "alum" ring in the Legislature.

Just now the members of the Missouri Legislature are under fire in connection with the Baking Powder law, but some attention ought also to be given to the recent disclosures as illustrating the methods of a corporation bent on securing a monopoly. The profits of the baking powder combination in Missouri are said to have been $3,500,000 a year since 1899, when the Anti-Alum bill was passed. The passage of this law was most adroitly managed. The bill was introduced as a pure-food measure. It contained a long list of deadly drugs, arsenic, opium, etc., whose use in food products was prohibited. Inconspicuously tucked away somewhere near the end was the word alum. The Trust sent its most efficient promoter to the Capitol. He purchased such help as he needed. Members in the secret voted for the bill because they were paid to do so; many others voted for it because they were deceived as to its real meaning. When an attempt was made in 1901 to repeal the law, the Trust suddenly organized the "Health Society of Missouri," with headquarters in the law offices of W. J. Stone, the Trust's attorney. This society issued large quantities of printed matter, presenting arguments against the use of alum in baking powder. The Society was a sham, but the repeal bill was smothered, as was a similar attempt last year. Part of the monopoly has been broken by a court decision, but the combination still holds the sole right to manufacture baking powder in the State.

It begins to look, with the deepening and widening, every day, of the postal scandals, as if the President's duty were to return at once to Washington and take personal charge of a relentless campaign against corruptionists. At the very moment when, in St. Louis, he was declaring that "we must show our abhorrence of corruption, in public and private life alike," fresh revelations of rottenness in the postal service were sending out their foul odors. What is now charged, with only too much detail and corroborative evidence, is that the city post-office in Washington has been used as a kind of catch-all for the hangers-on of politicians, carried on the payroll without service performed or warrant of law; that an investigation into this crookedness was undertaken by the Comptroller three years ago, but was called off by the higher postal authorities, including the precious Perry Heath, and even Postmaster-General Smith himself. The charge of a hushed-up inquiry is practically admitted by Comptroller Tracewell to be well-founded. Now here is not simply a public scandal, but a party danger. Unless this fraud upon the public service is thoroughly laid open and disinfected, it will bring great damage to the Republicans and their President. Therefore, we say that it is for the latter to do what his Postmaster-General is evidently incapable of doing—that is, draw his official sword and make the heads begin to fall. He has spoken brave words about fearless honesty in public life; now let him, in his own phrase, make them good by fearless deeds.

The new Mayor of Philadelphia, Mr. Weaver, is taking up the details of administration there in a spirit which, if maintained against the influence of the Durham ring, may well mean better things for that afflicted city. The conviction of school officials who accepted money from teachers in return for promotions and favors, was brought about largely through his efforts while District Attorney. He has announced that he will continue his pursuit of corruption in all its forms, and is already taking steps to break up the well-known alliance between vice and the police. On the side of administrative reform, he is equally vigorous. Philadelphia has need of a considerable amount of money for necessary public improvements, and she also has a debt-limit which has been reached. The problem of providing $37,000,000 for a filtration system, the completion of the Boulevard, etc., is a difficult one. Its solution, however, is likely to be found, as in this city, in the full valuation of real estate for purposes of tax assessment, and the consequent increase of the city's borrowing capacity. The valuations in Philadelphia are now about 80 per cent. of the market price.

The Wisconsin Legislature is about to adjourn without enacting the primary reform so dear to the heart of Gov. La Follette. He has the lower house under his control, but not the Senate, and one proposal after another has been declined with thanks by the "Stalwarts," who are in the majority in that body. This result throws a curious light upon the position assumed by the Governor prior

to the election last year, when he felt himself strong enough to throw down the gauntlet to Senator Spooner, even going so far as to induce the State Convention to qualify its endorsement of the Senator for reëlection. In fact, the notion which prevailed pretty generally in Wisconsin a year ago, that La Follette could do about as he liked in legislation as well as in administration, has received several severe shocks during the present session. A bill changing the tax system as applying to railroads is expected to pass, but this is the only important measure sought by the Governor which has not met with complete neglect or defeat.

One more effort to secure undue special privileges for organized labor has fallen to the ground, this time in Illinois. In 1899 the Illinois Legislature passed a free employment agency act, establishing employment bureaus under the care of the State. The purpose of this act was benevolent and praiseworthy. It was intended to aid all persons who needed work, and also all employers. But the labor agitators got the ear of the legislators, and the act was amended so as to provide that no employer whose workmen were on strike, or who was engaged in a "lockout," should be furnished with workers by the State agencies, or be permitted to inspect the lists of unemployed persons. The Supreme Court of the State has now decided that this amendment involves a discrimination in favor of a class, and the law is consequently declared to be unconstitutional, with the result that labor has lost a legitimate benefit in an attempt to gain an end which was unwarranted and illegal.

The section of the penal code relating to hours of labor, declared invalid by the New York Court of Appeals, on April 29, was enacted in 1897, and attempted to render guilty of a misdemeanor any "person or corporation who, contracting with the State or a municipal corporation, shall require more than eight hours' work for a day's labor." Although it has taken six years formally to overthrow this enactment, it had already failed to perform the service which its advocates hoped for, and their dissatisfaction with it found expression in the amendments to the labor law adopted in 1899. These provided that in each contract to which the State or a municipal corporation was a party, a clause must be included providing for eight hours of labor only, to be paid for at the "prevailing rate" of wages; these terms to apply whether the work was done directly by the contractor or by sub-contractors. The Court of Appeals two years ago placed the ban of its disapproval on this law. Efforts for nearly a decade to fix the eight-hour rule in contracts with the State or any of its municipalities have accordingly come to naught. The attempt has not been abandoned, however. The Legislature in 1902 adopted a joint resolution proposing an amendment of the Constitution, giving the Legislature power to "regulate and fix the wages or salaries, the hours of work or labor, and make provision for the protection, welfare, and safety of persons employed by the State, or any county, city, town, village, or other civil division of the State, or by any contractor or sub-contractor performing work, labor, or services for the State or any county, city, town," etc. This joint resolution was readopted by the Legislature which has just adjourned, and is to be submitted to the people in 1905. It is fortunate that ample time will be given for general consideration of the dangerous powers thus sought to be granted.

The speakers of the Central Federated Union grow vehement over the guarantees of the Federal Constitution, but they are a trifle loose as to the solemn engagements of their own organization. The Union entered into an agreement with the Rapid Transit contractors, two years ago, in which it was stipulated that all disputes should be settled by arbitration. It is the merest quibble for the labor men now to say that this stipulation has no bearing upon the strike declared by the Rockmen and Excavators' Union, on the ground that this organization joined the central body after the agreement was made. In endorsing the strike of the Rockmen without reference to arbitration, the Central Federated Union has violated the spirit and probably the letter of its bond. This has a direct bearing upon the issue which has been raised. It may or may not be that the Rockmen have just reasons for complaint. What is absolutely certain is that, in the light of the Central Union's broken pledge, there is no chance at all that their demands, just or unjust, will receive attention on their merits. By its bad faith, the Union has raised a presumption against the strikers. If they are wisely led, they will go back to work, and seek redress, if they merit it, in the only honest way open to them as members of the Central Federated Union.

The testimony of Mr. Baer, the President of all the Reading companies, before the Interstate Commerce Commission, closed on Thursday. It gave the impression of a man of great intelligence having many difficulties to contend against, and chiefly concerned to bring a fair return to the shareholders of his company for the capital they have invested in the business of mining and transporting coal. When he says that he has never been a party to any scheme of overcapitalization in his life, it may be believed that he speaks the truth. Whatever has been done in this way with the Reading properties in the past was done before his time, and it would be difficult now to say how much of it was due to design and how much to necessity—the necessity of looking forward and anticipating the future wants of the joint Reading interests as producers and carriers of an indispensable but exhaustible article of commerce. If too much money has been paid for coal lands in the past, we must ask, before passing judgment on the buyers, what would be the condition of the property if the lands had not been bought; and so on. Human judgment is not infallible, and in such cases the appropriate punishment falls upon those who make the mistakes.

"The appeal now lies to the ballot-box." So affirms gravely the chief newspaper mourner over the Northern Securities decision. It will be extremely interesting to observe the process. First it would be necessary to catch a political party willing to attack the anti-Trust law in its platform and on the stump. Then it would be necessary to find a great body of voters who believe themselves aggrieved by the decision against the Northern Securities Company. There is no use in "appealing" to the ballot-box unless you have some prospect of getting a majority of the ballots. Every indication to-day, however, is that one small ballot-box, opened, say, at the corner of Broadway and Wall Street, would suffice to hold all the votes that might be cast in favor of abolishing the anti-Trust act. The same newspapers that are going to induce the people to vote down a highly popular law, are also, we observe, about to bring about, in a similar way, the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment. Thus they would "appeal to the ballot-box" in order to shut off that appeal in the case of a million or more legal voters.

"When we present petitions to Congress and pray for relief, we are told to go to the courts, because legal questions are involved. When we go to the courts, we are told to go to Congress for relief, because it is a political question. When Congress grants any of the relief prayed for and the Southern white folks take it to the courts, the courts decide that the act of Congress is unconstitutional."

This is the striking way in which the colored editor of the Richmond (Va.) *Planet* sums up the political condition of the negro, in commenting upon the decision of the Supreme Court in the Alabama case. But he continues: "We negroes have taken the other path now, and expect to emerge on the table-land of financial success and industrial prosperity." This is precisely the wise counsel given by Booker Washington. At the same time, the political cause is not yet lost. Last week's decision, shuffling as it was,

is not the only one which the Supreme Court must give. At least four other suits are pending, and the highest tribunal must be agile indeed if it avoids the real issue in every one. Moreover, there are multiplying signs that Congress will take some action when it reassembles next December. If the Supreme Court insists that violations of the Fifteenth Amendment do not concern it, a Republican Congress cannot turn a deaf ear to the negroes of the South without doing violence to its best and noblest traditions. There is proof in plenty of the injustice of the disfranchising laws, and of the still graver injustice which everywhere marks their enforcement.

A trustworthy Havana correspondent of the *Evening Post* throws an interesting light upon some of Gen. Wood's operations in Cuba. It now appears, for instance, that the remarkable article which was printed in the *North American Review* for January, 1900, over the signature of Lieut. James E. Runcie, United States Army, retired, was deliberately instigated by Gen. Wood, and that the manuscript bore corrections in the handwriting of that officer. The worst part of this offence lies in the fact that the article attacked Gen. Brooke, Gen. Wood's superior, in the most unmeasured terms, and denounced him roundly for his failure properly to govern the island of Cuba. When the article appeared, Gen. Brooke had already been removed, and been succeeded at Havana by Gen. Wood. But the article was so plainly a violation of military decency and discipline that Secretary Root ordered Gen. Wood by cable to call Lieut. Runcie, who had accompanied Gen. Wood from Santiago to Havana, to account for it. This was done, with the result that Lieut. Runcie was removed from several commissions and offices in which, according to Gen. Wood, he was doing most valuable work for the military government. Now it appears that Gen. Wood was as guilty as Lieut. Runcie. This matter is properly one to come before the Senate Military Committee if President Roosevelt insists upon advancing Gen. Wood to the rank of major-general during the coming summer.

It is not necessary to hold the sacramental view of marriage in order to sympathize with those English prelates and clergymen who are so scandalized by the Vanderbilt wedding in church. Let the canonical position be what it may, even those who regard marriage as a civil contract may well be disgusted by the tendency to make hugger-mugger of the family relation, and to give divorce the air of being simply an easy means, for the rich, of changing partners in marriage as you would at a ball. This is the shocking thing. It affronts, not merely sacerdotalism, but ordinary decency. There is no surer sign of the insidious invasion of luxury, ever seeking a new sensation for its jaded nerves, than the growing laxity about marriage. Let any man of middle life recall the social penalty visited upon divorced persons a generation ago, and compare it with the cynical indifference which prevails, as regards even the most flagrant cases of off with the old wife (or husband) and on with the new, in those circles where wealth is the sufficient passport. The difference is as notable as it is painful.

The Cobden Club is not favorably impressed by the publications and other movements of those who are alarmed lest the food supply of Great Britain be endangered in time of war. It has issued a leaflet prepared by Mr. Harold Cox, its Secretary, in which the arguments of the "scaremongers" are reviewed. In the first place he shows that all of these arguments are based upon the theory that an interruption in the supply of wheat from foreign countries would mean famine to a large part of the population, whereas it would at most mean only a change of diet, as, from wheat to oats, potatoes, meats, and other kinds of food. The shortage would of course be felt as a deprivation, but it would not mean famine. The price of all kinds of food would rise, but such a rise in price would not be England's first experience. During the Crimean war the price of wheat rose from 53s. 3d. to 74s. 8d. Again, in 1872, the price of bread rose from natural causes from 5½d. for the quartern loaf to 10½d., yet the period was not marked by any exceptional distress. It is said that, in case of war, the food supply from foreign countries would be cut off by the enemy's cruisers. Mr. Cox points out that food is not contraband of war except to cities actually besieged, and that neutral ships could not be molested by the enemy without embroiling himself with neutral nations. The higher the price of wheat, the more eager would the producers and holders of that cereal be to send it to the British market. America, for example, would not tamely submit to having grain-laden vessels stopped on the ocean and prevented from carrying on a commerce which is recognized as lawful. It has been proposed by some persons that the Government should organize a system of buying and storing a large supply of wheat for emergencies of war. This Mr. Cox shows to be quite unnecessary, for the reason that wars do not come suddenly, and that merchants would accumulate all needful stocks on the first signs of war. They would do this for purposes of profit, but they would also take the risk of loss. This would be the natural course, and much better than Governmental interference.

The news of the week relating to the Mantchurian question converges to the one point that Secretary Hay's protest against the Russian programme was the chief reason why it was disavowed. Japan has telegraphed her thanks, and Ambassador Cassini has conveyed not exactly thanks, but the good will of his Government and himself, in large measure. Still later information implies that the so-called demands made upon China by Russia were merely inquiries. What would China do or say if Russia should do this or that? Thirst for information is a very different thing from a demand that Chinese ports shall remain closed, or that no more foreign consuls be allowed in Mantchuria. This explanation, it is said, involves no retreat from any position officially taken by Russia. Of course not. The only positions taken by Russia are those taken at St. Petersburg. Requests for information may be as plenty as blackberries at Peking, but they do not commit the Czar's Government to any policy whatever. All this is agreeable news at Washington, but it will be still more satisfactory when Russia carries out her agreement for the evacuation of Mantchuria. Meanwhile, news coming directly from Peking says that the Russian Chargé d'Affaires has issued a denial similar to that of St. Petersburg. He states that his communication was misconstrued, and that the only conditions formulated by him as precedent to the evacuation of Mantchuria are those necessary for the protection of Russian interests. This is so extremely vague that it may include anything, from complete evacuation to complete and permanent occupation. It leaves the same conviction in the minds of observers that all other events in that quarter have produced—that Russia will retain as much of Mantchuria now as she can hold without being obliged to fight for it, and that some time she will get the whole.

It seems that Premier Combes has found it necessary to draw the line somewhere in his movement against the religious orders in France. At all events, he has drawn such a line at Lourdes. Whether the considerations which caused him to make an exception here are financial or religious, is not made clear. The pilgrimages to Lourdes brought a great deal of money to that locality. The miracles that the pilgrims took back may have been of doubtful efficacy, but the gold that they left there and distributed *en route* was as good as any that ever came from the mint. To abolish both miracles and mint drops at one time is more than human nature should be asked to endure. It was wise on the part of the Premier to refer the matter to the courts, or, at all events, to wait until the question, already before the courts, is finally decided.

STRIKE-COMMISSION LOGIC.

When the abstract of the Anthracite Strike Commission's report was published, we felt and expressed the sense of a lack of connection between the Commission's findings of fact and its awards. It seemed not to have a clear case for the increase of wages which it adjudged the miners. Yet it was, of course, possible that the abstract did injustice to the reasoning of the full report, and so we suspended judgment, awaiting the appearance of the latter. We have it at last, Bulletin No. 46 of the Department of Labor, and are surprised to find that the hiatus between premises and conclusion is even more glaring than we had supposed. The Commissioners discredit and reject almost the entire case which the miners attempted to make out for an increase of wages, but award them the increase nevertheless.

This will seem a strong assertion, but it may easily be justified. The shortest and most convincing way to do it is to set forth in parallel columns the arguments of the miners' counsel and the remarks of the Commission upon them, in the light of the evidence adduced. Such an exhibit follows:

THE CLAIMS.	THE FINDINGS.
"(1.) The present rate of wages is much lower than the rate of wages paid in the bituminous coal fields for substantially similar work."	"As to the general contention that the rates of compensation for contract miners in the anthracite region are lower than those paid in the bituminous fields for work substantially similar, or lower than are paid in other occupations requiring equal skill and training, the Commission finds that there has been a failure to produce testimony to sustain either of these propositions."
"(2.) The present rate of wages is lower than is paid in other occupations requiring equal skill and training."	"We do not find that testimony has been adduced which would permit satisfactory comparison with earnings in the bituminous coal fields."
"(3.) The average annual earnings in the anthracite coal fields are much less than the average annual earnings in the bituminous coal fields for substantially similar work."	"We find that the average daily rate of earnings, as nearly as can be ascertained, does not compare unfavorably with that in other occupations requiring substantially equal skill and training."
"(4.) The average annual earnings in the anthracite coal fields are much less than the average annual earnings for occupations requiring equal skill and training."	"The statistics so far available do not show a greater hazard than obtains in some other occupations, notably in the fisheries and in those of switchmen and freight-train crews on our railroads."
"(5.) The rate of wages in the anthracite coal fields is insufficient in view of the dangerous character of the occupation."	"The Commission finds that the conditions of the life of the mine workers outside the mines do not justify, to their full extent, the adverse criticisms made by their representatives."
"(6.) The annual earnings of the mine workers are insufficient to maintain the American standard of living."	"The contention that the increased cost of living has made it impossible to maintain a fair standard of life upon the basis of present wages."
"(7.) The increased cost of living has made it impossible to maintain a fair standard of life upon the basis of present wages."	"(8.) The wages of the anthracite workers are so low that their children are forced prematurely into the breakers and mills."
"(8.) The wages of the anthracite workers are so low that their children are forced prematurely into the breakers and mills."	"(9.) Wages are below the fair and just earnings of mine workers."
"(9.) Wages are below the fair and just earnings of mine workers."	"It is impossible to be accurate in this matter."

There is the whole case. Those nine arguments were the only ones put forward by the counsel for the miners or considered by the Commission. And what we ask is, Who, on reading the findings, as set over against the claims, could doubt that the miners would be turned out of court without a leg to stand on? Who, hearing a judge thus sum up so heavily against a claimant, could doubt that it was preliminary to dismissing the case summarily? Yet, in fact, "The Commission, therefore [note that astonishing *therefore*], considers, and so adjudges and awards: That an increase of 10 per cent. over and above the rate paid in the month of April, 1902, be paid to all contract miners for cutting coal, yardage and other work."

Nor does a reading in detail of the Commission's report, in the part that relates to wages, diminish our wonder at the way in which it "made the praise and glory of God come out in the conclusion, no matter what the premises." Its investigation of the rise in the cost of living was particularly searching. The miners contended that this rise, in the anthracite regions, had been 30 per cent. between 1900 and 1902. But careful inquiry and collation of facts by the Department of Labor showed that the real increase was only 9.8 per cent. That is to say, the 10 per cent. increase in wages which the men received in 1900 had not been eaten up, as they alleged, by a 30 per cent. increase in the cost of living. Similarly in regard to the irregularity of work. The Commission found that, in the past, the idleness of the contract miners was often their own fault, and that "it may be reasonably expected that the future demand for anthracite coal will keep the industry at its present point of activity"—that is, where it furnishes full employment for a large part of the year.

President Roosevelt in Omaha held up the report of the Strike Commission as a model. He certainly could not have meant a model of logic. When it came to announce its verdict, it quietly turned its back on the evidence and its own analysis of it. The real "therefore" of its conclusion was unexpressed. It did not relate to the argument or the testimony which the Commission heard—that its own report betrays—but to the general expectation, or to a desire to make the arbitration a success, or possibly to political motives, half consciously influential. At any rate, the Commission has given out a document which is as interesting psychologically as it is industrially. It shows how the human mind will work. And as for the Commission's severe and solemn arraignment of trades unions for violence and murder, what attitude towards that can it expect the men to take, after the gross partiality of its award in their favor, but that of the Irish vixen in Miss Edgeworth's play? "Give me leave," said the magistrate, "to advise you a little for your good." "Plase, your Honor," cried Catty Rooney, "it's no use—from a child up I never could stand to be advised for my good!"

EXPANSION AND EXPANSION.

President Roosevelt's address at St. Louis on Thursday had a vigorous swing and was marked by a rough-and-ready philosophy. He was on his own ground, both personally and as an historian, in describing the winning of the West; and his strong and iterative phrases savor of the caravan and the camp and the forest settlement. His main argument, moreover, is perfectly sound. The men who came to this country with empire in their brains had to have room to grow, and their push westward was like that of an irresistible tide. That they did not break off, governmentally, from their parent States, was more the work of the inventor than the statesman. But for steamboat and railway and telegraph, Oregon and California would never have consented to be governed from Washington. Mr. Roosevelt did not dwell upon this, but he was eminently correct in picturing American expansion as that of a great democracy over contiguous territory, where free institutions and self-government went west with the sun.

Neither President Roosevelt nor ex-President Cleveland, in speaking of the expansion of 1803, referred specifically to the expansion of 1899; but it was obviously lurking in the back of both their heads. "We have never," said Mr. Roosevelt, "tried to force on any section of our new territory an unsuitable form of government." He was plainly making a tacit apology for our course in the Philippines. "We memorialize," declared Mr. Cleveland, "a peaceful acquisition of territory for truly American uses and purposes." The reference is clear to an acquisition by force for un-American ends. Again the Philippines! The subject will not down. Americans cannot meet anywhere to celebrate the triumphs of free government, without an awkward pause, a look askance, as the conquered Filipino thrusts forward his manacled hands, asking, "What are you going to do with me?"

President Roosevelt did well to cite the example of expanding Rome as one for us to avoid. He did not, however, say just what were the evils of Roman

expansion, or how nearly we are paralleling them in the Philippines. They were, of course, mainly the ruthless exploitation of distant lands and peoples. The provinces were the prey of rapacious prætors—the politicians with a "pull," of their day. Everything was to be wrung from them, nothing given. As Tacitus said, the Roman colonies came to mean not a collection of human beings, but a mere symbol: so many colonies, so much plunder. In like manner, the Philippines have now become to our ruling class—the men who create and fill offices and grant franchises—simply a new country to be overrun and exploited. At the very moment when President Roosevelt was lauding self-government, the telegraph was bringing word of another embezzler in the Philippines. "O. G. Milne, postmaster of Tacloban, Leyte, has been convicted of misappropriating funds." What is an American doing there? If his name were Quintus Paulus, or even José Sanchez, we could understand that it was simply a case of colonial robbery, but O. G. Milne! "These French names," said Thierry, apropos of the Canadian rebellion of 1837, "cut me to the heart." So we say of these American names of Philippine oppressors.

Neither the passage of time, nor the apparent indifference and acquiescence of the people, can really change this question. Principles remain and facts are what they are. We are only proving the truth of what the author of 'Representative Government' long ago told us—namely, that "such a thing as a government of one people by another does not and cannot exist." Mill added—and this day is his prophecy fulfilled in our ears—"One people may keep another as a warren or preserve for its own use, a place to make money in, a human cattle farm, to be worked for the profits of its own inhabitants; but, if the good of the governed is the proper business of a government, it is utterly impossible that a people should directly attend to it." The work has to be done by delegates; and the history of the world shows that irresponsible and arbitrary delegates, in remote lands, degenerate, as we have seen too many of our representatives in the Philippines, into cruel and extortionate masters of the enslaved. Froude was not a man to cherish humanitarian scruples or democratic prejudices, yet he wrote that, "if there be one lesson which history clearly teaches, it is this, that free nations cannot govern subject provinces."

By whatever door we go in, here is where we always come out. The acquisition of the Philippines was a violent break with all our best American traditions. It was wholly out of line with our historic expansion. None of the arguments which justify the latter can throw a mantle of decency about the former. It was a bloody conquest of an inoffensive people; and in order to align that with the expansion of the United States, you must first burn the Declaration of Independence and wrap your cartridges in the Sermon on the Mount.

FORGETFULNESS OF REPUBLICS.

The well-known publicist, Gabriel Hanotaux, gives the following explanation of his purpose in writing a comprehensive history of 'Contemporary France': "Every day," he says, "democracy is required to settle the most arduous problems, and fails to remember that they have been raised a hundred times already, and that the answer has already been given by itself only yesterday." For his own country, he proposes to afford "a sufficient quantity of definite information, of documents which have been checked, of precedents which have been verified"; and he sets before himself the serious task of making the French democracy "pause one moment for reflection and consider its own acts and deeds, which, in proportion as they are left behind, become history." It is a novel and an ambitious enterprise, this of forcing a republic to take account of its own precedents and tendencies. It is also a useful task, for republics are as certainly forgetful as they proverbially are ungrateful.

This forgetfulness, which too often prevents republics from profiting by their own past experience, is probably closely bound up with the party system. Monarchies offer, at least theoretically, a personification of the nation, independent of and above party. Traditions and precedents gather about a royal house as they cannot about a government which is identified with a party. How shall there be any settled continuity where the avowed policy of each new administration may be to undo the work of the last? But this neglect of the lessons of history, if a natural defect in republics, is by no means inevitable or irremediable. It prevails in an alarming degree only when the leaders of public opinion fail signally in their duty of reading the present in the light of the approved teachings of the past.

What a difference it would make in our most vexatious political and social questions, if, instead of treating them as new problems, we could realize that they are all old, and most of them partially solved. Our Southern fellow-citizens, and many Northerners, are to-day treating the matter of the negro's rights as if it were an open question, as if the anti-slavery movement, the civil war, the consequent amendments to the Constitution had settled nothing. A very little consultation of history within the experience of living men would show so clearly whither tends every unfair effort to keep down the colored man, that the most violent advocate of "white man's government" would shudder at the future he is preparing for his children. The civil war settled more than slavery; it put the nation squarely on record for political equality, irrespective of race. The principle may be temporarily evaded by chicanery, it may be confused with the unwarrantable assumption that the political equality of the negro carries with it *pari passu* his social equality; but so doing, a movement is bruising itself against the hard wall of an adjudicated fact. Where slavery proved impossible, no theory of a liberal serfage can be permanently worked. A very little reference to the history of the white man's dealings with the negro would show that the real question which confronts the South is not how to dispose of the negro for the next few years, but how to avoid the calamitous results that must follow any settlement of that difficult problem which will not for all time be just.

Ordinary sagacity will consider the results of tried policies when a familiar case recurs. If as much hindsight could be enforced upon politicians as prevails among physicians or bank officials, our outlook would be happier than it is. But broader historical retrospect will lead to toleration, and should readily be convertible into practical wisdom. President G. Stanley Hall, addressing the Massachusetts Historical Society in January last on "The Relations between Higher and Lower Races," said:

> "Our democracy needs a type of historical study that glimpses these larger questions, and, while hopeful, does not assume that we are the *beati possidentes*, or our age the culminating period of history, but rather that its brighest pages are yet to be written because the best and greatest things have not happened yet. Nor does this necessarily imply that even our own blood or our own institutions will dominate the far future. In many lands the victims have been the real conquerors. In later ages other stocks, now obscure, and perhaps other tongues now unstudied, will occupy the centre of the historic stage, appropriating the best we achieve, as we learn from the Semites, Greeks, and Romans. If this be true, every vigorous race, however crude and undeveloped, is, like childhood, worthy of the maximum of reverence and care and study, and may become the chosen organ of a new dispensation of culture and civilization. Some of the now obscure may be the heirs of all we possess, and wield the ever-increasing resources of the world for good or evil, somewhat perhaps according as we now influence their early plastic stages."

In the turmoil of life in a new republic, few attain to so philosophical an outlook. All the more urgent their duty to enforce the easier truth that genuine progress comes only when past experience guides present policy. The republic which treats all things as if they were new, is like an insurance company that should systematically disregard its actuarial tables.

THE SPECIAL FRANCHISE TAX.

In the year 1899 the State Legislature passed a law classifying as real estate, for purposes of taxation, every franchise or right to use a public street or highway for purposes of gain. These

were termed *special* franchises to distinguish them from the general franchise or right to be a corporation. The right to occupy a street or highway for a special purpose, such as a railway, on, or over, or under, the surface of the ground, or for a pipe line to convey gas, steam, oil, or electricity, is something over and above the right to be a corporation, and is frequently the main thing, the *sine qua non*, that gives value to the corporation. The Legislature in 1899 for the first time sought to make this kind of value contribute to the public expenses at the same rate as other tangible and immovable property. It accordingly passed a law which made these special franchises taxable in the same way as the adjoining houses and lots; the value of each franchise to be assessed by public officers.

The litigation which followed the passage of this act reached its final stage on Tuesday week, so far as the State courts are concerned, in a unanimous decision of the Court of Appeals affirming the Constitutionality of the act at all points. It is said that the corporations affected by it will now take an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States. If the latter tribunal should be convinced that it has jurisdiction of the case, it may go so far as to review the finding of the highest tribunal of the State, but it is hardly possible that it should reverse that finding. It is a rule of the Supreme Court, we believe, that, in the interpretation of a State law, it will follow the latest settled decision of the courts of that State. The unanimous decision of the New York Court of Appeals must be considered a settled decision of the State, so far as anything can be considered settled in this world. Hence there is small ground for expecting that the decision just rendered at Albany will be reversed.

That the corporations expected that the validity of the tax would be upheld was made manifest by the very slight disturbance of values on the Stock Exchange. The steadiness of the market proves also that no substantial injustice has been done by the tax." If, after all the water that has been poured into Metropolitan Traction and Manhattan Elevated, the shares are still bought and sold far above their par value, sympathy is obviously wasted upon them. The owners of these shares have not made as much money as they expected to make. They have not been able to control the law-making power to the extent that they hoped to do. They will have to pay taxes hereafter as do private owners of real estate. This will be a great gain to the city treasury, and it is not unlikely that other American cities and States will avail themselves of this new source of revenue. We observe that Gov. Odell, *en route* to St. Louis, said at Indianapolis that he was not surprised at the decision. As he recommended, in his last annual message, that the franchise tax be repealed and a tax on gross receipts be substituted in place of it, we cannot assume that he was gratified by it.

The reason why the tax provided for in the Ford law (the special franchise tax) is preferable to a tax on gross receipts is that it is more just, and will yield a far greater sum to the public revenue than the other. It is more just because it puts the private owner of real estate and the corporate owner on a footing of equality. It will yield a greater revenue because the percentage of gross receipts collected would probably correspond to the percentage levied on other property, say, 2½ per cent. If a company's gross earnings are $100,000 per year, the tax (on the gross earnings plan) would be $2,500. But the total value of the property, in such a case, would probably be as much as $500,000, and a tax on this capital would be $12,500. The private owner of real estate is taxed not on the gross receipts from the rents of his property, but on its gross value, and this he must pay even if it yields no rental. This distinction between gross rental and gross value is not generally understood, but to those who look below the surface it is plain that Gov. Odell's argument for a tax on gross receipts instead of the franchise tax is altogether fallacious.

The decision of the Court of Appeals in this case harmonizes in a broad way with that of the Circuit Court of the United States in the Northern Securities case. It is another sign that public opinion demands the putting of a curb on corporations, not in an indiscriminate mad rush, but in a safe and orderly manner, so that the rights of individual men shall not be submerged under vast combinations, or the social movement clogged by the concentration of wealth in a comparatively few hands when it is accomplished in contravention of the principles of the common law. It has been, indeed, the apparent inability of the country to pause anywhere in the career of merged mergers, upon which it seemed to have madly entered, that has most impressed foreign financial observers, and most alarmed thoughtful Americans. On every hand we heard of absorption and over-capitalization, but where were the *vestigia retrorsum?* Well, the United States Circuit Court showed how one combination might be broken up. The New York Court of Appeals has given the people another hook to put in the nose of Leviathan, if they wish. It has been found, that is to say, that the creatures of law are not above the law. The sovereign power which charters can control. The law-making body which grants privileges, can tax the wealth which results from them. It is simply the discovery of those truths, now supported by the highest judicial authority, which has carried so much dismay into certain financial and political circles.

What they fail to see is that the only alternative to a measured and orderly control of corporate power is either revolution or Socialism. Socialists are not the only ones to have discovered the powerful impetus given to their cause by those who have laid railroad to railroad and industry to industry. The final jumping-off place of such aggregations of capital is, too obviously, national ownership. They would either break down in private hands, or else break the nation down. To take them over by the State would not necessarily mean confiscation. Expropriation would do the work, as we see it attempted to-day in Ireland. The private owners would get a price, though not for their water, and then they would be taxed smartly, by graduated income taxes and otherwise, to help pay the bill. That is plainly the Socialistic programme; and that towards its accomplishment the corporate tendencies of the day make inevitably, we do not see how any man who keeps his eyes open can deny. For our part, it is just because we believe with all our hearts in individualism and competition—in other words, in liberty—that we can but hail every proof that the people have not surrendered the power to deal as they will with the corporations of their own creating. If they could not, we should advance with accelerated pace towards that State Socialism which, to our mind, spells tyranny.

There are, of course, some things which laws and courts cannot do. They cannot make men's talents equal. They cannot prevent the higher capacity from winning the higher reward. They cannot permanently check the inventor or the initiator or the captain of industry. In short, they cannot remodel human nature or do away with economic law. But the law can compel its own creatures to be law-abiding. As an instrument in the hands of the people, it can make artificial beings like corporations subserve the general good. If the Northern Securities decision, and the opinion of the Court of Appeals as to the franchise tax, are (as they have been called) "backward steps" only in that sense, then we consider them among the most wholesome and hopeful ever taken.

THE KAISER AT ROME.

Even Bismarck, after his proud "We will not go to Canossa," lived to need and seek the political aid of German Catholics. It is not strange, therefore, to find the Emperor William, in the pursuit of the great policies which he has at heart, going all the way to Rome. His visit to the Vatican—for it is obvious that his real destination was there, and not the Quirinal—was made as imposing as outward pomp could render it, and falls, unquestionably, at a most significant crisis. We do not refer to

any domestic difficulties of Germany, as touching Catholic questions. Embarrassments exist in connection with the return of the Jesuits, which Von Bülow promised to permit in return for necessary Clerical votes in the Reichstag, and there are certain aspects of the school and university questions which are making trouble; but these are only minor and incidental matters.

What the Kaiser is really thought to be concerning himself about is a much larger question. It relates to his vast colonial schemes, and has to do especially with the prestige of Germany in the Orient. In a word, he is apparently bent on supplanting France as the titular protector of the Catholic Church in the East. Just at present, the relations between the Vatican and the French Government are exceedingly strained. The harsh enforcement of the rigid law against the religious orders in France has led not merely to many incidental hardships, but to a great deal of bad feeling and indignation. The advisers of the Pope might well urge him to break with a republic that had shown itself so ungrateful for Leo XIII.'s aid in consolidating its power at home, and at least to refuse it the honor of posing longer as the official defender of the Catholic faith in the Orient. At this juncture, the Kaiser comes forward to offer the services of Germany, at a time when, as he said in one of his speeches in Palestine, five years ago, "the German Empire and the German name have now acquired throughout the empire of the Osmanli a higher reputation than ever before."

France has had distinct warning that she could not go on flouting the Holy See at home while representing it abroad. When the Law of Associations, aimed at the Catholic orders, was still pending, the Pope wrote a letter to the Cardinal-Archbishop of Paris, in which he made a very significant reference to the protectorate which France exercised over Catholic missions in the East. French Catholic missionaries, observed his Holiness, had done an incalculable work in extending, with the Gospel, "the name, the language, and the prestige of France" throughout the ends of the earth. The Pope was arguing, of course, that a country bound by such ties to the Church ought not to appear as its persecutor. And the fair inference was that if, in spite of the warning, a doctrinaire anti-Clerical Government went rashly on in the work of expelling Catholic monks and sisters from France, the Vatican would be compelled to seek another protector in the Oriental world.

How important, in a governmental and commercial way, the official connection with the Holy See has been to France, it would be easy to prove from the writings and speeches of French economists and statesmen. M. René Pinon, writing recently in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of the stake of France in the extreme Orient, said that "it is a mere commonplace to affirm that a long and historical coöperation has rendered the interests of France and those of the Catholic Church inseparable." Scarcely a debate takes place in the Chamber on the policy of the Government, as respects colonizing and trade in Syria or China, which does not bring from the Foreign Minister an acknowledgement of indebtedness to Catholic missionaries. M. Delcassé spoke in that sense, not long ago, when French influence in the Turkish Empire was under discussion. It is thus a serious blow to France which the Vatican would be able to deal in giving another the rôle of protector of the Catholic Church and Defender of the Catholic Faith.

What qualifications has Protestant Germany to take up the work, in case it is removed from the hands of nominally Catholic France? Going beyond the first incongruity of the idea, we see how the thing would fit in with German plans and aspirations. In Syria and throughout all Mesopotamia, German railway enterprises are taking on a great importance. In China, the Germans are exploring and exploiting their holdings in a fashion which shows that they mean to stay, and to claim new consideration in all Eastern questions. With a restless and versatile Emperor, a growing naval power, and a nation bent on great schemes of trade and colonization across the sea, it is evident that Germany could both get and give aid in such an alliance with the Papacy as that which France has long enjoyed, but seems now to be on the point of losing. It is not impossible, therefore, that, on his next journey to the Turkish Empire, the Kaiser may announce himself not only as the friend of the Sultan and the defender of the Protestant faith in Palestine—such he proclaimed himself in 1898—but the chosen representative of the Holy See as well.

THE "MUNICIPALIZATION OF BREAD" IN ITALY.

NAPLES, March 23, 1903.

All Italy is discussing an experiment in what is called by the awkward title of the "municipalization of bread"—that is, the assumption on the part of local authorities of the business of baking and distributing to its inhabitants all the bread consumed within its limits. The Italian Government's monopoly of certain lines of enterprise, of which the cultivation and manufacture of tobacco is the most conspicuous example, has made the logical transition to governmental control of other industries intelligible to even the most ignorant and thoughtless. In several of the small towns, from time to time, the local authorities have taken upon themselves, for longer or shorter periods, the functions of a public bakery. This has usually been (as in the little town of Positano, on the northern shore of the bay of Salerno, three or four years ago) as a temporary expedient during strikes. At that time, the bread manufactured by the town was of a better quality and cost less than what the bakers had provided. On the settlement of the strike the *municipio* ceased its interference. At the present time Perugia owns and operates both a mill and a bakery, and Forlì a bakery; but no large city of France or of Italy has undertaken such an enterprise until, quite recently, Catania. The experiment of Catania has been watched far beyond the bounds of Sicily, and from Milan to Naples people are measuring its success and discussing the desirability of following her example.

To show how vital this question of good and cheap bread is, the condition of the inhabitants of Positano may be taken as an example. Like the greater part of the towns of Southern Italy, it has been left behind in the march of the world's progress. Its young men leave their homes, the guide-books have been saying, and travel through the ex-kingdom of Naples as hawkers; but now it is nearer the truth to say that of its 3,000 natural inhabitants more than a third are in New York. "With the exception of a few boatmen, the population therefore consists chiefly of old men, women, and children." The old women, with distaff and spindle and old hand-looms, make a coarse sacking from refuse hemp, and earn a lira a day. The young women have been taught lace-making in the public school, and their cushions and pins may be found in all the houses. Their work is slower and more exacting, and they earn even less than a lira a day. The shoemaker works more than two days making by hand a pair of low shoes, walks to Sorrento, two hours distant, to buy his materials, for which he pays more than four liras, and then asks seven liras for his product—hardly more than a lira per diem. The letter-carrier, barefooted and ragged, a span-new leather pouch his only badge of office, is paid half a lira a day, and receives a dole at the door when he brings a package or registered letter. How can he live on his wage? He doesn't; fortunate man, he has a hard-working son in New York. But the women who bring down large bundles of fagots on their shoulders from the mountain villages do not seem to earn more than the postman, if one may judge from their bare feet and legs and their patched, short calico dresses.

What do these people eat? It begs the question to answer, as some one did, "They eat New York." For breakfast one eats five centimes' worth of bread—a cent's worth; at noon, more bread, a raw onion or tomato, or occasionally a piece of fish, and this costs a man twenty centimes. At night he may eat macaroni with a vegetable, beans or polenta (cornmeal mush), and bread and perhaps a little wine; and this costs him sixty centimes. If one adds three cents for contingencies, rent, clothing, et cetera, the lira a day is consumed. Fuel to keep himself warm he never has, rarely needs. His home usually has but one or two rooms, and, if he has not inherited it, he can hire one of three or four rooms, rather weak in doors and windows, yet habitable enough in this climate, for four cents a day. A quart of wine, costing nine or ten cents, lasts a moderate man a week. He may choose bread and water for breakfast and supper, and a minestra, a meal of soup, made of bread and water and vege-

tables and a little fat. A few figs or a little fruit, an orange, or a medlar or two, may sometimes afford a change of diet; all, perhaps, grown just outside his door. Bread, then, is his mainstay—bread bought of the baker in this land of fireless houses. Every soldo's worth of fuel is carefully reckoned where such numbers of people live in great misery. A few sticks kindled in a corner on the stone floor is enough to warm the minestra, and a few bricks taken from the wall above lets the smoke out, if not so successfully as most chimneys. In few houses of the poor can be found a stove that will bake bread—at best there is only a brazier. A few buy a little flour, mix it crudely, and take it to the baker's and pay him so much per kilo for baking it in his oven. It is a hard, unpalatable-looking thing, which requires much soaking in water before it is eaten. If these are the conditions in which all but a few in Positano live, how can they be much better in Naples, where half a million people have even less elbow-room? Meat they rarely can have, except haply at Easter or Christmas, and eggs are all but unknown. No wonder they kill even the song-birds for food.

As in France, almost every Italian town has its tax-gatherers stationed at its approaches, levying an impost chiefly on whatever is used for food. Not long ago a law was passed making it obligatory for all towns, whenever their finances had reached a certain degree of prosperity, to abolish the "dazio," as this toll is called. This law took effect, as far as Catania was concerned, the first of last July. About the same time there was a change in the personnel of the city government. The citizens expected that a fall in the price of bread would follow the abolishment of this tax on flours and meals, but the bakers formed a union and maintained prices. There was enough indignation to induce the new city officials to make an investigation of the question of both cost and quality. In consequence, they demanded a reduction in the price of ordinary bread five centimes on a kilo. The bakers refused, in spite of popular feeling and the suffering caused the poor; and, forming a still stricter union, they threatened not only a general strike, but also an increase of four centimes in the price of a kilo. There was little inclination under these circumstances for a purely academic discussion such as has been going on in Naples, and as would be worth stopping to consider if your space permitted.

On the refusal of the local bakers to accept the conditions made by the city, there was great popular indignation, and when the authorities insisted and declared their intention of opening public bakeries to provide the people with bread, many citizens freely offered their assistance. Brick ovens are found in not a few of the better private houses, and these were offered for the city's use, and many of the smaller shops offered to sell without accepting the proffered commission of 5 per cent.; others gave their services in the actual process of bread-making. A single large bakery was secured. Seeing that their side was losing the contest, the bakers applied to the city for employment, and, out of compassion for their families, they were given work both in the municipal bakeries and in retailing the bread on commission. Then they attempted to ruin the movement by spoiling the bread in the baking, and by selling it only after it had grown stale. Finally, they tried to starve out the town by deserting the bread in the dough. Discharged from the city's employment, they assembled and requested to be allowed to reopen their shops. This was permitted, but they found that they could not compete with the city, for the simple reason that a single large establishment, producing exceptional quantities and exacting only a small profit on every hundredweight, can succeed where a smaller undertaking fails in the effort to give the same quality at the same price. Instead of the advanced price demanded by the bakers, Catania reduced the price for the ordinary quality, first from 36 or 37 to 28 centimes per kilo, and then to 22 centimes, a rate of two cents a pound—ten centimes a kilo less than the current price in Naples for bread of the same quality.

The public immediately perceived an improvement in the quality of the bread furnished by the city. Now, after a struggle of eight months, the bakers have again reopened their bakeries, with the approval of the city, submitting to all the rules imposed upon them, and accepting the city's price-list. The general public looks on with a certain indignation at the course they have pursued. The working bakers of the municipal plant have agreed never to resume work in any of the bakeries now reopened or to be reopened, as they labor now under more equitable conditions and with less fatigue, and receive better wages. These have become enthusiastic supporters of the new movement. Catania has recently opened a large central modern bakery. Thirty-four ovens, with a capacity of 2,500 kilogrammes, were in use the first day, and this number is being increased as rapidly as possible. On the second day, forty ovens were in operation, and 70,000 kilos of bread were baked and sold. It is now intended to open branch bakeries in the various parts of the city and its suburbs.

A detailed statement has been issued for the benefit of those communities, large or small, like Naples or Nocera Inferiore, which contemplate following in Catania's footsteps. The books are open for investigation and confirmation of this statement. It is based on the experiences of the past eight months, excluding only the period of organization, during which citizens gave their services without pay. On a basis of a productive power of 600 quintals (or 60,000 kilos) a day, a net profit to the city is shown of about 138 liras a day, or, in round numbers, 50,000 liras a year. It is claimed that this profit is not due merely to the abolition of the dazio, because other places have been affected by the law abolishing it and there has been no consequent reduction in the price of the bread sold in those places, but whatever profit has arisen has accrued to the manufacturer. Catania claims that the profit of the municipal plant springs chiefly from reduced expenses consequent upon the centralization of production and modern equipment, from increased consumption, and from the direction of an energetic and capable business man. The production is now intrusted to about 500 laborers; the middlemen and the unskilful and incapable are excluded. These are divided into squads, which relieve each other at intervals, under only the necessary superintendence.

There are one or two items in this statement worth quoting. The men who mix and knead the bread are paid about four liras a day; 100 kilos of flour make 119 kilos of bread. Two mixers are employed to produce 600 quintals a day, at a cost of 1.3 centimes per 100 kilos. Two engineers are employed; one by day, whose daily wage is 2.40 liras, and one by night at 2.60—a dollar a day for both together. Supervision costs seven liras per day. There are also the items of heating the ovens, illumination and motor power, which diminish proportionately with increasing production. This expense, according to experts, amounts to 246.60 liras per day, or .411 per quintal. Rent costs 5,500 liras a year, or .025 per quintal, and the commission for selling, 5 per cent.

The three chief advantages alleged by Catania to have been secured by its experiment are that its inhabitants have never before been supplied with bread of so good a quality, never at so low a price; and this result has been effected not only without expense to the city, but with an actual profit at the rate of 50,000 liras a year. The bread now provided is made of unadulterated flour, and consequently is more nutritive and healthier, whereas that previously sold was too often made of dishonest mixtures of the poorest qualities of flour, even when nothing worse entered into its composition. Consequently, it is claimed as an advantage arising from this socialistic experiment that there ensues a greater freedom from disease among the laboring classes, fewer working days are lost, and less money needs to be spent for doctors and medicines.

The records of the office of the dazio prove that, before the city began to manufacture bread, 3,000 quintals a month of farinella were brought into Catania, and that none passes its limits now. Farinella is the term applied to the worst grades of flour—and in Italy twelve or thirteen qualities are distinguished—flour made from wheat that has spoiled in the field or grown damp and sour in storage. This Italian word, farinella, is synonymous with roguery. Statistics of the past ten years prove that, in spite of notable reductions in the price of flours and meals in different years, a high price for bread has been maintained in Catania until now. In fact, the price has always risen with the price of flour and remained at the same point with its fall. During the past months the price of bread has always remained below that of flour. The city claims that the benefits of its economical management, its centralized production, are felt exclusively by the consumers, who also enjoy the profit arising from the extension of the enterprise. The records of the office of the dazio prove also that the consumption of flour has increased one-fifth over previous periods. This may mean that the reduced price enables people to buy more bread, and this is credible in view of the well-established fact of the insufficient nutrition of the working classes in Italy. Or it may mean that when the city became the only consumer of flour, flour ceased to be smuggled into the city; to the profit of the local finances, and therefore the benefit of the general public. Both explanations may be true.

At a baker's in Ravello three qualities of flour were found in use—a good quality of wheat flour, and a very poor quality, and one resembling "Graham" flour. For the hotels a raised white bread is made and a

good quality of "Graham" bread. Then there is a bread made of a mixture of the Graham and the poorer quality of flour, which is sold at 24 centimes a kilo. This is also made into small narrow strips, baked hard, and sold stale under the name of "biscotti." This is in common use by the poorest in the place. Soaked in water, it becomes their staple diet. Another form of bread sold by this baker is called Pizza, and apparently is made of a very coarse cornmeal, mixed with water and a little salt, and baked in sheets in a hot oven. It is rather less palatable than our negroes' "hoe-cake," and is considered an unwholesome food in hot weather.

THE INTERNATIONAL HISTORICAL CONGRESS.

ROME, April 10, 1903.

The second International Congress of Historical Sciences closed yesterday after an eight days' session. The number of persons in attendance, and the number and quality of the papers presented, have far exceeded expectations. Nearly 2,500 members, of whom 300 were foreigners, have been enrolled, and 1,800 were present—so many that late comers, who had neglected to get their tickets before March 1, had to be excluded. The truly international character of the Congress is shown by the fact that it embraced representatives of eighteen different countries, including Japan, China, and India in the Far East, and Chile, Paraguay, Brazil, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela in South America. France sent the largest foreign delegation, as the French Government took pains to appoint one or more representatives of each university and professional school, including the Écoles de Droit and des Lettres at Algiers. The German delegation was, of course, strong in scholarship, but, except Harnack, it contained nobody of general reputation outside of his particular specialty. Indeed, no better illustration of the extent to which specializing has gone could be had than the fact that here were scores of men, each of whom was a recognized authority in his department, although he might not be known even by name to members of another department meeting in an adjoining hall.

The American delegation was unfortunately small. Those enrolled were Prof. H. E. Bourne (Western Reserve); Prof. E. C. Richardson (Princeton); W. R. Thayer (Harvard, American Historical Association, Massachusetts Historical Society); ex-Ambassador A. D. White; Worthington C. Ford and Herbert Putnam (Library of Congress); and E. B. Clapp, W. J. Carey, and Bernard Moses of the University of California. Prof. Spingarn of Columbia University, although not a delegate, was also enrolled. If the daily records of members registered can be trusted, Mr. Thayer was the only American delegate who took part in the proceedings.

The British Government did not appoint official representatives, but among the thirty British delegates present were several whose works are familiar wherever English is read. Most distinguished of them all was James Bryce, and, besides him, I may mention Frederic Harrison, Sir Frederick Pollock, Professor Mahaffy, Horatio F. Brown, the historian of Venice, Yorke Powell, Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford, Sir Richard Jebb, D. B. Monro, and H. J. Pelham (Oxford), G. W. Prothero, president of the Royal Historical Society, Prof. Oscar Browning (Cambridge), James Mackinnon (St. Andrews), S. A. Murray (British Museum), and Sir Alfred Lyall, delegate from British India.

Among the 1,500 Italians were nearly all the eminent scholars of the peninsula. One regretted the absence, however, of Carducci, whom Italy unites in honoring as her foremost man of letters, and who may well be regarded as Europe's chief poet since Victor Hugo died. As ill-health kept him at home, the Congress telegraphed its greetings to him. Ettore Pais, the historian of Ancient Rome, and Cesare Lombroso were also absent; but with Comparetti, D'Ancona, Dalla Vedova, Tocco, De Cesare, —to mention only a few—Italian scholarship was finely represented.

A preliminary meeting for organizing was held on April 1 in the great hall of the Collegio Romano—the vast structure a dozen rooms of which were given up to the Congress. It chose Prof. Pasquale Villari President, and four vice-presidents, Adolf Harnack (Germany), Paul Meyer (France), James Bryce (England), and Basil Modestor (Russia). The next day it appeared that, by some unexplained process, Ludwig Pastor (Austria) had been added to the list of vice-presidents. This business was hardly over before one of the Berlin professors jumped up to announce that his august sovereign had sent the Congress a gift, and that some arrangement must be made to receive it "solemnly." A special time had already been set apart for receiving gifts, but that would not do for the Kaiser. Accordingly, the next day after the dedication of the *Forma Urbis*, a Prussian soldier appeared with some albums of photographs, and Rector Gierke "solemnly" presented them to an indifferent audience. Except to gratify Wilhelm's passion for notoriety, there was no more reason why he should thrust these pictures of German excavations on the Congress than why President Roosevelt should send a Rough Rider with a volume of views of the Great Serpent Mound in Ohio.

The formal opening of the Congress took place at the Capitol on April 2. The municipal hall, witness of many historical events, would not hold the concourse of *Congressisti*, besides the King and Queen, their escorts, and cabinet officials. Prince Prospero Colonna, Syndic of the city, spoke in behalf of Rome; Nasi, Minister of Public Instruction, followed with a brief survey of Italian scholarship; and then the President, Prof. Villari, delivered a memorable oration, in which he touched on the general advance in historical methods, on the solidarity of science, and on the problems which historians should help to solve. The nineteenth century, he said, established the principle of nationalities, and secured the economic and political enfranchisement of the laboring classes. The task of the twentieth century is to discover permanent relations, which shall be just, between the white and the colored races. The United States abolished negro slavery at the cost of a million lives, but the negro question is more insistent than ever; and the relations between white Europeans and Americans and the native swarms of Africa and Asia are bound to hinge at last on social rather than on political considerations. "Who knows," he asked, "how soon the United States and Russia, the two young giants of the modern world, may control the destiny of all the rest?"

After the exercises, the delegates followed the royal party to the palace of the Conservators, where was dedicated the *Forma Urbis*. This consists of 1059 fragments of a plan of the city of Rome at the time of Severus. The wall of a courtyard of the palace has been given up to the *Forma*, of which only a few of the fragments have been put in place, under the direction of Prof. Lanciani. Enough has been recovered to enable archæologists to reconstruct a complete map of Rome in the third century of the Christian era.

During the afternoon of April 2, several of the sections got to work, and it appeared at once that the term "historical" was used in a most comprehensive sense; for the Congress was divided into the following eight sections, several of which were further subdivided into groups: Section I., (a) Ancient history; (b) epigraphy; (c) classical philology; (d) comparative philology. Section II., (a) mediæval and modern history; (b) method; (c) archivistics, bibliography, and allied sciences. In this section, one session was devoted to diplomatics and another to Napoleonic history. Section III., history of literatures. Section IV., (a) archæology; (b) numismatics; (c) history of music and the drama; (d) history of art. Section V., history of law, history of economic and social sciences. Section VI., history of geography—historical geography. Section VII., history of philosophy and religions. Section VIII., history of the mathematical, physical, natural, and medical sciences. Each of the sections or subdivisions held three-hour sessions both morning and afternoon; the earlier session being usually devoted to the discussion of general topics, the later to the reading of papers.

To summarize the work of even one section would of course be impossible. The papers were of all descriptions, and their treatment differed very widely. One scholar discussed so highly specialized a matter as the worship of Mithras in Picenum, while another generalized on the problem of the philosophy of history. The judicious *Congressisti* went from one section to another, according as the interest of the topic or the distinction of the speaker attracted them. The stars of the Congress were Harnack, Sabatier, and Boni. Harnack outlined in less than an hour his well-known views on the genesis of the New Testament. Sabatier was to speak on Brother Elias, but, unfortunately, the Italians in his section fell to wrangling over the publication of a *Corpus Chartarum Italiæ*, and used up the morning; and as he had to leave Rome the next day, he could not give his lecture. Boni described the excavation of the Roman Forum, which he has superintended, in a lecture full of important matter for the archæologist and the historian, but hardly suited to the occasion. The distinguished architect is a dry writer, and so poor a lecturer that even those persons who sat near enough to hear him soon ceased to pay attention. Subsequently, at an evening lecture, he illustrated his subject with stereopticon views. Equally important was his report on the Roman materials found among the débris of the Campanile of St. Mark's. They include a collection, mostly inedited, of stamps of the

Roman brickkilns on the Adriatic from the first to the third century; of prints of human feet, horseshoes, hob-nailed boots; of various animals—goat, calf, and pig—and of a marsh bird. Comm. Boni also showed drawings of the structure of the Campanile, down to the lowest piles. I may add, in passing, that he found these foundations in perfect condition, so that the rebuilding of the Campanile can be begun at once, and will take only three years instead of eight or ten, as originally estimated.

One of the labors of the Congress which may bear direct fruit was the discussion of ways of collecting, editing, and publishing great masses of material, or of facilitating the investigations of scholars. Some of the resolutions passed by the various sections will show the drift of opinion. The section of mediæval and modern history hopes to see a thorough exploration of all the lands in the Levant and Adriatic which were once under the dominion of Venice, and it urges that a museum be established at Venice to preserve whatever objects may be collected. The numismatists recommend that henceforth collections of coins be arranged according to their geographico-topographic order, and that they be catalogued chronologically, instead of alphabetically. The section of music and the drama—in which Humperdinck and Dubois, director of the Paris Conservatoire, were conspicuous—would have the history of music illustrated by concrete selections, taught in musical institutions, so that the relation between music and the history and social conditions of each people shall be made clear. The geographers resolve that the Italian Geographical Society take steps to prepare a great historical atlas of Italy; and that it request the aid of scholars everywhere to compile a glossary of Italian territorial names at every epoch. The classical philologists vote that an edition of papyri containing Greek literary fragments—and especially of Homeric papyri—be made, letter by letter, after the norm of the Berlin publication. The modern historians call for a shortening of the time limit when state papers can be consulted; they suggest that documents down to the end of 1847 be now opened to inspection, and that to authors and professors of history still larger facilities be accorded. The historians of the fine arts recommend the issue of a Corpus of photo-mechanical facsimiles of the best Renaissance medals, and of a collection of facsimiles of Romanesque and Renaissance miniatures. In view of the bad condition of the plaster on which most of the Renaissance frescoes were painted, they recommend that plaster intended for paintings be prepared according to the rules laid down by Vitruvius in Book VII. of his 'Architecture.' The section of physical sciences wishes to undertake an edition of the complete works of Torricelli. The philosophers appeal to the Italian Government to publish a Corpus of the Renaissance Byzantine writers, and a series of the best monographs on Cesalpino, Cardano, etc. The bibliographers propose the compilation of an international historical bibliography.

A motion to proceed as soon as possible to the publication of a *Corpus Chartarum Italiæ* stirred up a hot debate, and was voted down as premature. A still livelier war raged over the attempt to secure the official approval of the Congress for the monumental edition of Muratori which has been edited by Professor Fiorini and is being published by Lapi at Città di Castello. President Villari opposed the resolution on the ground that it had been presented too late; moreover, he said, an international congress of this kind was not the proper place in which to decide a purely Italian question. This was an unexpectedly humorous turn to come from Signor Villari, who has a keen and comprehensive intellect, but no intentional humor; for nearly all of the resolutions passed by the other sections could as well have been ruled out as being "merely Italian." Some of the Germans reminded the President that they knew as much about Muratori and had as great an interest in him as the Italians themselves; but the resolution was lost, and in its stead a motion to "applaud" all editions and editors of Muratori was carried!

In so large a body of men, jealousies must naturally be looked for; but it was unfortunate that local or literary feuds were thrust upon the Congress. Few of us foreigners knew the animus behind them, and, even had we known, we should not have cared to take sides. In general, however, although the discussions often grew hot, they left no rancor; and much of the apparent heat might have been avoided if the sessions had been conducted according to Anglo-Saxon parliamentary rules. The Latin peoples show little respect for the presiding officer and none at all for the person speaking. They begin to hiss loudly for silence as soon as the meeting is called to order, and their hisses of course put an end to both silence and order. As soon as a speaker rises, they rush forward to be as near the tribune as possible, and there they stand, gesticulating, making loud comments, or hurling replies, till the next victim secures the floor. The spectacle of President Villari—a manikin in size, with pallid, ivory skin, white beard and hair, and an inexhaustible flow of language—bellowing and brandishing his fists at another distinguished Italian historian, who was trying to out-bellow and out-gesticulate him, was a surprise to many of the calmer Northerners, unaccustomed to such ways among scholars. But very possibly the disputants ate macaroni together in friendly calm as soon as the debate was adjourned. Certainly, a foreigner who judges hastily, where customs are so different from his own, runs the risk of misjudging.

The section of modern history devoted an afternoon to an especially interesting symposium on the teaching of history in secondary schools in various countries. Prof. Fredericq spoke for Belgium, Blok for Holland, Gertz for Denmark, Bresslau for Germany, Gabriel Monod for France, Altamira for Spain, W. R. Thayer (in the absence of Herbert Putnam) for the United States, James Bryce for England, and President Villari for Italy. As several of the speakers spoke on university, and not on secondary, instruction in history, no common ground for comparison was reached, but at no other session could one listen to such a picked body of speakers. Mr. Bryce was easily the most interesting, partly because, after a brief reference to the specified subject, he branched out into some general reflections on how history should be written. He said, at the outset, that there had been so little real teaching of history in the English universities that he hardly needed to speak of it. Within the memory of men now living, one of the universities had only one professor of history, who was expected to teach both natural history and human history combined! Mr. Bryce deplored the lack of seminars, laboratories, and other institutions, such as have long existed in Germany and the École des Chartes in Paris; but he added that, since 1894, the British universities have begun to wake up to the importance of a thorough training in history, and he hoped that, "in spite of our English conservatism," those universities would some time equal the best in this field elsewhere. Turning next to British historians, he said that, from Gibbon down to Green, they had all taught themselves history, since the universities offered no adequate instruction. Two qualities characterize their works: the literary quality and the human quality. They wrote histories to be read as literature; and they kept constantly in view the relation of the past to the present. Thanks to the sound classical training of the English universities, Englishmen have got their knowledge of Greek and Roman history at first hand, from the classics themselves, and so they have not divorced their historical writings from the *litteræ humaniores*. He closed with an urgent appeal that students and writers of history should cling to this higher ideal, and should resist to the utmost the encroachments of the physical sciences on the domain of culture, where history properly belongs.

Another important symposium was held in the section of international law on the evolution of comparative jurisprudence. Sir Frederick Pollock acted as chairman, and Frederic Harrison, Vinogradoff, Scialoja and others took part; but as your correspondent was prevented from attending it, he cannot report on it. Lack of space precludes more than passing mention of the announcement that the King has authorized Dr. Piumati to edit and print all the manuscripts of Leonardo da Vinci—news at which scholars the world over will rejoice. The reports of Prof. R. Orsi, of Syracuse, on the archæological explorations of the past fourteen years in Sicily and Magna Græcia, and of Professor Savignoni on the work achieved by the Italian mission in Crete, were among the most important contributions made to the Congress.

The Executive Committee, seconded by the municipal and national authorities, did all in their power to entertain the host of visitors. There were an illumination of the Colosseum and a concert at the Argentina Theatre, where the best choral societies of Rome sang specimens of sacred choral music from Palestrina to Rossini. Commissioner Nasi, Minister of Public Instruction, held a reception on the Palatine, where champagne flowed freely in the Palace of the Cæsars. The galleries of the Capitoline Museum and the Campidoglio itself were opened for an evening reception. The restoration of the ancient *rampa imperiale*, leading from the Forum to the Palatine, was dedicated. Count Gnoli, Librarian of the Biblioteca Vittorio Emanuele, exhibited an unparalleled collection of views, maps, and plans of Rome; the earliest dating from the fourth century. Prince Torlonia allowed the *Congressisti* to visit the Villa Albani, one of the sights of Rome which has become very rare; and there were

many other courtesies, which one would like to register in full. At the close of the Congress, many of its members went on an excursion to Norma and Sermoneta; but the tour of Sicily, which had been planned, was given up, as the necessary 300 persons did not enroll.

The last two days, the *Congressisti* suffered with the rest of Rome from a general sympathetic strike which called out the cabmen and 'busmen, stopped all but one newspaper, and alarmed the nervous. The Prime Minister, Zanardelli, and the Minister of the Interior, Giolitti, with solicitude which ought to close their political career, foreseeing trouble, disappeared the day before the general strike came on; the one to the outskirts of Brescia, the other to the confines of Piedmont. But, thanks to those officials who dared to stay at home and face the responsibility, there was no rioting, and on the third morning the general strike collapsed through the protests of the strikers themselves. Strangers naturally felt the inconvenience at the time; but as they look back they will not be sorry that this episode gave them the best proof of the common sense and orderliness of the great majority of the Roman people, and of the wholesome vigor of the new régime in Italy. One gets the impression that the young King is not only the most highly cultivated sovereign in Europe, but also a ruler of real ability, quiet but prevailing, judicious, just.

Before finally adjourning, a call, signed by representatives of the European countries and of the United States, was issued for the convocation of the next International Historical Congress at Berlin in 1906. No one who has taken an active part in a gathering of this kind can fail to recognize the benefits, immediate or far-reaching, which spring from it.

Correspondence.

A WORD OF USELESS PROTEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We call the heads of our colleges presidents, but it is a misnomer. We have no college presidents. They are dictators, with more or less democratic methods, as they choose. It must be so in the nature of our educational régime. They are elected over the college or university by a foreign board, and they alone have access to this board. They can make or mar the position of any member of the faculty; and with this consciousness in the minds of the members of the faculty, they dominate faculty meetings and the whole process of the government of the institution. This may be thought best from a business point of view, but are colleges and universities strictly for business, or for higher ideals of human development?

In all the land there remained one university with something of democratic initiative in its government. Its great founder wished it to be democratic—at least as democratic as the German prototypes. Under this management it became confessedly the greatest seat of learning for a large section of the country. This preëminence it still maintains. It has to-day a larger number of advanced academic students than any other institution of learning in the South. In spite of all criticisms, it has much the highest standard. I have taken some trouble to investigate, and I believe it to be true that the M. A. degree at the University of Virginia requires harder work than any degree of any kind given at any institution in this country. Yet, with such a record to its credit, the State Legislature, in obedience to the autocratic business spirit of the day, has determined that it shall have a "president."

The present writer is not a graduate of the University of Virginia, but he is a Virginian who has always taken pride in the high standard of his State University and in the independence and dignity of its faculty. That these objects of just pride will depart with the entrance of a "president" is inevitable. There may come more loudness, more newspaper mention, perhaps even more students; but, as Epictetus says, nothing is to be had for nothing.

Very respectfully, MEDIUS.

May 1, 1903.

BACON AND SHAKSPERE PARALLELS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of your recent Note on *out-* verbs, the New English Dictionary furnishes some of the most interesting and valuable testimony that has yet been advanced in the controversy about the authorship of Shakspere. The most attractive of all the arguments for the Baconian authorship is that drawn from the "deadly parallel." If it can be shown that the phrase or the figure which occurs in the parallel quotations was in common use during Bacon's time and before, the parallelism is deprived of its value as an argument. The quotations of the New English Dictionary make it possible to determine the value of these parallelisms as arguments.

The following is a good example. A. P. Sinnet says, in the *National Review:* " 'Discourse of reason,' a phrase in 'Hamlet' that has been regarded as a misprint for 'discourse and reason,' is used several times by Bacon as it stands in the play, with the preposition 'of.' " This only shows that Mr. Sinnet and the commentators who did the regarding were not acquainted with an obsolete idiom of their mother tongue. If Mr. Sinnet had turned to the Dictionary, he would have found the phrase defined as "the process or faculty of reasoning," with quotations from 1413 and 1553. It was not a new or unusual phrase in Bacon's time.

Mr. Edwin Reed, in his 'Brief for the Plaintiff, Bacon vs. Shakespeare,' says:

"Perhaps the most interesting feature of the 'Promus' is the group of salutatory phrases it contains, such as *good-morning, good-day,* and *good-night,* which had not then come into use in England, but which occur four hundred and nineteen times in the Plays. These salutations, however, were common at that time in France, where Bacon, as attaché of the British Embassy, had spent three years in the early part of his life. To him we are doubtless indebted for these little amenities of speech."

In a footnote he adds: "One or two specimens have been found in earlier literature, but the statement in the text is substantially correct. These salutations did not take root in English speech till they were implanted there by the author of the Plays."

The editors of the Dictionary seem to have been entirely unaware of this interesting bit of literary history. The following quotations show that the English did not learn these salutations from Bacon:

c. 1386. Chaucer, Miller's Tale. "Hayl, maister Nicholay. Good morwe."

1430-1440. Lydgate, Bochas. "She rose her up. . . Without good day! or salutation."

c. 1460. Towneley Myst. "A good day, thou and thou."

c. 1420. Sir Amadas. " 'Gud devon, dame,' seyd he."

1481. Caxton, Reynard. "Noble lord and lady god gyue you good morow."

1575. Gammer Gurton. "God deuen, my friend Diccon."

1577. B. Googe, Heresbach's Husb. "God morowe maister Rigo."

Twenty-eight quotations containing these salutations are given with dates from the year 1205 to 1589. Mr. Reed's statement is not substantially correct, and what may be the most interesting feature of the 'Promus' cannot be considered a very valuable one.

The great mass of the parallelisms are of the following nature: From Shakspere: "As the mournful crocodile With sorrow snares relenting passengers" (2 Henry VI., iii., 2). From Bacon: "It is the wisdom of crocodiles, that they shed tears when they would devour" (Essay of Wisdom). Sir John Maundeville told the story of the weeping "Cokadrilles" in about 1400. Hawkins repeated it in 1565. It was a matter of frequent literary allusion. Spenser devoted a whole stanza of 'The Faery Queen' to this legend. Five other quotations of authors contemporary with Bacon are given in the Dictionary. It would only be consistent to say that Bacon wrote their works too.

Here is another parallel: From Shakspere: "If it be true that good wine needs no bush, 'tis true that a good play needs no epilogue" (As You Like It). From Bacon: "Good wine needs no bush" (Promus). The following quotation shows that this expression was not original with Bacon: "Where the wine is neat, there needeth no Iuie-bush," 1580 (Lyly, Euphues). In this case Bacon and Shakspere were only using one of the stock phrases of the day.

Some of the parallelisms can be explained without the aid of the Dictionary. From Shakspere: "Brother, you have a vice of mercy in you, Which better fits a lion than a man" (Troilus and Cressida). From Bacon: "For of lions it is a received belief that their fury ceaseth toward any thing that yieldeth and prostrateth itself" (Of Charity). Mr. Reed makes this comment in a footnote: "In this instance, as in many others, it requires Bacon's prose to explain Shakspere's poetry." The parallel is made worthless as an argument because Bacon says the matter in question is a "received belief" or a matter of general information. There is nothing strange in both authors making use of a received belief. Dyer, in his 'Folklore of Shakspere,' gives a number of allusions to this belief in English literature from that and earlier periods.

Of all the parallelisms between Bacon and Shakspere by far the greater part can be traced to an earlier source. The only logical result of the line of argument pursued by the advocates of Baconian authorship is that Bacon wrote all the literature of his own time. C. K.

JAYHAWKERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the request of Albert Matthews for examples of the use of *Jayhawkers* before 1859, it may be of interest to refer to statements made by William Lewis Manly (recently deceased) in his thrilling book, 'Death Valley in '49.' For several years the present writer has enjoyed the personal acquaintance of this heroic pioneer, who by voice corroborated the printed statements. As shown by the subjoined extracts, *Jayhawkers* is the name applied to a party of young emigrants to California, who, in the winter of 1849-50, experienced the horrors of Death Valley, and several of whom thereby lost their lives. Prominent among the party were Ed Doty, Tom Shannon, and L. D. Stevens (see p. 160); while among those that perished were Messrs. Fish and Isham (p. 162). In the book referred to, the word *Jayhawkers* is used scores of times. While Manly himself was not of the original party, his own party repeatedly crossed the track of the *Jayhawkers* in '49, and for parts of the way they travelled together.

On pp. 364-365, Manly gives what appears to be a virtually complete list of the names of the party. An account of the Death Valley Party of 1849, by the Rev. J. W. Brier, a survivor, is concluded in *Out West* for April, 1903.

ROCKWELL D. HUNT.

HIGH SCHOOL, SAN JOSÉ, CALIFORNIA,
April 22, 1903.

"The little train afterward known by this name was made up in the State of Illinois in 1849, of industrious, enterprising young men who were eager to see and explore the new country then promising gold to those who sought. The young men were from Knoxville, Galesburg, and other towns" (p. 320). "These Illinois boys were young and full of mirth and fun, which was continually overflowing. . . . One of the boys was Ed Doty, who was a sort of model traveller in this line. . . . One day when Doty was engaged in the duty of cooking flap-jacks, another frolicsome fellow came up and took off the cook's hat and commenced going through the motions of a barber, giving his customer a vigorous shampoo, saying: '*I am going to make a Jayhawker out of you, old boy.*' Now it happened at the election for captain in this division that Ed Doty was chosen captain, and no sooner was the choice declared than the boys took the newly elected captain on their shoulders and carried him around the camp, introducing him as *the King Bird of the Jayhawkers.* So their division was afterwards known as The Jayhawkers, but whether the word originated with them, and John Brown forgot to give them credit, or whether it was some old frontier word used in sport on the occasion, is more than I will undertake to say; however, the boys felt proud of their title, and the organization has been kept up to this day by the survivors" (pp. 321-322). "Some years afterward the members of this party who had returned to their Eastern homes formed themselves into an organization which they called the Jayhawkers' Union, appointed a chairman and secretary, and each year every one whose name and residence could be obtained was notified to be present at some designated place on the fourth day of February, which was the date on which they considered they passed from impending death into a richly promising life" (pp. 363-364).

BLIZZARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I don't know that I can give an answer, in the form he desires, to Mr. Matthews's question of April 9, with regard to the use of the term "blizzard" prior to 1880, but my first practical experience of the real thing was from November 12 to 15 of 1872, when, on my return from the discovery of the great diamond fraud of that year, I had stopped off at Cheyenne, Wyoming, to visit a cattle ranch—then a new experiment—in which I had a slight pecuniary interest. The so-called ranch consisted of a small cabin on the open plains about nine miles south of Cheyenne. During the three days I was forced to spend there, our time was mainly occupied in gathering fuel to keep ourselves from freezing. The force of the wind was such that we could not venture away from the shelter of the cabin, and it was considered madness to attempt to return to town. The thermometer, as I afterwards learned, ranged at about 20 degrees below zero.

I have no files of the New York *Herald* at hand to refer to, but my impression is that, upon obtaining copies of that paper, we found accounts of this terrific storm, which was far fiercer than anything I had experienced during six years' previous campaigning in the Western mountains, and which it had called a "blizzard," a name which struck me at the time as new and as singularly expressive.—Yours truly,

S. F. EMMONS.

1721 H STREET, WASHINGTON, D. C.,
April 30, 1903.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am indebted to Dr. Green for his example of this word in yesterday's *Nation.* In regard to "the ship *Blizard,*" mentioned in a Boston newspaper of 1765, Dr. Green remarks: "From the fact that it was applied to a ship, I infer that the word originated among sailors." May I be allowed to suggest that this inference is not a necessary one, and that perhaps the vessel was called after some person (possibly its owner) named Blizard? As early as March, 1656-7, a Humfrey Blizard matriculated at Merton College, Oxford; in the eighteenth century the name is found both in England and in the West Indies; and now the surname is not uncommon in this country. It appears in the forms Blisard, Blissard, Blizard, and Blizzard. There is at present, so far as I am aware, no evidence to connect the word *blizzard* with the proper name.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, May 1, 1903.

MONT PELÉ.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Americans and English seem always to write "Mont Pelée." It is not a capital error, to be sure, but is still annoying to those accustomed to the invariable French practice, "Mont Pelé." The longer feminine form is naturally written "Montagne Pelée." Yours truly,

F. R. W.

PARIS, April 23, 1903.

[The solecism is of long standing in our best encyclopædias. It finds a parallel in "Morne Pelée" (an alternative designation), which occurs in C. W. Eves's 'West Indies' (4th ed., 1897).—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

'Evenings in Little Russia,' translated from Gogol by Edna W. Underwood and William H. Cline, will soon be issued by William S. Lord, Evanston, Ill.

Doubleday, Page & Co. announce that the new volume of Kipling's Poems will bear the title of 'The Five Nations.' Twenty-five of them have never before been printed.

In the poetic line, G. P. Putnam's Sons are about to bring out 'Echoes from Erin,' by William Westcott Fink; 'Notes from Nature's Lyre,' by Howard Beck Reed; 'Puerto Rican and Other Impressions,' by William James; besides 'Florida Fancies,' by Frederick R. Swift, a tale of fishing and hunting expeditions remote from the beaten track.

'Shakspere and the Rival Poet,' namely, George Chapman, is the title of a work, by Arthur Acheson, of Chicago, announced by John Lane. Internal evidence as to this rivalry is sought to be adduced from the Sonnets.

From the office of the *Publishers' Weekly* has appeared the 'Annual Literary Index' for 1902—the annual 'Poole,' in other words, plus the Index to General Literature (that is, to the contents of certain books, as contrasted with periodicals), plus an author-index to *both* sections, plus a list of the bibliographies of the year, a necrology, and an index to dates of principal events. The varied usefulness of this thin volume needs no further exhibition. Another issue from the same source is the 'Annual American Catalogue Cumulated, 1900-1902,' a triennial combination, prefaced by statistics of book production for the past year, the report of the Register of Copyrights for 1901-1902, and a directory of American publishers who put forth books in the period here recorded. This is the second stage of the cumulative experiment begun last year.

The 'Year Book of the Pennsylvania Society' of this city for 1903 maintains the interesting character of the series, at least on the antiquarian and pictorial side. Noticeable is the summary sketch of the Governors of the State derived from the fourth series of the Pennsylvania Archives, and illustrated with autographic facsimiles. The literature especially related to Pennsylvania is well looked after. The speeches at the fourth annual dinner are the meagrest part of the feast. Nowhere is there an intimation of the political degradation of Pennsylvania through the corruption of both parties. Mr. Baer, the vigorous President of the Reading, could not fail to revert to the recent coal strike, and to charge the State with failure to protect her citizens "in the simplest and smallest of all natural rights for the protection of which government is founded—the right to work." But even he did not connect that failure with the very fountain of corruption at Harrisburg and in the United States Senate. The chaplain, Dr. Batten, did better, for, Philippinewise, he prayed that the Constitution might follow the flag, and, domestically, asked: "If we really love America, shall we permit its citizens to be governed by thieves?"

The late Hepworth Dixon's 'History of William Penn' has been reprinted by the

New Amsterdam Book Company in a neat volume with a portrait.

The dainty little "Lovers' Library" of John Lane once more departs from its original intention of including only classic English verse of the tender passion, to take in Miss Jane Minot Sedgwick's 'Love Songs from the Greek'; and these are accordingly printed in green ink suitable for a green thought in a green shade.

"Love's Labour's Lost" is the second of the commendable series of reprints of the First Folio undertaken by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke (T. Y. Crowell & Co.). We observe that the editors' preface is repeated, as is well in view of separate sale; but the introduction is pertinent to the play. The notes, variorum readings, and selected criticisms more than half fill the handy volume.

More elegant, in fact unusually handsome, are the "Othello" in the Dowden Shakspere of Bowen-Merrill Co., Cleveland, of which the editing has been intrusted to H. C. Hart, and the "Cymbeline," which Professor Dowden has taken for his province. The various readings and the notes are on the same page with the text, in a very lucid and harmonious proportion.

Mr. H. W. Boynton's task in continuing the "Cambridge Edition" of poets which used to be Mr. Scudder's especial charge, in the case of the Complete Poetical Works of Alexander Pope (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has been for the first time to include all within the limits of a single volume, and to observe an approximate chronological ordering. He has also discarded all but Pope's twelve books of the Odyssey, and has taken a proper liberty with the notes, which are relegated to the end, with a glossary of names of Pope's contemporaries mentioned in the poems. There is the usual biographic-critical introduction. Add a portrait and a title-page vignette showing Twickenham villa. The volume of nearly 700 pages is not bulky, and its inclusiveness leads us to remark that there exists a Concordance to Pope—namely, Edwin Abbott's, published in 1875 by Messrs. Appleton.

We have received from the Research Publication Society, No. 14 Beacon Street, Boston, Part I. of 'The Higginsons in England and America,' by Eben Putnam.

It is unfortunate that few teachers of history in our country have had even a little training for work in the ancient field. Mr. West, in his 'Ancient History' (Allyn & Bacon), betrays this lack of preparation by constant misinterpretation of sources as well as by his misstatement of facts which should be known to every schoolboy. Characteristic of the author are the assertions (on p. 157) that Herodotus wrote his history "after the fall of Athens, when it was unpopular to praise her," and that, in the battle of Mycale, "the Greeks first destroyed a great Persian land army, and then, reembarking, they seized and burned the three hundred Persian ships." In considerable parts, however, he has attained accuracy by a culpable sacrifice of independence. Noteworthy, too, are the tendency to disproportion, which sacrifices important periods to the unimportant; the elimination of the personal element from the Roman imperial era, which makes his treatment difficult as well as dry; and finally the ready adoption of new theories, however erratic—for instance, that of Ridgeway. Wolfson's 'Essentials in Ancient History' (The American Book Co.) has most of West's faults highly magnified, and in addition a vicious style.

The *Consular Reports* for April opens with an interesting illustrated account, by Consul E. H. Thompson of Progreso, of the cultivation and preparation, for the market, of sisal, the Yucatan fibre. It is generally known in commerce as sisal grass or hemp, but the fact is "that it is neither a grass nor a fibre, and is not produced to any great extent in Sisal. The name 'sisal' was applied to it because it originally reached the outer world through the port of that name." Other subjects treated are the copper, silver, and gold mines in Latin America, and the North Sea fisheries, with notice of Professor McIntosh's tabulation of the catches made during a series of years by a vessel properly fitted out for the purpose, as published in his 'Resources of the Sea.' He is convinced from them that the fears of an ultimate extinction, or even a perceptible diminution, of the fish supply are entirely baseless.

The development of the East Africa Protectorate through colonization and irrigation is discussed in the *Geographical Journal* for April by Mr. R. B. Buckley, a leading irrigation expert of India. The population at present averages only about ten to twelve persons per square mile, and the most temperate and healthy parts are practically uninhabited. These could be colonized by Europeans, while the surplus population of India might be induced to occupy the lowlands. It is not a country for grand irrigation projects, but small storage works could be scattered along the streams. The Government is advised to institute a model agricultural farm, with some irrigation works to serve as a model and guide to settlers. Dr. W. G. Smith and Mr. C. E. Moss give the results, with a map and illustrations, of a survey of vegetation in Yorkshire to solve the question, "How are the species arranged with regard to one another, and with regard to soil and climate?" A young American traveller, Mr. A. Hamilton Rice, tells of a journey made by him in 1901 from Quito to the Amazon by the River Napo. The greater part, apparently, was through a dreary country, inhabited by people with whom "the regular thing in the Sabbath afternoons is to get as drunk as possible." When the Peruvian border was crossed, "a strangely incongruous sight is to see an almost nude Indian woman using a sewing-machine, making calico dresses for her children, yet it is not an uncommon event. Even among those Indians who eat squatting on the floor, with fingers for forks, knives, and spoons, the sole article of household furniture may be a Pan-American or a New Haven sewing-machine, in which the female members take the greatest pride."

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 2, contains an interesting account of the Brazilian rubber industry. The best product comes from the *Siphonia*, and the sap is collected, from May to October, by tapping the trees every other day. The holes made in the bark close in two hours. An orchard consists on the average of 200 trees, from which the owner may get from 1,000 to 2,000 pounds a year of gum, selling for a little over $2 a pound in Europe. The kind known there as caoutchouc is obtained only by felling the trees, and is consequently disappearing, while the *Para-fina* is increasing through cultivation. The gum obtained from the cultivated trees, however, is not so good as that from the wild tree. Other articles are upon the geographical changes of the North German coast since the glacial period, and upon Upper Burma and the Shan States.

The unanimous vote of the Swedish Riksdag to grant 75,000 kroner to Dr. Sven Hedin, to enable him to publish in *English* the scientific results of his last great journey in Central Asia, is a remarkable evidence of disinterested enthusiasm for the advancement of general knowledge. One volume and a large atlas will contain Dr. Hedin's report on the geography of the 6,500 miles of country which he traversed and mapped on 1,149 sheets, having fixed the position of 113 points by astronomical observations. To these and the meteorological observations other volumes will be devoted, as well as to the geological, botanical, and zoölogical collections, and the Chinese manuscripts and inscriptions. The volume dealing with the manuscripts will be prepared by Dr. Himly of Wiesbaden, the well-known sinologist; the others will be edited by Swedish experts.

It has been generally known that paper was originally an invention of the Chinese, and was first brought to Europe by the Crusaders, finding its way to Germany as early as 1190. It has now been the good fortune of Sven Hedin to furnish the ocular proof of this historic fact. He found, on his recent journeys, Chinese paper that dates back to the second half of the third century after Christ. This lay buried in the sand of the Gobi desert, near the former northern shore of the Lop Nor sea, where, in the ruins of a city and in the remnants of one of the oldest houses, he discovered a goodly lot of manuscripts, many of paper, covered with Chinese script, preserved for some 1,650 years. The date is Dr. Himly's conclusion. According to Chinese sources, paper was manufactured as early as the second millennium before the Christian era. The character of the Gobi desert find makes it probable that the making of paper out of vegetable fibres was already an old art in the third Christian century.

Volume XXX., Part iii. (pp. 209 + xl), of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan, contains a "History of the Rise of Political Parties in Japan," by Mr. A. H. Lay, which brings the story down to the end of 1902. It is a masterly résumé of political development from the epochal "charter oath" of the Mikado in Kioto, in 1868, showing how, in spite of rebellions at home and wars abroad, "the intensely democratic nature of the Japanese people" asserted itself. The final goal of the ambition of the various parties—all being of reform, none of reaction—cannot be far off, and that is the control of the administration, with full budgetary power. Loyalty to the Emperor has never been lost sight of. Mr. Lay's conclusion is that as the parties have rid themselves of their unruly and dangerous elements, and learned the lessons of responsibility, they have more and more gained the public confidence. In a word, the nation has in one generation been transformed from feudalism to modern life. Most valuable to the student of modern Japanese literature are the hundred pages or more devoted to a classified list of recently published Japan-

ese books, with name, author, publisher, price, and title in English, Romanized Japanese, and Chinese characters. With all their avidity for science, the Japanese in their imaginative and historical writing draw from their own national story. Rev. Arthur Lloyd, librarian, 56 Tsukiji, Tokio, will be glad to act as intermediary for the purchase of translations of any of these native works. A list of the principal publishers in Japan, minutes of meetings, etc., conclude the highly creditable series of thirty volumes.

The centennial celebration of the University of Heidelberg, to be held during the coming summer in honor of its revival by Carl Friedrich of Baden, in 1803, will naturally not be on so extensive a scale as was the semi-millennium celebration in 1886, but will, nevertheless, be a notable event, to which all the other German universities and technological institutes have been invited. Among other things, an imposing memorial building is being erected, and the Grand Duke, as the Rector Magnificentissimus, has promised to take a prominent part in the celebration, which will not be made an international event.

The list of the British Commission for the St. Louis Exposition was announced in London on April 24. Among the Commissioners figures the name of Mr. Edwin A. Abbey, R. A., and his inclusion on a British Commission becomes a matter of serious consideration for American artists. By accepting such a position Mr. Abbey either renounces his American citizenship and all claims to show as an American artist in the St. Louis Exposition, or he is endeavoring to become a citizen of two countries at the same time—an impossibility both nationally and artistically. The fact that an American artist resides abroad for many years for the purpose of pursuing his profession should in no way affect his position and rights as an American citizen and artist; and he should, of course, be at liberty to join any foreign art society. But the line should be drawn, and drawn sharply, when he throws in his lot with a foreign country by accepting an official position from its Government. Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema, who was in very much the same predicament, settled the question many years ago, and has always identified himself with the country to whose Royal Academy he belongs.

—The announcement that the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers in London has leased the New Gallery, Regent Street, for the winter seasons of 1904, 1905, and 1906, is of special interest in more than one way to American artists. In the first place, the Society, which deserves its name of International, has for President an American artist, one of the most distinguished, Mr. Whistler; while other Americans figure prominently on the Council, among the Associates, and as honorary members, including Alexander, Chase, MacMonnies, Melchers, Pennell, St.-Gaudens, Shannon, Humphreys-Johnston, and Morrice. In the second place, the Society has become the most important exhibiting body in London for the foreigner. Though three or four Americans have been elected to the Academy, it is well known that almost all other American artists, and indeed all foreigners, have little chance of being treated with civility in the Academy's exhibitions, even if their work should by mistake be accepted. Up to the present, the foreigner has not been encouraged to show in London except at the dealers' galleries. But the International depends largely on foreigners, and, moreover, it has the grace to be as generous in its treatment of outsiders as of its own members. What the Council aims at is to show good work, wherever it may be found. This is a fact that should be noted to its credit, especially now when the tendency of societies of artists in London is to lessen, rather than to extend, the privileges of outsiders. Even the New English Art Club, supposed to be more liberal than the average, is increasing its restrictions. The first two exhibitions of the International were held at Knightsbridge, the third at the Institute. Now in the New Gallery the Society has secured by far the best exhibiting rooms in the very heart of London. Part of its work has been the organization of the British section in international exhibitions abroad, with very notable results at Carlsruhe, Budapest, and Dresden. It would be interesting if it could show in its full strength some day in America, when, probably, American artists would see still more reason for giving it their support.

—One looks naturally for special consideration of Emerson in the magazines of the centenary month. In the *Atlantic* he is studied by the Rev. George A. Gordon, as a religious influence. The article will provoke dissent in its attempt at a too rigid limitation of this influence. Hamilton W. Mabie, in *Harper's*, says that Emerson, more distinctly than any other American, "affirmed the presence of the divine in every human being, the direct and personal relation between each man and the infinite, the authority of individual insight, the dignity of the individual soul." This sentence indicates the dominant tone of Mr. Mabie's discriminating article on "Emerson in 1903." In the *Century*, Emerson is treated editorially, and along with due recognition of his spiritual message one finds dissent from the tendency to undue depreciation of his literary art. The lack of constructive continuity is of course too evident for denial, but on the other side of the balance-sheet we have "the cosmic character of the separate sections," the melodious cadences that go along with the occasional roughness of his verse, "charming the mind and ear with an unearthly music," the keen vibration of sentence or phrase, "creating in the mind a sense of luminousness," each thought standing out as the natural product of a soul apart, a life unique, with "no pettiness to deplore, no derelictions to explain or forget." Aside from Emerson, the most striking points of strictly literary interest for the month are the continuation of Mr. Trowbridge's papers in the *Atlantic* and the editorial departments in *Harper's*. Mr. Trowbridge deals almost exclusively with Holmes and Longfellow, with both of whom he was thrown into very intimate relations. Like Higginson in his recent biography, he deprecates the present tendency to underrate Longfellow's poetic achievement. Aside from his more important productions, "is it not pertinent to inquire what writers of to-day, on either side of the sea, are blending thought and feeling in such forms of beauty as the 'Two Angels,' 'The Bridge' 'The Arsenal at Springfield,' 'The Birds of Killingworth,' and a long list beside of poems as full of a wise, sweet humanity and as perfect in their art?" In the "Editor's Easy Chair" Mr. Howells discourses wittily and satirically as to what might be done with an ample financial endowment for his department, suggesting among other things a museum of literary properties for the benefit of would-be popular novelists, schemes for boiling down poetry to its real poetic content (with equitable compensation to the writers for the financial sacrifice), prizes for a system of compensation to authors on the basis of quality rather than quantity, etc. "The real Editor," as Mr. Howells calls him, contributes a page to the discussion of poetic form, setting aside the acoustic theory of Poe and Lanier as too narrow to include the most essential element of poetic rhythm. We do not find here, and perhaps it would be too much to expect, any very clear definition of this essential element without which mere acoustic perfection is in vain; but we are instructed to seek for it in a winged and vibrant thought, having the sort of meaning that prompts rhythm—thought that seizes upon and uses the acoustic element, not that is used by it.

—The Navy Department is treated by Capt. Mahan in *Scribner's* series of papers on "The Government of the United States." As might be expected, that side of the Department's work which has to do with the creation and enlargement of naval resources is put strongly in advance of the more humdrum duty of routine administration. For the purpose of developing a more definite and consecutive naval policy, Capt. Mahan would have a permanent board, purely advisory in its functions, to give constant consideration to specific needs and to problems of naval evolution in general. He does not hesitate to speak of war as "the end for which the navy exists"—a bit of frankness which many men of his own fundamental views would do well to emulate. The initial paper of Gen. Gordon's reminiscences of the civil war, in the same magazine, may be mentioned here because of the paragraphs in which he seeks to define the proper attitude of men of the present day towards that struggle. He admits that negro slavery was the cause of the war—"had there been no slavery, there would have been no war"—and, as well, that the abolition of slavery was a blessing to the South. The one side did not go into the struggle from the simple motive of its retention, nor the other from that of its abolition. The germs of the struggle were in process of development before the Union was formed, and were incorporated in the Constitution itself. Each party had ample ground in law and precedent to feel that it had legitimate and praiseworthy principles to fight for, and hence neither side should claim that it was "wholly and eternally right," nor expect the other to admit that it was "wholly and eternally wrong." Alfred Holt Stone, in the *Atlantic*, seeks to simplify the race problem by getting people to recognize in the negro not a mere lack of race development, but a permanent and radical race inferiority. The so-called achievements of the race, he holds, are achievements of mulattoes, not negroes, and due entirely to the white blood in the mulatto. This is an old fallacy, contradicted by the experience of all teachers and observers of freedmen since the war. If the tone of this paper

fairly represents the attitude of mind of the entire Committee of the American Economic Association, appointed to investigate the condition of the American negro, a Committee to which Mr. Holt belongs, it is safe to predict that the solution of the problem has little to expect, at least in any direct way, from the action of the Committee. Mrs. John Van Vorst, in *Harper's*, brings a severe indictment against the large class of "factory girls" who work for wages, not from any real necessity, but from a desire for fine clothes, personal independence, etc. This type of worker is a rival of man to her own detriment, she thinks, and of woman to the detriment of her sex. Mrs. Van Vorst bases her article upon actual service, incognito, in the ranks of those of whom she writes. In "The Hampered Executive" Henry Loomis Nelson contributes to the *Century* a corollary to his previous paper on "The Overshadowing Senate."

—The *American Journal of Insanity* for October, 1902, contains a thoughtful article by Dr. Walter Channing, since reprinted, upon "The Mental Status of Czolgosz," President McKinley's assassin. Careful consideration of the murderer's history not developed at the trial, including his recent association with anarchists, of which only one phase was brought out by the prosecution and there was no defence, leads the author to the conclusion that this man was the victim of a delusion (in the technical sense), and therefore was insane. He dates progressive deterioration from an illness in 1898, which compelled Czolgosz to abandon regular work in a wire mill, with which he had been steadily occupied for seven years. While thus working, he had an unusually good reputation for industry and cheerfulness, and had been elected into a patriotic society, whose members were particular as to their associates. Unfortunately, it does not appear what was the nature of that illness, nor does Dr. Channing seem to connect the critical retrogression as even indirectly dependent upon a peculiar bashfulness in youth, so extreme as to suggest a want of equilibrium even then. It would look as though his original nervous equipment was insufficient to withstand the strain of the subsequent ill health. There are fair grounds for concurring in the conclusion that a serious delusion led to the tragedy; that in fact the man was insane, and that his dealings with anarchists had no causal relation to the crime. This recognition of delusional insanity by no means implies entire irresponsibility. In our own opinion this case was not one of irresistible impulse. There was a clear knowledge of an offence against society, and of possible escape from the penalty. Czolgosz told the Chief of Police that "he knew people sometimes escaped being hanged, and he might." There are other illustrations of his knowledge of the legitimate atonement and of the law's uncertainties. It would have been perfectly possible for him to refrain. Responsibility is not always lost when abnormal conceptions arise. An insane man having this margin of judgment may justly be condemned, for it is better to extinguish such a life and thus deter others who are on the same borderland, than, by clemency to the individual which is not mercy to the community, tempt other mental stragglers into similar paths. The alienist may determine where aberration begins; the courts should decide where responsibility ceases.

—'Days and Deeds,' by Mr. E. W. Howson (Rivingtons), is a calendar of anniversaries, with short, explanatory notes which are chiefly bibliographical. In its general arrangement and appearance this little volume recalls the familiar birthday book, and the sense of resemblance is not lessened when we examine the contents. Birthdays and deathdays bristle on every page, and seem to occupy more space than is devoted to political and military events. Battles, however, figure largely, and a few of the main stages in the progress of science are registered. The entries under each day vary in number from one to twelve, and seem to average about five. Mr. Howson, the editor, is a former fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and at present a master in Harrow School. That he has received some systematic training in history is evident from the character of the events which he has selected for notice. At the same time his entries are somewhat capricious, and he might have made better use of his space. In other words, he has included a good many names and events of third-rate importance while omitting those which belong to the first and second rank. Such a procedure may perhaps be justified on the ground that diversity is desirable, but it is hard to see why Dibdin and Bishop Andrewes should be included in a book in which exclusion of all save the most important is the main condition of success. Mr. Howson has apparently chosen to take what is representative rather than what is of the highest intrinsic consequence. He says: "I have endeavored to make this calendar as catholic as possible, and to include not merely biographical dates, but Church festivals and Councils, political events, legislative acts, the institution of orders and societies, battles, treaties, geographical and astronomical discoveries." Mr. Howson may be said to have attained the accuracy which should belong to timetables and date-books. Some of his citations from Greek and Roman history rest on questionable authority, but otherwise his entries are not open to serious reproach. One should be careful about speaking of Cabot's discovery of Newfoundland; the French Revolution had broken out before the storming of the Bastille; and the Holy Roman Empire came to an end in 1806, not 1804. These are minutiæ; on the whole, we have been favorably impressed by the editor's carefulness and the accuracy of the proof-reader.

—Iphigenia among the Taurians has become so associated in the popular mind with Gluck and Goethe that the original Euripides has been too much taken for granted. Yet the "Tauric Iphigenia," the last extant Greek play that deals with the tragic fortunes of the royal house of Mycenæ, is no less beautiful than the "Alcestis," and is as moving, in its way, as the "Medea." That it appeals to a modern audience was proved by the two performances given last week by the undergraduates of the University of Pennsylvania in the Philadelphia Academy of Music. The setting of the "Iphigenia" was simple—the regular background of polychromatic temple, with a single central door; the only special features being the skulls of the victims of Artemis and her bloodstained altar at the side, instead of the altar of Dionysus. There was no narrow raised stage as in the Harvard performance of the "Œdipus" in the eighties, but actors and chorus were on the same level, in accordance with the views of Dörpfeld. One does not look for antiquarian accuracy in a performance that must take account of modern æsthetics, so that no one need regret the absence of the tragic mask and cothurnus or cavil at the modern orchestra. Dr. Clarke's specially written music was admirably austere, and the evolutions of the chorus of Greek maidens, whose feminine get-up was most convincing, took account of strophe and antistrophe, and were charming as a whole. But for the most part they danced in silence, while their songs were sung by the members of a Philadelphia choral society, who sat with the audience, separated by the orchestra from the dancers. These singers would have been far more effective concealed in the wings, as was occasionally the practice on the Athenian stage. Even this criticism seems ungracious where the rest was so admirably managed. The enunciation of the Greek and the sense of the rhythm, points all-important to an Athenian audience, left little to be desired. The difficult monodies were well rendered by Orestes and Iphigenia, and the trochaic tetrameters sung by Iphigenia and Thoas were very effective. Such a performance involved an enormous amount of patience and hard work on the part of the actors, to say nothing of Dr. Lamberton and Dr. Clarke, who were responsible for the production. The Greek residents of Philadelphia showed their enthusiasm by their attendance, and by floral offerings which were displayed each night after the play.

MATHIESON'S POLITICS AND RELIGION.

Politics and Religion. A Study in Scottish History from the Reformation to the Revolution. By William Law Mathieson. 2 vols. Pp. 412, 387. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1902.

This book is written from an interesting standpoint, and its author occupies a somewhat unusual position among historians who have described the course of the Scottish Reformation. Mr. Mathieson has a predilection for the *via media*. John Knox and the Covenanters are not his heroes, nor is he willing to allow that fierceness of dogmatic conviction can atone for the lack of Christian charity. In his eyes the cause of Protestantism was best served by the friends of mildness and toleration. Turning his back on the zealots, he takes up the cause of the bishops. The very men whom Gardiner describes as "drifting helplessly like logs on the current of affairs" were, he believes, the possessors of the true light, and their tradition has prevailed. On the surface the Scottish church seems to be Presbyterian, but Mr. Mathieson maintains that its true liberalism is not traceable to a Presbyterian source. "Whilst professedly Presbyterian," he says, "the church has fallen into line with that great moderate tradition—the tradition of light and reason, of 'peace and concord, kindness and goodwill,'—which Episcopacy of the true Scottish type, from Cowper and Patrick Forbes

to Leighton and Charteris, had endeavored to uphold."

We have read Mr. Mathieson's volumes with great enjoyment, for his liberalism is both generous and reasonable in tone. When, however, we approach the task of criticism, we find it difficult to decide whether we should lay more stress upon the positive or negative aspects of the work; upon its praise of the moderates or its condemnation of the zealots. Perhaps we shall begin best if we say that beneath the title 'Politics and Religion' there lurks the more celebrated phrase, "Church and State." The rise of theocracy, the rule of the ministers, and the decay of Puritan fanaticism were processes which involved the clergy and the Government in closest contact. The point of departure is Knox's religious egotism. As Mr. Mathieson puts it: "The chief characteristic of the Knoxian school was its determination, fixed as the stars, to make its own interpretation of the divine law prevail over every secular and over every competing religious interest." In these words is disclosed a source of ecclesiastical and political antagonism which does not run dry until the close of the seventeenth century.

Mr. Mathieson has a great affection for those who loved Scotland better than their own particular shibboleths, and among the earliest of his favorites we must name Maitland of Lethington. This brilliant personage, who possessed all the gifts and tastes of an Italian, found his lot cast by fate among the barbarian chiefs of Edinburgh, yet none the less did he play his part in earnest. Mr. Mathieson does not pretend that his political morals were perfect or that he declined to use the methods of a conspirator. In singling Maitland out from the rest of his contemporaries and giving him precedence over other politicians of the early Reformation, Mr. Mathieson credits him with a sincere idealism. According to this view his "matchless skill in diplomacy" availed him nothing, because the breadth and enlightenment of his projects made successful statesmanship impossible in such an age. He was too advanced for Scotland, and "the cold shadow of Puritanism was already creeping over the land."

No one who feels deep sympathy for the aims of Maitland can find a place in his heart for the aspirations of Knox. The two men opposed, disliked, distrusted each other, and the opposing tendencies which they represented were not to disappear in a single lifetime. Beyond all question Knox had two great virtues, zeal and honesty. Mr. Mathieson refrains from denying him these, but for the rest the deficiencies of the Reformer are made more prominent than his triumphs. By force of character he created a church, but he was totally lacking in breadth of view. Though he vindicated the moral law, he turned a deaf ear to the Christian message of love. Knox was an exponent of the Old Testament, while the Moderates took their stand upon the Gospels.

Such, in part, were the traits of Knox, but Mr. Mathieson, rising from the particular to the general and speaking more philosophically, declares that destiny misplaced him. By virtue of his talents and cast of mind he should have been solely a destroyer, but through perverted circumstance he was called upon to organize and build. He had not the tolerance which should belong to the founder of a national church. He failed to see that the Reformation was no less political than religious. From the very first he was the leader of a minority, which, however vigorous and determined, was still a remnant. He sought to dominate the State and failed, thus leaving to the future a rooted feud of Church and State. "Whatever it might be in form—and it was not till the eighteenth century that dissent could be openly avowed—the Knoxian church was essentially the church of a minority; and thus we are confronted with the singular paradox, that the man whose ideal was a theocracy, a *Civitas Dei*, has become a parent of schism, the father of Scottish dissent."

The chronological gulf between Knox and the Moderates of the seventeenth century is bridged over by Andrew Melville, the champion of Presbyterianism, and James VI., who was wont to observe, "No bishop, no king." As a great deal of misconception exists regarding the origin of Scottish episcopacy, we shall call particular attention to Mr. Mathieson's ninth chapter, entitled "Bishops and Presbyters, 1572-1625." The Reformed Church of Knox's day was neither Episcopal nor Presbyterian. It certainly inclined towards Presbyterianism, but the question was not decisively settled when Knox died. At the time of Melville's return to Scotland in 1574, the Episcopal system had been rendered scandalous by open simony (as, for example, in Morton's appointment of John Douglas to the Archbishopric of St. Andrew's), and an active crusade against it began. In July, 1580, it was condemned by the Assembly, and for thirty years "new presbyters" had all the power of old priests and prelates. James VI. had been seated upon the English throne for seven years before Episcopacy was reëstablished to the north of the Tweed.

It is the pacific spirit of these bishops who came to preside over the Scottish church in 1610 that Mr. Mathieson makes the chief object of his praise. They did not begin by declaring the *jus divinum* of episcopacy, but were quite willing to preside as Commissioners of Assembly over a Presbyterian Church. This at least was their personal disposition; and even when the Crown urged them to become partisans, they preserved the Melvillian framework of kirk-sessions, presbyteries, and synods. The thorny subject of apostolical succession was kept prudently in the background, and the people were so little constrained to kneel at communion that the practice remained almost unknown. In a word, the bishops desired compromise, or, to choose a less unpopular word, they desired a reconciliation which should exalt Christianity on the ruins of faction. One of them, William Forbes, Bishop of Edinburgh (†1634), went farther still and wished to heal the breach with Rome. "The ideal of his life," says Mr. Mathieson, "was to reconcile the Roman and Reformed communions; and to this end he made concessions which even the most moderate of his own party regarded as far too great. It was sufficiently startling to an Edinburgh audience in these days to be told from the pulpit that Christ died for all, that the Pope is not Antichrist, that a papist, living and dying as such, may be saved, that Christ is really present in the sacrament, though in what manner cannot be known." All the ritualistic bishops were Arminians, and John Crighton did not hesitate to style predestination "a doctrine rashly devised, hatched in hell, and worthy to be delete out of God's word."

It may be urged that when Forbes was making advances to the Romanists and Crighton was attacking predestination, the work of winning over the Presbyterians could have met with little success. Mr. Mathieson, however, does not "regard such men as Crighton and William Forbes, liberal and enlightened and charitable as they were, as true representatives of the Church which had emerged, weaker but infinitely wiser, from its long conflict with the State." Among the moderate Episcopalians, he finds his representative leaders in Patrick Forbes, Spottiswoode, and Cowper for the period before 1638 (when Presbytery was restored by the Puritan Revolution), and in Robert Leighton, Laurence Charteris, and James Nairn for the period after 1662 (when the bishops were brought back once more by the Restoration). The group which surrounded Leighton from 1667 to 1674 was certainly marked by a candor and far-sightedness that are most rare amid the raging feuds of prelatists and covenanters. In the words of Mr. Mathieson: "Leighton must be acknowledged to have founded anew, after it had been dissipated by the storms of the Covenant, that great body of pious, liberal, and enlightened opinion which, in the face both of episcopal and of ultra-Presbyterian secessions, has adhered to his golden rule: 'The mode of church government is immaterial; but peace and concord, kindness and good will, are indispensable.'"

Into Mr. Mathieson's account of the Covenant, the theocratic experiment (1648-51), the Pentland Rising, the Bothwell Rising, the Cameronians, and the Revolution settlement, we are unable to enter. We must be content to pause now that we have indicated his leading tenets. *Ex hypothesi*, few books can be more controversial than his, and it would be no difficult matter to cast ridicule upon the position of those whom he delights to honor. At the same time he has presented a brilliant defence of the Scottish Moderates and furnished a hard nut for the friends of Puritanism to crack.

DÖRPFELD'S TROY.

Troja und Ilion: Ergebnisse der Ausgrabungen in den vorhistorischen und historischen Schichten von Ilion, 1870-1894. Von Wilhelm Dörpfeld, unter Mitwirkung von A. Brückner, H. von Fritze, A. Götze, H. Schmidt, W. Wilberg, H. Winnefeld. Athens: Beck & Barth. 1902. Quarto. Pp. xviii., 652. With 471 illustrations in the text, 68 plates, and 8 plans and maps.

Of no other site and its history for three thousand years have we so detailed and comprehensive an account in a single book as Dr. Dörpfeld here supplies us for ancient Troy. He himself gives a history of the excavations there (pp. 1-25), a description of the buildings and fortifications of the different strata (pp. 26-242), an account of Homeric Troy (pp. 601-632), and a list of photographs and views of the ruins and discoveries (pp. 633-644)—or nearly half of the

entire work. Schmidt writes on Trojan ceramic (pp. 243-319), with a note on the Treri or Cimmerii as the inhabitants of the Troad just before the Greek settlements of the seventh century B. C. (pp. 594-600); Götze on minor articles of metal, bone, stone, and clay (pp. 320-428); Winnefeld on sculpture and plastic (pp. 429-446), and on graves and funeral mounds (pp. 535-548); Brückner on inscriptions (pp. 447-476), and the history of Troy and Ilium (pp. 549-593); Von Fritze on the coins of Ilium (pp. 477-534). Wilberg's name stands on the title-page, though he is the author of no section of the work, since he was the assistant of Dörpfeld in studying the architecture. The book is dedicated to the German Emperor, who granted the money for the completion of the excavations, in 1894.

Originally, Dörpfeld planned to give only an account of his excavations in 1894, and their results, but wisely extended his design since his discoveries of that year could be seen in their true relations only by the light of the previous and far more extensive explorations. Schliemann's books, 'Troy and its Remains,' 'Ilios,' and 'Troja,' now have value only as chronicles of his excavations, and as giving illustrations of some objects which have not been republished; whatever scientific value they once possessed has now passed from them. Dörpfeld himself treats Schliemann very tenderly, both out of loyalty to his former chief, and from a clear appreciation of the aims and circumstances of the early excavations. His collaborators, however, are distinct in calling attention to a bronze vase in the Schliemann Museum made up of fragments from three different periods, to bronze bowls which were published as helmets, to a large dish or platter which was listed as a shield, to riveted handles which were said to be soldered, etc. The "Treasure of Priam" proves to have been found not exactly as Schliemann stated; it probably was not in a chest, but in a niche, and the copper "key" found near it now seems to be a chisel. Some of the collaborators accept Schliemann's evidence only when corroborated, or in a second class, basing their discussions on the more careful observations of 1893-94. We hear no more of "owl-headed" vases, to say nothing of the "owl-headed Athena," who was withdrawn long ago, and the name *svastika* is not so much as mentioned. Schliemann went to the Troad not as an archæologist, but as a retired man of business, with a warm admiration for Homer and a strong belief that the poet had an historical basis for his story. His sole aim was to prove that the Homeric Troy had once stood on the low hill of Hissarlik, and he assumed that this settlement was the earliest of all. So he cut a broad trench from north to south across the hill, removing about one-fourth of the remains, destroying not only Roman and Hellenic ruins, and some from the Mycenæan period, but even important foundations of the so-called Second City. He had at times 150 workmen busy in these excavations, without a single archæologist as an adviser. Only in the fifth year of his explorations (1879) did he have the counsel of two men of science—Virchow, the anthropologist, and Burnouf, the French archæologist. In 1882 he secured the services of Dr. Dörpfeld, who had been engaged for four years in the German explorations at Olympia, and who has been since 1887 the head of the Athenian branch of the German Archæological Institute, and is the highest authority on Greek architecture.

No excavated ancient site has been more complicated than Troy. The accumulated earth and ruins there, at the beginning of the excavations, were in places more than fifty feet deep. Nine distinct layers of ruins there are described, bearing the records of at least nine different settlements. One of these is further divided by Dörpfeld into three periods, and another into two. If the main facts had been understood from the first, the problem would have seemed insoluble—the scientific investigation of the lower layers without the destruction of what was important in the upper strata. Schliemann's broad trench greatly increased the difficulty of the archæologist, by removing much needed evidence. The perplexity of the problem had been made indefinitely greater by the Romans, who, with the desire to make the hill a broad sanctuary for the Ilian Athena, had levelled its top, and in the process removed from the middle of the site not merely the remains of the recent Hellenic settlement, but also those of the Mycenæan age. Thus buildings of the ninth or Roman city came to stand at this point immediately over those of the fifth or pre-Homeric city. This fact was not discovered until after Schliemann's death, although he was surprised at finding pre-historic remains so near the surface—nearer, as we know now, than they were two thousand years before.

Another complication in the problem before the modern archæologist was caused still earlier, probably about the middle of the sixth century B. C., by the removal of the north wall of the Homeric city as building material for the fortifications of the neighboring Sigeum. Other difficulties arose from the difference of thickness of the strata in different parts of the site, and from the use of the same walls, with repairs and other modifications, by succeeding generations. Dörpfeld has added to the inevitable limitations set him by the demolition of ruins before he took charge of the work, by leaving part of the site in its state of forty years ago, in order that some future generation, with more scientific methods and perfected means, may have the satisfaction of testing the work of the last few years. He has declined also to destroy some monuments of the upper layers in order to learn what lies beneath. Thus, naturally, the lowest stratum has been least explored, but fortunately this seems to be of the least interest to us.

For the early history of the citadel of Troy, and its division into periods, the architecture, and in particular that of the fortifications, furnishes the principal evidence. For the nine successive settlements which he distinguishes on this site, Dörpfeld makes an estimate in round numbers of the age of each: for the first city from 3,000 to 2,500 B. C.; the second (Schliemann's "Homeric") city from 2,500 to 2,000 B. C.; the third, fourth, and fifth cities from 2000 to 1,500 B. C.; the sixth or Homeric city, of the Mycenæan age, from 1500 to 1000 B. C.; the seventh, in two periods, from 1000 to 700 B. C.; the eighth or Hellenic city, from 700 B. C., to the Christian era; the ninth or Roman city, from the beginning of our era to 500 A. D. The round numbers indicate the lack of precision. Clearly the author thinks nothing in the way of accepting the traditional date, 1184 B. C., for the sack of Troy, and he says that the true dates of the earlier strata may differ by a millennium from his estimates.

In the Homeric city, Dörpfeld supposes the main gate and approach to the town to have been on the southeast, and that this was the "Dardanian Gate," so called as leading to the Dardanian district. The northern wall, as we have seen, was destroyed long ago, probably in the sixth century B. C., but our author is ready to accept the belief in a gate near the northwest corner of the city, which would be the Homeric "Scæan Gate," opening toward the Hellespont where lay the ships of the Greeks. To this the approach from the plain would be much steeper than to the Dardanian Gate, but on the tower by the Scæan Gate the old men and the women would stand in order to watch the conflicts on the plain below. Since Hector was slain near the Dardanian Gate, Dörpfeld believes that old Priam and Hecuba, standing by the Scæan Gate, did not see their son's death, but that their first knowledge of the catastrophe came from the sight of his body dragged to the Greek camp behind the chariot of Achilles. This is a new but entirely reasonable interpretation of the Homeric story.

Our detailed knowledge of the history of the Trojan site for the thousand years from 500 B. C. to 500 A. D. rests largely upon the evidence of coins and inscriptions, though historians and others have preserved some information. Herodotus tells of the visit and sacrifice of Xerxes on his way against Greece, Xenophon refers to a sacrifice offered by a Spartan admiral, and Arrian gives an account of the visit paid to the shrine by Alexander the Great. From the anecdote that Alexander declined an invitation to look at the lyre of Paris, but said that he should like to see that of Achilles, the inference is drawn that a museum was maintained of relics of the Trojan war. The inhabitants of New Ilium certainly claimed descent from those of the Homeric city rather than from Greeks. Hector was the hero most honored by them, and no Greek heroes appear on their coins except as vanquished in battle. From 700 B. C. to the beginning of our era, Ilium was the religious hearth of the district, and the centre of a league, but was only a small town. Alexander gave to it the privilege of coining money, which it long maintained and exercised. The work before us gives 114 cuts of coins, some of which are of real excellence. The best of the series are of the second century B. C. From their first occupation of the district, the Romans granted autonomy to the Ilians on the ground that they were their kinsmen, and these privileges were renewed and increased by Julius Cæsar, who derived his descent from the goddess Aphrodite through Æneas. The Emperor Augustus, however, is called on a coin the "founder of the city," though an accident to his daughter Julia at the crossing of the Scamander nearly brought upon Ilium a heavy fine, which was averted by Herod the Great. Marcus Aurelius rebuilt the temple and gave to it a new statue. The whole citadel was then reserved for religious purposes, and the town extended for a considerable distance at its foot. The importance of the city at

that time is shown by the imposing remains of an aqueduct which would be no discredit to Rome itself. At no other period did the settlement cover so much ground.

The circuit of the Homeric walls is only a trifle more than a third of a mile in length, and encloses a space too small to serve as the camp or home of a large body of men, and Dörpfeld believes that, in the early form of the poet's story, the number of combatants was not nearly so large as the Homeric "Catalogue of Ships" implies, and calls attention to the fact that (according to the Iliad itself) in the next generation before the Trojan war Hercules, with an expedition of only six boats, had captured the city.

Our author expresses no view with regard to the ethnic relations of any of the early inhabitants of Ilium, nor as to the causes which led to the selection of a hill only a hundred feet in height, and no higher than parts of the surrounding plateau, as the seat of a kingdom, nor as to its sources of power and wealth. He limits himself to the discussion of that for which he has a scientific basis. Nor does he anywhere explain the double name in the title of the book, unless the explanation is indicated by a sentence which speaks of "prehistoric Troy and historic Ilion." More exact, apparently, would be *Ilios* for the Homeric city, and *Ilion* for that of later times; *Troy* is no older than *Ilium*.

With the material at his disposal, Dörpfeld has done the utmost. Though he does not shrink on occasion from expressing doubts, he accounts convincingly for nearly all the fragments of walls built at various times between 3,000 B. C. and 500 A. D. From a small portion of a building he often reconstructs the whole—just as a palæontologist will reconstruct from a single bone an animal of a long-bygone age—in a manner and with an assurance possible to no other architect. And he is a master not only of the art of architecture, but also of that of persuasion; he arranges his arguments in the most imposing and alluring form, and avoids the appearance of trying to lead the reader farther than the latter chooses to go. He has obeyed in spirit, and almost in letter, the Horatian rule for delay in publication, *nonum prematur in annum*. The excavations were completed in 1894, and this book was not published until the very last weeks of 1902. Few such works have been more carefully revised; the proofs have been read and the statements verified in the presence of the monuments, on the site of Ilium. The reviewer regrets to add that the book has no index, though this is needed.

FIRE PREVENTION.

Facts on Fire Prevention: The Results of Fire Tests Conducted by the British Fire Prevention Committee. Edited by Edwin O. Sachs, Architect. With photographs and drawings showing materials and results of tests. In two volumes, pp. xxviii., 219; vi., 226. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribner. 1902.

The British Fire Prevention Committee was founded in 1897, as we are told in the Introduction, and was incorporated in 1899. In a protesting tone, the editor, best known to American students as the author of those folios devoted to the modern theatre which appeared between 1896 and 1898, notes that no Government aid nor any public recognition of any sort had been given (June, 1902) to the committee's labors. The writer goes on to say that, in spite of this lack of encouragement, "London has become the recognized testing centre of the world as far as unprejudiced, systematic, and trustworthy reports of fire-resisting materials are concerned." Credit is given to the United States for three sets of experiments —at Denver in 1890, at Brooklyn in 1896, and at New York in 1897; and great surprise is expressed that Germany, as the country of thoroughgoing investigation, should have neglected the subject, at least so far as public notoriety goes. No mention, however, is made of that other fact, which is perhaps sufficient to account for energy in one case and for indifference in the other, viz., that Great Britain, along with the United States, suffers immeasurably more from conflagrations than does Germany. It is hardly necessary here to give the reasons, so far as discoverable, why this extraordinary difference exists; but it is a well-known fact that English building is far more commonly a matter of woodwork, or largely of woodwork, than that of any Continental nation, while in the United States, of course, building in wood is the rule, even the brick-fronted houses of the towns being all of wood within, and even the so-called fireproof buildings having still an amount of carpenter work and joiner work in their construction which would be inconceivable to a planner of equivalent buildings in Italy, France, or Germany. It is, therefore, not surprising that three investigations were held in the United States, nor that a permanently established committee is working in London. What is surprising is the apparent willingness in England and America to accept as final a tentative condition of things in which all efforts are directed towards a mitigation of the evil inherent in the old ways of buildings with great proportionate amounts of wood, both in construction and in finishing joinery, while almost nothing is said or done about replacing combustible material with that which will not catch fire.

The first volume of the work before us deals with tests of floors, ceilings, and partitions, together with one experiment on a so-called "nonflammable" wood. The second volume has to do with doors, with glazing, and with "curtains" in the sense of fire-arresting screens. It appears that a floor of steel joists, with concrete, collapsed rather quickly, though at a temperature nowhere approaching the maximum temperature allowed—2,300° Fahr. A similar test, applied to a floor of wooden joists with concrete and a ceiling of plaster applied to expanded metal, bore the maximum heat (always, by calculation and as nearly as could be ascertained, 2,300°) without serious injury. This fact had been plainly enough foreseen by architects who felt the need of precautions against burning. Thirty years before the close of the nineteenth century, the protective coverings of terra cotta, cement, wire lath with plaster, and the like were competing with one another as protections for iron work in buildings; and even then some of those architects who saw with anxiety and distress the continued and frightful loss of property and of life by fire, were convinced, and were ready to stand by their convictions, that heavy timber was a better resistant to heat than iron, even if protected by any means so far discovered. It was reasoned that a post which had a floor to carry would, if a hollow cylinder of cast iron, feel throughout its whole substance the weakening effect of the high temperature and would yield altogether, whereas the equivalent of this column in solid wood would char from without inward, and would hold a very considerable weight for hours after the charring had begun, and indeed so long as a part of the wood within remained unaffected. Wood is an excellent non-conductor of heat, and a stick of circular section eighteen inches thick would bear exposure to a very great heat, for a time so considerable that the intervention of the fire department might be almost counted on to save that pillar before it lost all its strength, whereas the cast-iron column would collapse with a very brief submission to the same degree of temperature. To this was to be added the well-known fact that the rush of cold water upon the iron would produce a further ruinous effect, whereas on the slowly charring wood it would work no injury, but would extinguish the fire and leave a certain portion of the post intact.

There was no great gift of perception needed for this, nor any ingenuity in the putting up of the heavily framed timber construction. At the very same epoch which is indicated above, the well-known "mill construction" of New England was taking shape, the investigation being pursued along nearly the same lines. In short, it appeared that those who were reasoning about the matter, being moved thereto by strong conviction and something like emotion of disgust at the "annual ash heap," were inclined to be very reluctant to use rolled or cast iron except in buildings from which all combustible material was excluded. Those, on the other hand, who were putting in iron beams, iron columns, and the rest, were often the men whom the dealers in patent materials could more easily persuade. There was a wonderful amount of pressure brought to bear upon every person connected with building—a pressure not dishonest, not unintelligent even, but which looked primarily to the increase of the dividend of the rolling-mills, of the foundries, of the many companies made up on purpose to work new processes of protection against fire. As it was about 1870, so it still is to a great extent; the world of builders is very slow to learn the lesson that iron in any form is just about the most dangerous material that can be introduced into a building unless all possibility is removed of getting up a brisk fire within the walls of that building. But that is just what the other community, the community of renters of buildings and of offices, will not put up with. The firm of lawyers, the firm of brokers, the firm of architects who hire an office, is generally made up of men who cannot conceive of comfort with other than wooden floors, with other than wooden doors, dadoes, door trims, window trims, frames and sashes, and all the rest of it. The main structure of the building, if a modern structure, will be in nearly every case incombustible throughout; but it is overlain with

an amount of wooden flooring carried on sleepers between which (the cement filling being omitted) there is often a series of horizontal flues each about an inch and a half by eleven inches in section, and along these the fire runs merrily and is given help to run. At each end of these flues there is wood in the form of well-oiled and well-varnished baseboards, and probably dadoes three feet high, which in their turn lead to door trims, and so on for ever. So it has been for thirty years, and so it continues to be; and now comes this London committee and tests by careful experiment a number of differing floors and partitions, and publishes the result in a series of tables.

Tables they are, and nothing else; the books consist of tables, for although there are pages of minute, detailed description of the occurrences in the course of each test, these descriptions are, of course, tabulated, in the sense that the little paragraphs dealing respectively with separate phenomena must follow each other in the order which the succession of events has dictated, and cannot be organized into a narrative. For instance, in volume ii., pages 36 to 50, are set forth the results of a double test with a two-inch framed oak door with two-inch solid panels, and a teak door of the same dimensions in every respect, and the test applied was settled to be "a fierce fire of one hour, gradually increasing to a temperature of 2,000° Fahr." It is clear that the pages describing this double test could only be of a tabular character, and indeed it will be found that many of the pages have a tabular form, the double-column arrangement being adopted for these pages only. There are a great number of photographic illustrations accompanying the account of this double test, as well as the succeeding test in which an oak door and an American walnut door were compared. It may be mentioned, by the way, that the four doors did their work about equally well—fifty-five to fifty-eight minutes limiting their resistance, counting to the moment when the door finally collapsed.

It will be seen from what has been said that there is here no treatise on the subject, and that the student who takes this book in hand must compare somewhat minutely table with table, plate with plate, doing his own little sums of subtraction to fix the amount of time consumed in each test, and not merely "draw his own conclusions," but set down on his own memorandum-papers the figures upon which his conclusions are to be based. No one, indeed, may complain of this: it is a perfectly sensible way for a student to proceed, and it is probable that most persons wishing to examine this subject thoroughly would rather receive the record of the test in this abstract form with hardly any comment, except in Mr. Sachs's introduction, than to have the whole thing reduced to the semblance of a magazine article, more readable, but not so precisely instructive.

The Oriental Series: Japan and China: Their History, Arts, and Literature. By Captain F. Brinkley. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.

Of the full dozen finely illustrated volumes in this series, eight are devoted to Japan and four to China. In the second half, issued this year, the same excellence in mechanical production of text, picture, and binding is maintained. Volume VII. deals with Japanese applied art, more especially in architecture, sculpture, decoration, and sword furnishing, and Volume VIII. with the keramic art of Japan. A work dealing authoritatively with the long story of Japanese pottery, from aboriginal baked clay and dolmen relics to the triumphs in material, decoration, and form from Satsuma and Hizen, was needed. Although there is a very respectable library of European works on the pottery and decorative porcelain of Japan, yet the astonishing inaccuracy of most of them has long been known to all serious students of the art and its history in Japan. If Captain Brinkley is sometimes rather severe upon certain authors who have posed as experts and authorities, it is because more than thirty years of critical study of the original authorities, from pen and kiln, gives him the right to speak.

He begins his accounts with the clay effigies which in primitive ages were made the substitutes for human sacrifices. He is inclined to believe that, apart from aboriginal essays, the keramic industry had a sufficiently recognized status in Japan before the advent of letters, and that it flourished chiefly in Idzumo. Japanese tradition points to the later introduction of improved shapes and of glazing from Korea. The long step in improvement was made in the eighth century, when the Buddhist priest Gyogi, who is credited with the introduction of the potter's wheel, came to Japan. He instructed the people wherever he went, not only in keramics, but also in the arts of carpentry, carving, engineering, writing, and poetry. The next great step was in the thirteenth century, when Kato the potter, having voyaged to China, and during his six years' stay learned many keramic secrets, returned to Séto, his native village in Owari, and gave new impetus to his art. After his long and industrious life, Japanese pottery became in common language "Séto ware." Besides a temple reared in his memory (a long inscription detailing his life and achievements and the preservation of his relics), the "Prince of Potters" and the "God of Kilns" has semi-annual festivals held in his honor, of which horse-racing and dancing are the chief features. The Japanese is nothing if not merry at his worship. To the wares of Hizen, Satsuma, Kioto, Kaga, Owari, and Mino, the author devotes a chapter of description, criticism, and lore very delightful to those who have feasted their eyes on the native shapes and decorations, and electrified their finger tips with the glazes. As the Greek colonist took fire from the shrine in his native city, so the Japanese travellers and diplomatists from Nippon carry to distant countries, to soften the pangs of absence, pottery made from the clay of their native land or district.

Capt. Brinkley does not pass over modern developments, but, for obvious reasons, these do not detain him long. Then the pictorial art is taken up. Interesting as this is in itself and worthy as is Brinkley's text, even after Anderson's masterly and well-nigh exhaustive catalogues and publications, and Fenollosa's subtle criticism, yet of striking, almost startling, interest are the pictures and description of the work of the painter Watanabé, who, except as Mrs. Fraser refers to him, has been passed over by modern essayists. He was the pioneer of Western influence in painting, and for this heresy he fell under political suspicion and received the fatal order to commit suicide by hara-kiri, which he gracefully accomplished. On the fiftieth anniversary of his death—that is, in November, 1890—"New Japan" did homage to his memory by exhibiting for two days at the Reigan temple in Tokio a large collection of his works. Meanwhile, the priests chanted litanies and recited mass for the repose of the ill-fated painter's soul, and the dirk with which *seppuku* had been committed rested on the original tray of white pine from which it had been taken for the final act. It is easy thus to account for that "want of receptivity" among native artists of the nineteenth century to which Dr. Anderson refers. Hokusai felt the foreign influence, but not to the point of receiving an order to open his bowels. Although there are contemporaneous artists of fame who preserve the characteristics of Japanese painting while adopting all the technical teachings of the West, Capt. Brinkley concludes that to marry Japanese pictorial art to the art of the West "would be to deprive it of its individuality and therefore of much of its charm."

In treating of bronze casting, architectural sculpture, the decoration and the multifarious applications of art, both as pure design and as representation, to the sword, the author is exceedingly felicitous. Not only is he a trained soldier and a scholar, like the Japanese samurai himself; few, perhaps, know the national and local history with more critical acumen and width of scholarship. Under his treatment, Japanese art appears as the perfectly natural outgrowth of the country and people. How the hermit islanders loved to picture the "Outside-country" men—the Dutch, the Mantchu, the Aino, the Tartar, the Formosan, the Cochin-Chinese—is told with wit and truth. The particular work of each artist receives historical treatment and just appreciation, while our author's running commentary on the works of European writers is well seasoned with the salt of criticism.

The remaining four volumes are devoted to China, and here the author naturally shows, in comparison, some limitations, which he frankly confesses. Yet, on the subject of keramic art, the writer is a master, for, besides seeing most of the originals which are described in his pages, he has been surrounded by experts in æsthetic lore. It is more than probable that, in these discussions of early and mediæval Chinese pottery and porcelain, celadons, monochromes and polychromes, and the various decorations over and under the glaze, we have a mass of critical knowledge that sums up the whole situation better than any single writing thus far attempted.

Proceeding from art to describe the features of the country, its administration, finance, and early periods of foreign intercourse, the author has the advantage of knowing much from the native writers and their works, and the best that has been produced by Occidental scholars who have lived in the country and obtained knowledge at first hand. Strange as it may seem, Capt. Brinkley, though an Englishman of strong personal tastes and ideas, does not wholly approve of the way his countrymen and others have tried to force China to adopt

an alien civilization. His discussion, in three chapters, of "The Propaganda and Chinese Religion" is, in every sense of the word, temperate and luminous. Naturally, the most interesting portion of the concluding volume is the final chapter, entitled "To-day." The reading of it is not calculated to make one proud of the methods of Western diplomacy, although one gets the idea that in writing it the author has exercised unusual self-control. While for the loss of two hundred and thirty-seven foreign lives, the Chinese Government under compulsion ordered three suicides and three decapitations, yet on the other hand "a vast number of Chinese fell under the swords of the avenging troops; and it is undeniable that against many of these sufferers no offence could be charged except inability to exclude Boxers from their hamlets. . . . Whole districts were ruthlessly and needlessly laid waste." In the notes of the appendix, the subject receives fuller treatment: "The seeds of hatred sown in that evil time must add their quota to the crop of tares that overgrows so much of the story of foreign intercourse with China. . . . The Far East, then, is the storm centre of the world to-day."

Besides the notes, chronological tables, and abundant and well-made indexes, there is an excellent map of the Chinese Empire, Korea and Japan, which shows the railways both complete and projected.

The Dukhobors. By Joseph Elkinton. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach.

Those who are interested in that now famous sect, the Dukhobortzi (commonly abbreviated into Dukhobors), cannot do better than read Mr. Elkinton's account of their settlements in Canadian territory. Mr. Elkinton is a Quaker, and his fellow-religionists have taken particular charge, so to speak, of these Russians, who hold views akin to their own as to bearing arms, and in their general lack of ceremonies, notably in the contraction of marriages. The author is, obviously, more accustomed to perform good deeds than to prepare a book of reference, although that is, practically, what his work is intended to be. The reader should make marginal notes in order to refind his desired statements of fact, as events follow neither a chronological nor any other definite order, and many are repeated, as though the present volume consisted of a collection of articles written at different times and not thoroughly revised. The numerous pictures add to the interest and value; but beyond these the reader must accept as entirely authoritative nothing except the description of the Dukhobors' life, manners, and principles in their present home. Had the author had access to the Russian view of the situation in Russia, the internecine quarrels over money between Verigin and his rivals, the mutual denunciation to the authorities of the two parties (which cupidity and treachery were the cause of the whole trouble that ended in the famous exodus); and had he explained these matters from the Dukhobor point of view and (if possible) justified them, the historical as well as the sociological and human worth of his book would have been immeasurably enhanced. However individual the above-mentioned actions may have been, their momentous effect on the whole community is self-evident; and the lack of explanation vitiates the statement of the events which underlie the present situation, and renders this account as one-sided and partisan as the isolated statement of the Russian point of view would be.

Neither need the summary of Russian history, which is appended, either to increase the size of the book or as a necessary corollary in the author's mind, be taken seriously. It shows lack of study and comprehension, quite naturally. As the author himself says of the Dukhobors: "Divine truth is frequently so associated with human error, even in the most devout minds, that we shall always need to separate and cherish the spiritual purpose and ideal, apart from its expression." One thing is certain: aside from their rebellion against the constituted authorities, which effected their emigration from Russia, and which the Canadian Government is now engaged in contending with, these people possess many and admirable virtues. To their kindliness, hospitality, and lack of rancor towards Russia, the Russian Bishop of North America has recently borne witness. While engaged in a pastoral visit to some Bukovinians near one of the Dukhobor settlements (these were not among the fanatics who "sought Christ" last autumn, by the way, but the more rational contingent), the Bishop called on the Dukhobors. He told them who he was (and his garb of itself showed his calling); but he was cordially received, treated to sour cabbage, black bread, and tea—out of deference to Lent they chose the suitable viands—and to the singing of Russian ballads by their maidens. Among the latter was one, "The voice of our petition has reached the Tsar," and neither in this, nor in what they said, did any hostile or unpleasant spirit toward Russia manifest itself.

Mr. Elkinton admits that the sect has erred in the past, and he thinks it likely that there may be further disintegration in the future. He is quite sure that they will never become paupers, and that the unprecedented aid which has been rendered them has been well bestowed; in which the reader will agree with him. His full statement of their contentions with the Canadian Government is, perhaps, the most valuable feature in the book, both in its authoritativeness and in its complete frankness and fairness. He also sets forth the origin and progress of the regrettable march in search of Christ last autumn, and attributes much of the trouble which has arisen, so far, in the communities, to the malignant efforts of a professional agitator; in which he is probably right, given the admirable character, in most respects, of these Dukhobors as a whole. He also admits that "they have been driven into a false position toward all government, and the writings of Count Tolstoy and his followers have emphasized this disposition." Had he but explained that most interesting point, how Tolstoy came to be connected with their religious opinions, his book would have filled a want which the public has felt ever since the Dukhobors began to be prominent. But this belongs to the side of his subject of which Mr. Elkinton is blissfully ignorant—the Russian side.

Despite its defects and lack of coherent arrangement, the volume contains many valuable facts, worthy to be culled out and perpetuated.

The Eldorado of the Ancients. By Dr. Carl Peters. With two maps and 97 illustrations. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902. Pp. x., 447. 8vo.

This is practically a prospector's report of the results of his search for gold-fields in South Africa. The author spent two years in the lower Zambesi region, appropriating territory and registering claims for the "Dr. Carl Peters's Estates and Exploration Company." Of his success he apparently has no doubt, for he affirms of one of the properties acquired, "The Windâhgil Mine, especially as regards the richness of its ore, is second to none in the whole world." We confess to a slight feeling of surprise that he makes no offer to his readers of a limited number of shares at a price much below the value which they will have when put upon the open market. It is difficult to feel much interest in a book written with this object, and Dr. Peters has not the literary ability to make the narrative of his uneventful journeys in a comparatively well-known country entertaining. He himself figures largely in it, even to the extent of three full-page portraits. One of his first acts on reaching the field of his labors was to name a prominent height Mount Peters, and his pages contain numerous personal references and irrelevant extracts from his diary, together with tediously minute details as to the lay of the land and its geological formation.

Following the narrative are six short chapters containing, with many quotations from ancient and modern writers, Dr. Peters's reasons for believing this region to be Ophir and the goal of the voyages to Punt. We have been unable to discover that he has added anything of material importance to what has been said on these subjects, but we readily grant, to use his own words, that his discoveries have "thrown new light on the ruins of Inyanga, and established that ancient copper-mines exist on the Sabi. By their means I believe that I have contributed something towards the unravelment of the Himyaritic era of South African history." He points out, in some concluding chapters upon the present condition and future prospects of Rhodesia, a great mistake in its founders in that their efforts were directed exclusively to the development of its mineral resources, the construction of roads and the building of towns, to the neglect of all provision for cultivating the soil. In consequence, in the summer of 1901, there was a state of general want, "even of poverty." Dr. Peters characterizes the genuine Rhodesian as one who is in the habit of waiting for a "boom" in the bar of a public house in Buluwayo, Salisbury, or Umtali. He condemns the system of granting extensive concessions "under which groups of capitalists who do not want to take part in the actual work of developing these regions, settle down on large land and mining rights, and by this means keep smaller men from proceeding with the real working of the country." But apparently he lays his company open to the same charge, for he registered 280 mining claims in three districts only of the many in which he prospected. His solution of the labor problem is to force the negro "to devote some twelve years of his life to working for the Government. During this time he should receive food and shelter, and a small wage, say about two shillings a month, like the Prussian soldier. He should

have Sunday for himself, he should be allowed to marry, he should be treated humanely and justly. The labor thus obtained should be contracted out by the Government to private enterprises." Although he here advocates just and humane treatment of the natives, in his own dealings with them he showed, in our opinion, a criminal indifference to their true welfare, especially by frequently giving them liquor. Any one who is familiar with the facts of Dr. Peters's career as an explorer and German official in East Africa must regret, for the natives' sake, his reappearance in South Africa, though in the humbler guise of a gold-hunter.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ade, George. People You Know. R. H. Russell.
Alden, R. M. English Verse. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Augier, E., and Foussier, E. Un Beau Mariage. Henry Holt & Co. 35 cents.
Bachelor, Ann. Thoughts from Emerson. Boston: James H. Earle & Co. 75 cents.
Bashford, H. H. Tommy Wideawake. John Lane.
Bell, J. T. Civil War Stories. San Francisco: Whitaker & Ray Co. $1.
Bierwirth, H. C. Beginning German. Henry Holt & Co. 80 cents.
Boult, Katharine F. Heroes of the Norselands. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Byrum, E. E. What Shall I Do to Be Saved? Moundsville (W. Va.): Gospel Trumpet Publishing Company.
Challis, J. C. Indian Summer, and Other Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.50.
Ellis, E. S. Historical Readings Illustrative of American Patriotism. Silver, Burdett & Co. 60 cents.
Gratacap, L. P. The Certainty of a Future Life in Mars. Brentano's.
Greaves, Richard. Brewster's Millions. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Gregory, Eleanor C. Selections from the Works of Palestrina: Mass: Confitebor tibi, Domine. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.
Hart, Mabel. Sacrilege Farm. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Haskins, C. W. How to Keep Household Accounts. Harpers.
Hendrick, B. A. How to Study Literature. Hinds & Noble.
Holt, L. E. The Care and Feeding of Infants. Revised edition. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Hugo, Victor. Les Misérables. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Jackson, Katherine H. M. Summer Songs in Idleness. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Kummer, H. T. Semanoud. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Loveman, Robert. The Gates of Silence, with Interludes of Song. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Luther, Martin. Christian Liberty. New ed. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.
MacGrath, Harold. The Grey Cloak. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company.
Mallik, M. C. The South African Problem. London: P. S. King & Son.
Manderson, C. F. The Twin Seven-Shooters. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.
Mathers, E. P. The Story of "South Africa," Newspaper. London: "South Africa."
Meade, E. S. Trust Finance. D. Appleton & Co.
Miller, Olive T. True Bird Stories from My Note-books. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Noyes, W. A. A Text-Book of Organic Chemistry. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Phillips Brooks as his Friends Knew Him. Boston: The Pilgrim Press. 75 cents.
Phillips, S. L. The Testimony of Reason. Washington: Neale Pub. Co. 50 cents.
Pope, Alexander. Complete Poetical Works. (Cambridge Edition.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Roberts, Harry. The Tramp's Handbook. (The Country Handbooks.) John Lane.
Roberts, I. P. The Farmer's Business Handbook. Macmillan.
Roseboro, Viola. The Joyous Heart. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Saintine, X-B. Picciola. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Mérimée, Prosper. Colomba. 40 cents.
Schinz, Albert. Colomba. Prosper Mérimée. 40 cents.
Shakspere, W. The Tragedie of Macbeth. (The Elizabethan Shakspere.) Edited by Mark Harvey. Liddell. Doubleday, Page & Co. Edition de luxe. $12.50.
Snow, C. H. The Principal Species of Wood: Their Characteristic Properties. John Wiley & Sons. $3.50.
Snow, W. B., and Lebon, C. B. Easy French. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Street, C. S. Whist Up to Date. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Surveying as Practised by Civil Engineers and Surveyors. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.
Temple Classics: (1) Lays of Ancient Rome. T. B. Macaulay; (2) The Borough: A Poem. George Crabbe; (3) The Bee and Other Essays. Oliver Goldsmith. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents each.
The Reflections of a Lonely Man. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Townsend, Harriet A. Every Day with Emerson. Buffalo: The White-Evans Penfold Company.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 14, 1903.

The Week.

The extraordinary turning of Democratic sympathies to Mr. Cleveland is a fine tribute to character. It shows that such solid parts and services as his can not be permanently obscured by a storm of calumny and detraction. All that he has had to do has been to wait quietly for the whirligig of time to bring him its revenges. Where all was execration, all is now acclaim. It is a kind of foretaste of the way in which history makes the scales swing even, that few buffeted men have been permitted to enjoy in their lifetime. Mr. Cleveland is entitled to take thorough satisfaction in the inclining to him again of his party's thoughts and hopes. Beyond its personal significance, there is cause for gratification in a great political organization showing signs of returning sanity. It has been running after false gods. It has been filling its belly with the east wind. Now it is beginning ruefully to pull itself together, to think that it might be just as well to try to win the country's confidence once more, and to cast about for a real leader. It is not strange that there should be mention of the name which was so long a tower of strength and a symbol of victory. But as for the actual nomination of Mr. Cleveland for the Presidency next year, that is a matter, we presume, about which his serene philosophy is not at all disturbed. Under the circumstances, it is something which neither he nor his friends can take very seriously.

Mr. Perry Heath's explanation of the postal scandals does not stop with his belief in ex-Postmaster-General Smith's kindly desire to help out his friends. That there were irregularities in the Department during the war with Spain he freely admits, saying they had the sanction of an Assistant Attorney-General, the Comptroller of the Treasury, and of the entire Cabinet. There being no money in any class of departmental funds specially set aside for the enormous task of supplying 275,000 soldiers in dozens—if not hundreds—of camps with mail matter, Mr. Smith was forced to draw upon funds appropriated for other purposes. But Mr. Heath gives us his word that the idea of funds being appropriated for private use is "utterly silly." Unfortunately, he stops there. He has nothing further to say about the irregularities in appointments and promotions, and in the many other ways which are daily being exposed. About these irregularities the public is just now very anxious to be informed, and is likely to grow more inquisitive as election time draws near. Until other reasons are forthcoming, there will be a general belief that the kind of politics for which Mr. Heath is noteworthy may have had considerable to do with bringing about the disordered and scandalous conditions with which Mr. Payne is now struggling.

The case of John C. Algood, the colored letter carrier at Gallatin, Tenn., is a more aggravated one than that of the colored postmistress at Indianola, Miss. Algood was selected for his place in the rural free delivery service under the rules and requirements of the civil-service law, upon the declination of the white man who outranked him in the competition. He owes his appointment not to favor, but to merit; his color being unknown. The Post-Office Department exercised no option in the matter, but merely confirmed what the law awarded. On Thursday, while performing his duties, he was "held up" by a band of masked men, and ordered to desist from his work of delivering letters; at the same time, not to divulge the cause of his resigning his place, but to assign false reasons. This is the approved Ku-klux method of vindicating the superiority of the white race in some parts of the South. We presume that this step is not approved by the intelligent and self-respecting people of Gallatin and the vicinity, but whether it is or not, they will have to pay the penalty for it, in the suspension of rural free delivery if need be.

There are several points of view from which the remarkable rise in cotton prices may be regarded. In so far as the fixing of this week's high price—the highest for the period in thirteen years—is a speculative operation, it is much to be regretted. Even if speculation were really a minor influence, so high a price will, if long maintained, have two unfortunate results—to check our export trade in cotton, and to derange the plans of the cotton-goods manufacturers. On the other hand, the Southern producer naturally feels much the same elation as did the Western wheat grower in the great rise of 1898, and there can be no doubt, the cotton crop being by no means disastrously "short," that the wealth of the Southern section of the United States will be greatly enhanced by the good price commanded by the staple. Briefly, it may be said that the general average rise in cotton prices, during the past four years, has resulted more largely from increasing consumption of the article than from deficient crops. The American crop now marketing is apparently under the average of the past five years, but it is very much larger than any cotton crop harvested up to 1898. In the same five years, however, annual consumption of cotton in the United States has increased over a million bales, or nearly 40 per cent., while the world's consumers, as a whole, are estimated to have increased their purchases by two million bales. How far this increased consumption would be arrested by exorbitant prices for the staple, and for the goods manufactured from it, is another question.

The Finance Minister of Mexico, Mr. Limantour, has been in New York several days on business of importance to his Government. It is understood that the subject of the monetary standard of Mexico is one of his chief concerns, and that he will extend his journey to Europe on that account. The *Times* publishes what purports to be an outline of his policy. According to this, it is proposed to demonetize the existing Mexican silver dollar and coin a new silver dollar to the amount of $100,000,000. Of course, it is to be coined on Government account solely, since the coinage of bullion for private persons could not be restricted in quantity. Such restriction of coinage is the demonetization of silver, the first step toward the gold standard, and is perfectly scientific. It is the initial step that was taken by India, Japan, Austria, Russia, and, farther back, by the members of the Latin Union. We observe, however, in the *Times's* statement, some hesitancy in acknowledging that this is a gold-standard policy. Mr. Limantour may easily be pardoned for not desiring to awaken fears at home of a radical proceeding. There will be real difficulties enough to encounter without exciting imaginary ones—the difficulty, for example, of dealing with the Mexican dollars circulating in other parts of the world. These it is proposed to treat as merchandise, and to admit as imports only at a high rate of duty. That is both right and necessary if the plan is to be carried into effect. The new Mexican dollars are to be legal tender for 50 cents each, and are to be kept at par with gold on that basis by a redemption fund of $25,000,000 gold in the Treasury. Presumably, the silver bullion to coin the new dollars will be obtained by exchange for the old ones now circulating in Mexico—the latter to be received at their market value. The $25,000,000 gold for redemption purposes would probably be obtained by a loan, for which the credit of Mexico would be ample.

The United States has undoubtedly a case for diplomatic protest to Russia, if

we care to press it. But it is equally undoubted that we shall do so with extraordinary ill grace. As a virtuous champion of the open door of trade, this country is calculated to leave all the Pecksniffs and Tartuffes of history far behind. We take Porto Rico and Hawaii, and shut them up as tight as a drum. So far as the Senate could, it tied up the Cuban trade as exclusively our own. In the Philippines, we gave the world as solemn a promise of the open door as ever Russia did in Mantchuria, and then proceeded shamelessly to violate it by trick and artifice. The Russian Foreign Office might well, if it chose, give Mr. Hay a crushing *tu quoque*. Still, as we say, there is ground for reclamation if we choose to press forward with all our inconsistencies thick upon us. Russia is formally committed to us. We may, therefore, join with England and Japan in a common note of protest. That can do no harm, and it may do good. Very likely it will bring fresh assurances from Russia, fully as valuable as those she has before given. But as for the notion of anything further, an alliance with Japan and England, or in the background a threat of war—all that is a counsel of lunacy. There is no lawful way for the Administration to ally us, of its own motion, with any foreign Power, and it would be madness to do it if there were. We can blunder into enough wars by ourselves without being dragged into one by the folly of an ally. The President will greatly misjudge the situation and misrepresent and wrong the country if he countenances any step, in this Mantchurian business, going beyond the resources of peaceful diplomacy.

It is easy to believe that the rising note of trades-union arrogance is seriously disturbing many captains of industry in the West. Some of them are openly saying that it is the greatest threat to the continuance of our industrial and commercial prosperity. The notions which thousands of agitator-driven workingmen are getting about the possibility of indefinite increases in wages and shortening of hours, are bound to lead to a bitter awakening some day. Western business men are said to have approached the President on his travels and besought him to utter some word in public against the mad extremes of labor unions. There is the more force in this appeal, in that the extravagant hopes of the agitators are based in part upon Mr. Roosevelt's speech of last summer, announcing his sympathy with organized labor, and especially upon the aid and comfort which his course gave to the striking miners last October. Such a result was predicted at the time. Indeed, it is only human nature that labor leaders should point to the report of the Strike Commission as a warrant for their propaganda and their methods. All the more reason for the President's choosing an early occasion, as he is urged by the Western men, to speak a sober word of warning on this subject.

Gov. Yates of Illinois is hesitating over the bill authorizing municipal ownership of street railways, but the vote by which the measure passed the Legislature makes its enactment certain, even if it has to be over an executive veto. The act is general in its nature, and will put street transit in every city in Illinois within popular control. It empowers cities to own, acquire, construct, maintain, and, if desired, to operate street car lines within their corporate limits. If municipal operation is not desired, a city may lease the lines, but only for a period of twenty years or less. The act does not become operative in any city until submitted to the voters and accepted by a majority. Before the city can purchase or build street-car lines, the financial project must be submitted and endorsed by three-fifths of the votes cast, or, if a bond issue is involved, by two-thirds. The bill contains no details as to fares. It is the outcome of the long fight over the renewal of the street-car franchises in Chicago, productive of so many scandals in the Legislature and the City Council. The Voters' League has purged the Council until it is representative of the most enlightened public spirit in Chicago, and the Legislature has now been compelled to render franchise-grabbing impossible.

Figues showing this city's income through its bureau of licenses during the first four months of this year tell an interesting story. For the first four months of 1901, the last year of Tammany administration, the total receipts of the Bureau of Licenses were $33,300. For the same period of the present year the receipts were $61,392, or almost double. Similar results are shown in the comparative figures for the first eight days of May, a period during which an unusual number of licenses is always applied for. The receipts for these eight days in 1901 were $12,217; this year $18,136. The explanation of these increases is that the pushcart vendors are now paying the city the fees required by law, and are thus securing for themselves the right to conduct their business, under proper restrictions, unmolested by the blackmailers to whom they formerly fell ready victims. Under the Tammany system, the vendors paid to the police and to district politicians far more than they now pay to the city, and the city, meanwhile, was robbed of its just revenues. It is said that until the present system was instituted, many of the vendors were ignorant of the existence of legal licenses, supposing that to bribe the police was the only way to secure an opportunity to ply their trade.

Baltimore must now be reckoned among cities where independent bodies of citizens devoted to the public welfare hold a balance of power in the elections. This result is clearly indicated in the election held on May 6. McLane, the Democratic candidate, who appears to have been victorious by the small margin of a few hundred votes, is described as an independent, public-spirited man, whose nomination was forced upon the Rasin machine by the better element in the party. Ex-Congressman Wachter, the Republican candidate, was nominated after a brisk primary contest with a candidate of the machine of his party. For this reason, the independent element was somewhat divided. It is certain, from the closeness of the result, that if the issue had been squarely presented between an unfit "ring" candidate on the one side and such a man as either McLane or Wachter on the other, the ring candidate would have been overwhelmed. The city is, of course, nominally Democratic by a large majority.

Further light on the direct nominations law, just placed on the statute-books of New Jersey, adds to the interest with which students of primary reform will watch the experiment. The authors of the New Jersey law have departed from the general scheme of direct nominations to the extent of attempting to preserve the convention, though preventing the manipulation of delegates by the bosses. Under the law, candidates for places as delegates to conventions are to announce themselves substantially as provided for candidates for elective offices. Their names are placed on an official ballot, printed at the expense and under the direction of the State; and, if he so wishes, the candidate for delegate may have printed opposite his name on the primary ballot the name of the person for whom he intends to vote in the convention. The authors of the law believe that under these provisions the actual contests between rival candidates for nominations will take place in the primary rather than in the convention, the latter becoming useful chiefly for the purpose of adopting a party platform and formally recording the decision of the primaries.

What's in a name? How does it happen that Lawyer Boardman of the firm of Boardman & Platt is retained by the Rapid Transit Commission and also by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company? The Commission and the railroad company represent opposing interests, in the sense that the latter is presumed to get all the privileges it can for its tunnel at the lowest possible cost to itself, while the former is bound to maintain a jealous care for the public interests, and undoubtedly does so. At the meeting of the Rapid Transit Board on

Thursday the peculiar position of Mr. Boardman as counsel for both sides was brought up in the form of a resolution approving of the same, and a communication was read from Mr. Henry George, jr., criticising the lawyer for acting as an adviser of the corporation, and at the same time as an attorney of the Commission at a salary of $10,000. Mr. Boardman, as reported in a morning newspaper, said in reply:

"When the Pennsylvania Company called on me to act in an advisory capacity, I called on you, Mr. Orr, and asked if you saw any impropriety in my so acting. You said you did not, and I asked to be released from any duties relating to the Pennsylvania franchise. I did not represent the Pennsylvania Company in its dealings with this Board."

Notwithstanding the apparent incongruity of Mr. Boardman's position, it can all be explained if we assume that his services to the Rapid Transit Commission are only nominal, that the real law business is done by somebody else, that he only lends a name to the enterprise, and that that name is Platt.

The *Evening Post* was, it appears, misled by its Havana informant in the matter of the alleged connection between Gen. Wood as inspirer, and Lieutenant Runcie as writer, of the *North American Review* article of January, 1900, on which we commented last week. Nor can that journal substantiate its other authority on which it placed reliance. We have, therefore, unwittingly given currency to a charge against Gen. Wood which must be pronounced baseless; and this we much regret.

In offering at par, on Thursday, a 3 per cent. loan for purposes of Transvaal reconstruction, the British Government has fixed a lower price—having regard to the higher interest rate—than has been allowed in any of its preceding loan issues of the Boer war period. This fact has evoked criticism in some foreign newspapers, which seem to have expected that, with return of peace, the rate at which the Exchequer could borrow ought at once to grow more favorable. But such criticism overlooks the fact that the price at which public securities can be placed depends, not merely on the position of the borrowing government, but on the question whether its borrowings are at an end or not. Return of peace very commonly means suspension of borrowing by the successful belligerent. If so, the price of its outstanding bonds might reasonably advance. But if the Government straightway finds it necessary to go on with its borrowing operations, the principle of supply and demand is at work again in the market for its securities. The £35,000,000 loan announced by the British Government last week, though not in form a British loan, nevertheless carries that Government's guarantee, and adds to the supply of securities pressing on the market for British funds. It need not be surprising, therefore, that, in order to place the loan satisfactorily, larger inducements than before had to be offered. Our own country's experience of a generation ago is a case in point. When Lee surrendered, in April, 1865, United States 6 per cents sold above 110. They fell to 105 before the year was over, and did not again reach their best price of tne war-time until 1868. The slow process of real absorption of the war-bond issues explained that phenomenon, as it does the present low price of the Transvaal loan.

The duty on corn *(i. e.*, the bread tax) in the list of British war taxes was imposed at the instance of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach with reluctance and in the face of strong opposition. The new Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Ritchie, now proposes its repeal, and the opposition to this step is more clamorous, if not stronger, than that faced by Sir Michael three years ago. The Chambers of Agriculture demand its retention as a matter of protection to themselves. They hold the same position and use the same arguments as the Agrarian party in Germany; but they have no chance of success. It is impossible that England should restore the corn laws permanently without applying the same principle to other industries. To do the latter would be to turn her whole fiscal system bottom upward. No Chancellor of the Exchequer could form an estimate of his revenues under such a change. No political party could survive the storms that would sweep the hustings under a protective policy. It may be assumed, therefore, that Mr. Ritchie will take no step backward. In the debate in the House on April 23 he said that he was prepared to remit existing taxes to the amount of £10,500,000, of which £2,000,000 would be the bread tax. He expected that the latter remission would ultimately be £2,500,000.

Of course, the Liberals concur in this policy, but they hold that Mr. Ritchie does not go far enough in the reduction of indirect taxes. His budget proposes to remit £8,500,000 from the income tax. In other words, the consumers, who compose the bulk of the population, get only one-fifth of the reduction, while the well-to-do classes get four-fifths. On this statement of facts, Sir William Harcourt made a very strong speech. His remarks were not at all of the *ad captandum* sort, although he could not avoid alluding to the contention of Mr. Balfour, at the time when the bread tax was enacted, that it would not be felt by the working classes. The contention of the Ministry now is that it should be repealed as a relief to the working classes. Sir William maintained that, in the lightening of tax burdens, not merely one-fifth, but at least one-half, should be on articles consumed by all classes, tea and sugar being named as examples. Then he gave the House a sober review of England's position in the world, and what the continuance and maintenance implies. He playfully accepted for himself the title of a Little Englander, if it meant a person who objects to new enterprises and entangling alliances in various parts of the world which are bringing new responsibilities and new burdens upon a people already overtaxed. "You perorate about the Empire," he said, "but it is not the Empire that pays; it is Little England that pays." What does Australia pay for the support of the Empire? What does Canada pay? What does South Africa pay? Mr. Chamberlain had visited the latter country, and had obtained the privilege of guaranteeing a loan of £35,000,000 to repair in part the ravages of the war in the Transvaal; but that, the speaker believed, was only the first instalment. In conclusion, he expressed the opinion that England could not continue adding £5,500,000 per year to her ordinary expenditures as had been her habit of late, both in war and in peace.

Recent changes in the British navy will arouse much interest in this country because, as far as the instruction of officers goes, they are in many respects an imitation of our own system. It is now planned that every English naval officer, whether he belong to the engineering branch, to the marines, or to the executive corps, shall be an engineer. All candidates for officers are hereafter to be trained at the Dartmouth Naval College for four years, entering at twelve or thirteen years. The cadets will then go to sea as midshipmen for from two and one-half to three years, studying during this period under the officers of the ships, and undergoing annual examinations. On passing the final tests they will become sub-lieutenants, and their careers will then, for the first time, diverge. Some will choose to be permanent engineers, others will join the line—that is, become navigating and executive officers—and others will enter the Royal Marines. In many ways this resembles our own method of training officers at Annapolis and giving them two years at sea, although we do not catch them so young. But the Admiralty is not yet ready to adopt the American system of making all officers serve alternately in the engine-room or on the deck—and wisely, because the plan has by no means succeeded. Moreover, the new Admiralty scheme, so far as the original appointment of officers is concerned, is aristocratic in its tendencies, and almost reserves the corps of naval officers for the sons of the gentry and the nobility.

CORRUPTION AT THE FOUNTAIN.

Fresh ramifications of the postal scandals appear under every thrust of the probe. Postmaster-General Payne asks to be reported as having "just laughed" at new charges, but the country is not laughing. Friday's removals from office are no joke. What was first thought to be a petty irregularity in one department, now seems to be corruption which has honeycombed the whole service. Not only in the Postmaster-General's permanent establishment at Washington, but in various post-offices throughout the country, including New York and Indianapolis, suspicion of gross disregard of the law, to say nothing of favoritism and bribery, is rife and increasing. We smile at the man who was just now detected in a crude and open offer of $300 for appointment to a country post-office, yet the evidence that more refined but none the less corrupt methods are prevalent throughout the entire postal department is accumulating in the most alarming way.

Everybody is speaking of the anomaly of frauds like these occurring under a President who is at once a civil-service reformer and an honest man. Who could have imagined that the first term of Theodore Roosevelt should begin disagreeably to remind us of the second term of Gen. Grant? We have repeatedly borne witness to the pains President Roosevelt has taken to improve the public service. He has probably given more thought and labor to it, and incurred more enmities in standing up for what he believed to be his duty in that respect, than any of his recent predecessors. Abundant testimony comes to us of his readiness to coöperate with the Civil Service Commissioners, and of the better spirit which he has been able to infuse in many heads of departments. But all this only deepens the mystery. Is an honest Executive, then, no guarantee of honesty in the executive service? Mr. Roosevelt has not been personally impeccable. He has set some unfortunate examples of favoritism. His "friend Joe Murray" in place, and Byrne a District Attorney because he "has been useful to me," have been, of course, a direct if unintended encouragement to Senatorial spoils-mongers. But in the main, as we have said, he has worked hard to raise the standard of appointment to office and of fidelity in office. How is it, then, that this mortification and embarrassment of a revealed network of corruption in a great branch of the public service should have befallen precisely that President under whom we should least have looked to see it?

The true answer to this question will take us beyond personality to system. There was, after all, a certain sound sense in the famous cry of Anacharsis Clootz, "France, heal thyself of individuals!" At any rate, we must admit that a combination of many individuals is often too strong for a single one. Such we now see to be the case at Washington. An honest President is caught helpless in a dishonest system. We have before us a letter from a keen and veteran observer. Writing of the thickening postal scandals, he says: "I tell you, after thirty-five years of close official observation in Washington, that it is nonsense, child's play, idiocy, to suppose that the Executive fountains can pour out pure water as long as the Congressional cesspool empties into the fountain-head of the Departments."

This fundamental axiom of political water-infection helps us to see what an absurd figure is cut by Senator Lodge and other Congressmen who are deploring the political effect of the scandalous revelations. They even pull a long face and warn the President to make haste and bundle out the scoundrels. But who are the scoundrels? Why, the nominees of those very Congressmen. Every man of them has his "influence." All of the implicated postmasters and nearly all of the chiefs of division have been imposed upon the President by Congressmen, or the bosses behind Congressmen. For every one of Senator Lodge's rascals turned out, we may be sure that he has another just as good. There is, indeed, something very like a refinement of insult in the attitude of Senators who bewail the fact that the party is being injured by the President's delay in removing the rogues they have foisted upon him. What they ought to get from the Executive lips, when they go to him with that plaint, is such a blunt retort as President Cleveland once addressed to a Senator: "Well, I suppose you have come to ask me to appoint another horse-thief!"

But behind arrogant Congressmen stands the arrogant machine—"Organization," the wise it call. The Organization dictates to Congressmen, the latter dictate to the President. Our latest foreign critic, Ostrogorski, hits off the situation exactly when he writes that "the managers of the Organization, *disguised as members of Congress*, forced the Executive to make over the whole Federal patronage to them." That takes us back to the true source of the evil. A political system which, really representing only a minority of the party, controls nominations to elective office, and, through them, dictates the nominees to appointive office—there you have the origin of that coil of corruption in which President Roosevelt finds himself entangled. Let the most upright Executive that ever lived concede the right of the Senate to nominate as well as confirm, and he puts himself into the hands of a system whose first thought and chief aim are selfish personal gain, not public service. With such an idea dominant in the masters, how can the men be wondered at for prostituting their official position and their brief opportunity to private advantage?

Remedies for this spreading and festering evil the American people must find, if they would not all be eaten up of corruption. Every movement to extend and strengthen the classified service, in which entrance and promotion go by merit, not by "pull," must be grasped at as a means of political salvation. The higher officials, from President down, must be held to a more rigid responsibility, and forbidden themselves to act upon the principles of favoritism and "graft," if they would not see their example spread downward in accelerating demoralization. If House and President could unite to cut the claws of the Senate in the matter of patronage, so much the better. But the full remedy will not be found short of an aroused and active and independent public spirit which will fight the corrupt machine in its stronghold by making its nominations worthless, and despising alike its swords and its rewards.

REAL CURRENCY REFORM.

Telegrams from Hot Springs, Va., the other day, informed the public that a sub-committee of the Senate Committee on Finance, consisting of four Republican members (Senators Aldrich, Allison, Platt of Connecticut, and Spooner), had met there to consider the question of the national-bank currency. An outline of the plan contemplated was published as a Washington dispatch in the *Tribune* of May 7. In a general way it confirms the inferences drawn from the Aldrich bill of the last session, as contrasted with that of the House Committee on Banking and Currency, and implies that the Senate will adhere to the former. It is added, however, that Senator Spooner inclines to the principles of the House measure.

The difference between the two measures is radical. The Senate bill proposes no change from the present methods of issuing national-bank notes, but provides that the amount of Government bonds available for security therefor shall be enlarged in an indirect way by releasing bonds now held as security for Government deposits in national banks, the amount of which is about $150,000,000. The Aldrich bill proposed that bonds of State and municipal governments and of certain railroads should be accepted as collateral security for such deposits. The *Tribune's* dispatch tells us that the object of this change is to ease the Government bond market, and make it possible for bankers to obtain securities for bank circulation without paying a premium so high as to take all profit out of the note issues.

This explanation of the main object of the Aldrich bill throws light on the op-

posing principles argued for by the House and the Senate respectively. The contention of the House Committee, as set forth in the Fowler bill and report, is that a bond-secured currency never can be an elastic currency, since it requires the bank to invest as much money in procuring its circulating notes as it gains by putting them in circulation. In fact, it has to invest more, since the bonds command a premium in the market, and since some of the notes will be either in the bank's vaults or en route homeward for redemption, and will not be earning anything at such times. The cost of transportation and of printing and renewing the notes must also be paid by the issuing banks. These are sufficient reasons why the existing banknote currency is non-elastic; but the fundamental reason is that they are not based upon the "banking principle."

The *raison d'être* of banking consists in exchanging the well-known credit of the bank for the less known credit of the bank's customer. It makes no difference whether the well-known credit of the bank is issued in the form of notes or of deposits, the latter being a right to draw checks on the bank, which the banker authorizes when he discounts the customer's paper. Under the "banking principle" which prevails in all countries except the United States and that part of Great Britain called England, the law authorizes the customer, after his paper is discounted, either to draw checks against the deposit so created, or to take the bank's notes, which are issued without special security. This is an elastic currency. It rises and falls according to the demand of business, because every issue of banknotes and every return of them to the bank, whether large or small, is an expression of the wants of trade at the moment when it takes place.

On the other hand, when a bank takes out circulation under our present system, it engages perforce in a bond-speculation. The bank is an active business enterprise. It expects to earn the average rate of profit in the community of which it is a member. As a purchaser of bonds, it has to bid against retired capitalists, savings banks, executors of decedent estates, and other investors to whom security is a higher consideration than profit. Not infrequently the Government itself comes into the market as a competing buyer. The price of the bonds is thus forced up beyond the chance of the average return on the capital employed. After the banker has bought his bonds and taken out his circulation, there is no certainty that he will keep it. He must still watch the market. He must avoid a loss on the bonds, and he will make a profit on them if he can. He is a trustee for his shareholders, and he must do what their interests require. If the chance to avoid a loss, or to make a profit, presents itself, he must seize it, regardless of the effect upon the circulating medium in general. Thus the issue of notes is not the chief concern of the bank. It is secondary to something else, and this is one of the reasons why a bond-secured currency never can be an elastic currency. It is responsive, not to the wants of trade, but to the price of bonds.

THE PERSIAN QUESTION.

Lord Lansdowne's declaration in Parliament that Great Britain would not allow any other Power to establish a naval station in the Persian Gulf, has been construed as an assertion of the Monroe Doctrine, *mutatis mutandis*. And so it is, if we accept Daniel Webster's definition of the Doctrine that each nation has the right to take such steps as it deems necessary for its own safety. England's route to India is via the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. A strong naval power in the Persian Gulf would be a menace to her line of communication. But this is not the sole reason for giving the warning. British trade in Persia itself is menaced by Russia in the north. The time has come to decide whether this trade shall be retained or not. If it is to be kept, railways must be built from the Gulf northward. They must be built with the coöperation of British capital, and protected by British fleets.

What would happen if some other nation should have a Monroe Doctrine of its own applicable to this particular part of the earth's surface? Suppose that Russia should conceive that a naval station in the Persian Gulf is necessary to her safety, and should proceed to establish one at Bunder Abbas, upon which she long ago fixed her glittering eye? Who would decide between these two conflicting necessities? Evidently nothing but powder and ball could arbitrate that question. Lord Lansdowne intended to be understood in that way. More than that, he implied that Great Britain was able to make her words good as against any Power or combination of Powers inclined to dispute her. She has virtual possession of those waters now. She has Aden and Bombay as naval bases, and no other Power has either ships or coaling stations within striking distance. Her position in the Persian Gulf is as strong as that of Russia in Mantchuria, and Lord Lansdowne's declaration may be taken as tit-for-tat to Russia's recent demands on China respecting the latter country.

The situation in the Gulf is described in Mr. H. J. Whigham's book 'The Persian Problem'—a revised collection of articles contributed by the author to the *Morning Post* of London and just published by Messrs. Scribner. Lord Lansdowne's manifesto seems to have been largely anticipated by these and similar contributions to the English press. The substance of the matter is that Russia has been pressing upon the northern frontier of Persia for several years, just as she did upon Turkestan and earlier upon Circassia. She has been gaining in trade and political influence at Teheran, and is now aiming to lay out and control a railway system for Persia. Her trade, according to Mr. Whigham, is promoted by a system of State bounties which England cannot match because bounties are contrary to her policy. On the other hand, Great Britain's facilities of transportation by water are such that she can lay down Manchester cottons in the interior of Persia at less cost than Moscow cottons can be afforded, and, with railway transportation from the Gulf northward, could undersell Russian goods in spite of Russian bounties.

The southern side of the Persian Gulf is inhabited by a sprinkling of Arabian tribes under their local sheikhs. These are under the nominal suzerainty of Turkey, but have been for fifty years or more under the immediate influence of an English Resident, who, with the help of an occasional gunboat or cruiser, has suppressed piracy in those waters, kept the slave trade at a minimum, and prevented the sheikhs from warring with each other. Outside of the Gulf and on the southern Arabian coast, is the ancient city of Muscat, ruled by its own Sultan, but also under a British protectorate of long duration. It is a significant circumstance, in view of Lord Lansdowne's recent declaration, that in 1899 the French consul at Muscat obtained from the Sultan a secret concession for a naval station at the port of Jissa, five miles from Muscat, and that when the fact became known to the British Admiral in those waters he gave immediate notice that he would prevent any such occupation of Jissa by bombardment if necessary. Mr. Whigham brings the serious accusation against the French authorities in those parts of conniving at the slave trade, and allowing the use of the French flag by slave dhows in order to win the favor of the Arabs. It is not believed, however, that such transactions received the countenance of the French Government.

At the entrance of the Gulf and on the Persian side lies the port of Bunder Abbas and the island of Ormuz. The latter is now a deserted sand heap. In Milton's time it was the synonym of royal splendor:

> "High on a throne of royal state which far
> Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
> Satan exalted sat."

Then it was the meeting place of the trade of the East and the West, and it contained a population of 40,000. Now it is occupied by a handful of Arab fishermen. Twelve miles to the northward lies the port which Russia hopes some time to acquire as her outlet to the Indian Ocean, and it is a fact much deprecated by Mr. Whigham that writers in such influential organs of British opinion as the *Spectator*, the *National*

Review, and the *Fortnightly*, have advocated the policy of allowing Russia to take it. This policy has now been negatived decisively by the Government, and it is difficult to see how Russia can help herself in that quarter.

COPYRIGHT IN THE ENCYCLOPÆDIAS.

It may be taken as evidence of the vitality of the subject that six full quarto pages of the new 'Encyclopædia Britannica' are allowed to "Copyright." "T. E. S." deals with English, "G. H. P." with American, and "E. Ba." with Artistic Copyright. Thomas Edward Scrutton confines himself to supplementing the original contribution to the ninth edition of the 'Britannica' (by Mr. Edmund Robertson) by analyzing the subsequent judicial decisions on copyright questions, adding brief paragraphs on colonial and international copyright, and summarizing the provisions of the Berne Convention. What he contributes is necessarily accurate and valuable, and one could wish that his thorough knowledge of the subject and exceptional gift of concise summary and expression had been allowed fuller scope. He dismisses the interesting and delicate situation of copyright in Canada, for example, with the mere statement that "the desire of Canadian printers to allow or require copyright works to be reprinted or printed in Canada has given rise to a very difficult controversy."

George Haven Putnam devotes the main portion of his article to an exposition of the law of March 3, 1891, and the events leading up to its enactment. For the sake of historical accuracy, Washington should have been added to the list of cities in which were organized international copyright associations, although not there by reason of the initiative of the conference committee of the Authors' and Publishers' Leagues. The copyright-law amendments subsequent to the international copyright act are very briefly summarized, special attention being directed to the creation of the office of Register of Copyrights, the reorganization of the Copyright Office, and the kind and amount of the copyright business. The rider to the Public Documents act of January 12, 1895, providing that no "Government publication shall be copyrighted" is of sufficient importance to have been included in the summary of legislation relating to copyright. In conclusion, Mr. Putnam insists that "no little confusion and inequity" has been brought about by the typesetting clause, and that, "with this manufacturing condition out of the way, there would be nothing to prevent the United States from becoming a party to the Convention of Berne." He submits some considerations regarding the possible amendment of the laws in force, advocating, *inter alia*, an increase of the term of protection to the life of the author and for thirty years thereafter.

The longer section on "Artistic Copyright," confined entirely to English law, gives a history of the legislation in relation to works of art, and an analysis of the act of 1862, prior to which date, singularly enough, no legislation existed in Great Britain to give copyright protection to paintings, drawings, or photographs. Bills are now pending before Parliament to improve the present unsatisfactory condition of artistic copyright, which is thus summarized:

> "We have five British acts, three dealing with engraving, one with sculpture, and one with painting, drawing, and photography, and between them there is very little relation. We have three terms of duration of copyright—twenty-eight years for engraving; fourteen for sculpture, with a second fourteen if the artist be alive at the end of the first; life and seven years for painting, drawing, or photography. There are two different relations of the artist to his copyright. The sculptor's right to sell his work and retain his copyright has never been questioned so long as he signs and dates it. The painter's copyright is made to depend upon the signing of a document by the purchaser of his work. The engraver and the sculptor are not required to register; but the author's name, and the date of putting forth or publishing, must appear on his work. The painter cannot protect his copyright without registration, but this registration as it is now required is merely a pitfall for the unwary."

It is insisted that "the great obstacle in the way of securing a really good artistic bill has been the introduction into it of photography," and that "there seems considerable fear that, in any new legislation, the attempt to give the same terms to both painter and photographer may lead to great injury and injustice to the public."

The two-page article on Copyright in the 'New International Encyclopædia,' while offering no special opportunity for comment, invites suggestions in the way of revision. The assertion that copyright in published works exists in England to-day by virtue of the act of July 1, 1842, with no hint of the numerous preceding and subsequent enactments affecting literary and artistic property, is likely to mislead; and the various amendments of our own Revised Statutes relating to copyrights are ignored in the statement that "the act now in force is that of July 8, 1870, amended, in regard to its international provisions, in March, 1891." In summarizing these two acts, it was a singular slip to include the qualifying phrase "being a citizen of the United States, or a resident therein," when the chief purpose of the act of March 3, 1891, was to remove these restrictive words from the law then in force.

Readers not familiar with the subject are likely to get a wrong impression from the inclusion of "written articles" in the list of subjects of copyright protection, no point being better established than the fact (as Mr. Drone expresses it) that "publication is the beginning of statutory copyright, and a condition precedent to its existence." The copyright business was not transferred to the Librarian of Congress in 1831, as stated, but by the act of 1870, and the office of Register of Copyrights was created by a provision of the legislative appropriation act of February 19, 1897, and not by the copyright act of 1891. The term of our copyright protection is correctly stated as twenty-eight years with a right of renewal for fourteen years more, but it is incorrect to say that "this time limit is that of the original English statutes," because the original English act (of 1709) provided for a term of protection of twenty-one years for books then printed; and, for books to be printed, fourteen years from publication, with a renewal term of fourteen years more—and the English term has never been precisely the same as our present term.

The necessity for condensation in an encyclopædia article doubtless renders absolute accuracy of distinction difficult, but it might have been well to make clear that while the copies for the four libraries of Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh, and Dublin are required to be deposited only "on demand," the British Museum is not obliged to make any demand, and neither the copyright nor the right to sue is affected by non-delivery. The statement is made that the "term for art copyright is fixed, under the act of 38 Geo. III., at 28 years," but chapter 71 of that regnal year dealt only with the protection of works of sculpture, and not with works of art generally, and the term of such protection was 14, not 28 years. The law was amended by the act of May 18, 1814, which added a renewal term of 14 years, and it was repealed in 1861. No mention is made of protection for other artistic productions, such as paintings and drawings, which, together with photographs, really fall under the provisions of the "Fine Arts Copyright Act" of 1862.

The intricate matter of copyright and playright in England is dismissed with the mere statement that a dramatic production is given the same term of protection as that accorded to a work of literature; and Sir James Stephen is quoted as authority for believing that copyright in acts of Parliament probably vests in the Crown; but, after the publication of Sir James's valuable digest of the English law of copyright, a Treasury Minute of August 31, 1887, determined that acts of Parliament, among other public documents, were free for reproduction without restriction in any form whatever. The assertion that there is, under the English law, "no obligation to make registration" should be qualified by pointing out that, in the case of paintings, drawings, and photographs, registration is virtually a condition precedent to protection, as it is required to precede the infringement complained of, instead of simply preced-

ing the bringing of suit for such infringement.

Several inaccuracies occur in the brief paragraph on copyright abroad. Protection in Germany is said to date from 1871, but the act of June 11, 1870, going into effect in 1871, is no longer in force, the principal copyright laws of Germany being the acts of January 9, 1876 (for sculpture), January 10, 1876, (for photographs), and the two acts of January 19, 1901, one dealing with works of literature and music, and the other with the relations between publishers and authors. In Italy, copyright does not rest "upon the statute of 1865," long since abrogated, but upon the provisions of the law of May 18, 1882. In stating the period of protection in Japan to be "the life of the author and five years, or thirty-five years from date of publication, whichever term may be the longer," quotation was doubtless made from the ordinance of 1887; but that alert Eastern nation passed a new copyright law on March 3, 1899, and extended the term of protection to the life of the author and thirty years after his death. Injustice is done to Spain, also, the country which has still the longest statutory term of protection, in stating that term to be life of the author and thirty years, whereas it is really life and eighty years. The attempt to deal with so important a subject in two octavo pages invited failure, and it is to be hoped that opportunity will offer for a more adequate handling in the "historical treatment" of the subject promised for a later volume under the caption "Literary Property."

THE ROMAN STRIKE.

FLORENCE, April 24, 1903.

The late attempt at a general strike in Rome has set the two sections of the Italian Socialists—the Revolutionary and the Reformist—at loggerheads, and the curious phase of the battle is that the *Avanti*, the general daily organ of the entire party, takes the side of Turati, the leader of the Reformists, against the leader of the Revolutionists, Enrico Ferri, who has but now been chosen as the new director of the paper since the resignation of Bissolati.

The question at issue is this: At the great Congress of Imola, Pietro Chiesa and Gino Murialdi, in their diligent and exhaustive reports on the economic organization of the industrial proletariat, while admitting the utility of a general strike as a protest against violent or reactionary political measures, demonstrated its inexpediency as an economic weapon. Moreover, they deprecated the system of unorganized, sudden, unjustified strikes in the several trades, and their conclusions were endorsed by about three-quarters of the Congress. Two hundred and eighty, under the leadership of Ferri, while agreeing as to the inopportuneness of a general strike as an economic weapon, maintained that strikes in the separate trades were the only measures calculated to ameliorate the condition of the industrial working classes, and were, moreover, educational methods of organization and preparation. They maintained that the "revolutionist leaders" in all cases of a strike, meditated or proposed, ought to mix with the strikers, moderating or stimulating the movement as might appear expedient. But during the late strike of the Roman printers, Ferri and his colleagues either remained neutral or leaned, now to this, now to that side of the combatants, and it is for this that Turati is calling them to account in very stringent fashion. He it was, as your readers may remember, who gave such powerful coöperation to the Premier (for the time Minister of Public Works) during the threatened general strike of the railway men last year. Through his activity and influence the public catastrophe was averted; and while the Prime Minister, Zanardelli, carried his point and the railway employees were placed under military discipline, very substantial benefits were obtained for them, which will be added to when the term of the convention expires, and the men, thoroughly organized, are able to make their own terms with the future managers of the railways, whether Governmental or private companies.

The printers in Italy are fairly organized in the great cities and associated in the Federazione del Libro. Some five weeks since, the Roman printers working for certain firms demanded an eight instead of a ten-hour day, and sundry other concessions. Their employers refused to pay the same wages for eight as for ten hours, offering a nine-hours day at a nine-hours wage. Upon this about 2,000 printers went on strike without consulting the heads of the Federation, and without, it appears, any reserve fund on which to subsist during their struggle. Their comrades, however, in other cities came out with generous support, but the masters took on other workmen, and this introduction of "blacklegs" (*krumiri*, so called after the African tribe which gave France a pretext for the invasion and occupation of Tunis) exasperated the men to such a point that, disorders being feared, the Government, while maintaining strict neutrality between the contending parties, called into Rome sufficient forces to overawe any revolutionary agitators, to guard the printing establishments and protect the rights of labor in the persons of the "blacklegs." During these weeks, the "Revolutionary Socialists" kept aloof, neither inciting nor moderating the strikers. They made, it is true, some attempts to arrange terms with the masters, but, failing, took no further part in the proceedings. Meanwhile the masters withdrew the offer of a nine-hours day, refused to dismiss the men summoned to replace those on strike, and refused to treat with the "Federation of the Book," declining all the proposals made by the Deputies Luzzatti and Roux (head of the great publishing house in Turin and now editor of the *Tribuna*). Thereupon the Government, after holding a full cabinet council, sent their ultimatum to the heads of the firms that have contracts with the State. Seeing that for an entire month the official publications entrusted to these firms had been, owing to the strike, suspended, to the great detriment of the public administration, an official warning was sent to the head of each firm, notifying them that if within a week they had not placed themselves in a position to fulfil their contracts, they would not only be summoned to pay the legal forfeit for past failure, but would be excluded from future bidding for Government contracts.

The defaulting firms protested against this measure, accusing the Government of partiality for the men on strike; moreover, they avowed their intention of appealing to the courts, confident of a verdict of "not guilty" on the score of coercive force (*forza maggiore*). All the commercial and industrial firms in Rome, united in their societies and associations, convoked an extraordinary meeting and proclaimed solidarity with the heads of the printing establishments—with admiration of the energy and firmness manifested for five and thirty days in resisting the unjust demands of the workmen—condemning the partisan action of the Government, prophesying a complete victory, and solemnly affirming that all the industrial and commercial firms were and would remain their stanch allies; that all were ready to share the responsibility which the Government cast on their shoulders for the non-fulfilment of their contracts, placing at the service of the printing firms all the moral and material means they possessed in order to secure the entire and indisputable triumph of their common cause. This challenge to the men on strike when the contest was at its height, was the signal for action on the part of the other working classes in Rome, where rumors of a general strike had prevailed more or less during the first days of April; and here especially it was the duty of the Revolutionist leaders to intervene to prevent a useless and most inopportune demonstration.

Enrico Ferri, requested to speak in behalf of the strike, delivered instead an academic discourse on the "Future of Human Labor." Interviewed by the correspondent of a Neapolitan newspaper, he deprecated a general strike at the moment when Rome was crowded with visitors, gathered there for the Easter ceremonies, for the great historical and other congresses; but made no attempt to prevent it. At first the typographers hesitated to obey the call—the Labor Bureau (especially the republican members of the executive) was against it; but it was evident that the working classes themselves had decided to come out as soon as the employers of labor decided on making common cause with the heads of the printing houses. First, the stonemasons on the Victor Emanuel monument abandoned their work; and the contractor, without taking on other hands, gave notice that the works would be closed until further notice. Then followed the metal workers, glassworkers, barbers, cigarmakers, bakers, butchers, newspaper vendors, bricklayers, house painters, plasterers, carpenters, etc., and 2,000 men belonging to the paper and printing trades. The cab, coach, and tram drivers struck also, thus causing considerable inconvenience to the citizens and foreigners in what, for Italy, is a "city of distances." The municipal employees, forewarned, were fore-armed, so that the gas and electric illumination was not interfered with. The hotel, restaurant, and inn servants were left in peace, so that the convenience of visitors was less infringed than in last year's strike in Florence; but these left Rome in thousands, the hotel omnibuses

serving to convey them to the station, so that the loss inflicted on the hotels, apartments, and pensions was considerable, to say nothing of the provision dealers, guides, and all the breadwinners whose chief source of gain is these very visitors. With the exception of prohibiting mass meetings in public buildings and in "the open," the authorities remained neutral, calling some 20,000 troops of all arms into Rome for the protection of the Vatican, of the obnoxious printing establishments, and of the *krumiri*. The municipal authorities, with praiseworthy promptness, provided bread and meat for all from Naples and Florence—so amply, indeed, that, when the general strike ceased, ninety quintals of bread and some $6,000 worth of provisions were distributed among the poor, many of whom were the more or less voluntary strikers themselves, and among the charitable establishments.

The Labor Bureau, whose executive had, as we have seen, disapproved of but made no attempt to prevent the strike, summoned a few friends in council—Ferri, Lollini, other Socialists and Deputies—and it was decided that, the demonstration of solidarity having been made, the strike must cease. The executive summoned the leaders of the separate trades, thanked them for their "generous manifestation of loyalty to their working comrades in misfortune," and exhorted them to return to their usual vocations, which, probably after enjoying their brief Roman holiday, they did with the utmost alacrity. No notice was taken of their absence by their employers, who had not had time to take on new hands. Giolitti, Minister of the Interior, was congratulated on his precautions for the prevention of disorder and the avoidance of bloodshed, by the King himself, and by all but the employers of the typographical strikers, who meanwhile remained in the same condition as before the general strike—even worse off, as the employers, encouraged by the pledges of the other industrial and commercial capitalists, became more resolute in refusing to treat with the Federation as such. The newspapers, which had been suspended during the strike, mostly counselled submission. The Revolutionary Socialists still kept silence, but the men were so exasperated that, when called upon by the chief mover and leader of the strike, Parpagnolli, to decide on surrender or on submission by appeal to a general referendum, 1,400 voted by ballot for the continuation of the strike, less than 300 for its cessation. Here the Labor Bureau did intervene to prove to them the utter hopelessness of holding out. So to necessity they yielded; the employers refusing to dismiss a single *krumir*, taking the strikers back one by one, according to the roll-lists, and sending personal summons to the respective houses of the men, in no case treating with the Federazione del Libro.

Clearly, every country and class must buy its own experience. A century of industrial warfare in England has reduced strikes practically to zero and theoretically to a negative, but here in Italy they are reenacted day by day all over the country. Lately did not the very schoolboys go on strike because they or their professors had misinterpreted some measure adopted by the Minister of Public Instruction? As soon as the general strike was over, the five Republican members of the executive sent in their resignation on the ground that the strike had been made without consultation with them and in spite of their disapproval. They had kept silence while it lasted in order not to add to the general confusion; but they now withdrew irrevocably. The six Socialists entreated them to reconsider their decision, and the general council of the labor board, which is the assembly of the representatives of all the organizations of the workingmen in Rome, pronounced "absolution" for all the sins of commission and omission by the entire executive, begging them to accept a bill of indemnity and all to remain at their posts. The Republicans, while heartily grateful for the encomiums of the council, affirmed that they could not consent to remain in a position in which they were unable to carry out measures beneficial, from their point of view, to the working classes, or to prevent others which they consider detrimental. Hence the Socialists felt bound also to resign, and the workers remain *pro tem.* sheep without a shepherd.

NAPOLEON'S BROTHERS.

PARIS, April 22, 1903.

M. Frédéric Masson has been adding two volumes at a time, namely, v. and vi., to his already long series on "Napoleon and his Family," which extends from 1769 to 1809. They cover the period from 1809 to 1811. We must admire M. Masson's energy when we remember that, besides the series of which we are now speaking, he has already published seven volumes on the Emperor and his two wives, and that he has several others in preparation; among them one specially dedicated to Napoleon II., the Duke de Reichstadt.

The two latest are open to criticism. As they deal exclusively with the brothers and sisters of Napoleon, who lived in different countries and had very different interests, they are wanting in unity. I found it, I confess, rather laborious work to be shifting from Holland to Spain, from Spain to Italy, from Italy to Germany. M. Masson is a conscientious searcher after the truth; he enters into infinite details, but he makes his readers somewhat too conscious of his own efforts. His style is very unequal: it is at times too conversational, too *lâché*, to use a French word, too journalistic; at other times, when he gets hold of a general idea, or when he approaches his god, Napoleon, it becomes too pompous, accumulates too many images, and is too inflated. M. Masson evidently cares much less for style than for truth, and we cannot be sufficiently grateful to him for devoting a lifetime to telling us the whole truth about the Napoleonic period.

There are, so to speak, some fundamental ideas of the Napoleonic history which M. Masson has well discerned. With a true scientific spirit he has realized in Napoleon and his family the capital importance of Corsican clannishness. *Madame mère* was a true Corsican mother; she never could have understood all her children not having a share in her Napoleon's fortune. Napoleon himself felt it his duty to raise all his brothers and sisters to the level which he had attained. His clannish instincts were somewhat contraried by the great and, it may be said, the passionate sentiment which he felt for his wife Josephine. A feeling of gratitude was mingled with his passion. He knew well the failings, the weaknesses, of his "little Creole"; but she had been his first love; she had, by her influence over Barras, made him general of the army of Italy, and the first Italian campaign had revealed to France and to the world his military genius. The first years of the Consulate were a perpetual struggle between the Bonapartes and the Beauharnais. Napoleon was faithful to his family, but he was faithful also to Josephine and to the Beauharnais; he treated Eugene and Hortense as if they were his own children. So long as he thought that he should have no heir of his own, he lavished favors on his brothers and sisters; he gave them thrones, thinking that they would remain obedient instruments of his great designs and of his politics. He soon found out that they did not mean to be simply his tools; they thought themselves as good as he; they claimed an independence which became at times threatening to his power; they took themselves *au sérieux* as sovereigns; they assumed the language and the pretensions of princes belonging to the oldest dynasties.

A great change was produced in Napoleon's mind when he divorced Josephine and allied himself to the dynasty of the Hapsburgs. What gives the chief interest to M. Masson's two new volumes is the accurate analysis of this mental evolution. Napoleon was now in hopes of having heirs of his own blood, allied to the historical families of Europe. He had always considered the kings of his own making more like French prefects than like independent rulers; he had never been satisfied with them: he now entered into a new phase, and, instead of surrounding France with allied but nominally independent provinces, he gradually added these provinces to an empire of which the limits were extending more and more. He felt in himself the qualities, the power, and the will of a great ruler of men, and could no longer endure any obstacle, even if the obstacle was a member of his own family.

It was evidently the succession of the Holy Roman Empire which Napoleon had in view when he divorced Josephine and hoped to form a dynasty himself. At the very moment when Berthier, his Ambassador Extraordinary, went to Vienna to ask officially the hand of the Archduchess Marie Louise, a senatus-consultum was issued, saying that "the Prince Imperial bears the title and receives the honors of the King of Rome." This was not enough. In 1806, after the coronation, in Paris and in Milan, Napoleon had already shown that he aspired to the supreme consecration, in Rome, of the Empire of the Occident; but he had met with opposition from the Pope. The senatus-consultum, just mentioned, established for Napoleon's successors the obligation to be crowned in Rome: "After having been crowned in the Church of Notre Dame in Paris, the Emperors shall be crowned in the Church of Saint Peter at Rome, before the tenth year of their reign."

How could this ambition be reconciled with the acts of Napoleon? He had disposed of Italy in favor of Eugene and of Murat, he had disposed of Holland in favor of his brother Louis. What will be the ultimate fate of Spain, of Germany? What will he do with his brother Lucien, with his

brother Joseph? Lucien was always considered the most intelligent of his brothers; he had refused to assist at the marriage with Marie Louise; he was living near Rome, at Canino, negotiating with Napoleon and trying in vain to obtain the recognition of his marriage with Madame Jouberthon, his second wife. Napoleon wished him to divorce her, and Lucien refused to do so. M. Masson enters into long and fatiguing details on these negotiations. The iron will of Napoleon for the first time met an equally strong will. Lucien, after a while, not thinking himself quite safe in Italy, and fearing extreme measures on the part of his brother, resolved to leave Italy, and secretly embarked at Civita Vecchia, with all his family. He was forced by various circumstances to go to Malta, where he became a prisoner of war to England, and after a while was obliged to go to England, where he landed at Plymouth. Napoleon was much incensed at his brother's conduct; he deprived him of all his dignities, and decreed that neither Lucien nor his children should be allowed to return to the territory of the Empire.

The most interesting chapter in M. Masson's sixth volume relates to the Kingdom of Spain and to King Joseph. The infatuation of Joseph is incredible, and becomes almost amusing at times. His vanity had no limit, as well as his ambition. During the Austrian campaign, Joseph, in the event of Napoleon's being killed, considered himself the possible Emperor of France, and already made plans of government. Joseph wrote to his wife: "The way I live here, in Madrid, has become intolerable to me. If my relations with the Emperor do not change, my position must be altered; if he meant to disgust me with Spain, he has succeeded. . . . The humiliating posture he would have me accept on the throne of a great nation does not suit me. . . . I don't want to be under the guardianship of my inferiors; I don't want to see my provinces administered by men who do not possess my confidence." Joseph always professed to prefer a quiet life, a country life, to everything else; he affected to be always ready to abandon the throne; but he defended his sovereign rights with the greatest tenacity. The truth is that the Emperor always corresponded with the heads of the French army in Spain, thinking that as long as Spain was not entirely pacified, it was necessary that he should direct all the military operations. He entirely disapproved the expedition which Joseph undertook to make in Andalusia, his attempts at negotiation with the Junta of Seville. Napoleon, who was essentially a soldier, cared little for the Junta, and saw clearly that the great objective of the war was Portugal and the English army, and that it was useless to lose time in Andalusia.

Joseph made proclamation after proclamation, decree after decree. He wrote to the Emperor: "Andalusia is pacified; order is reëstablished; the Junta is dissolved; its members have fled either to England or to Gibraltar; the situation is excellent." The capitulation of Baylen fully opened the eyes of Napoleon; he understood that all Joseph's declarations were mere "fausse monnaie"; he placed the administration of the Spanish provinces in the hands of the French generals, with full powers necessary for military operations. He boldly and by a stroke of the pen added Catalonia to the territories of the French Empire; his ultimate desire was to bring Joseph's mind to the necessity of abdicating, and to annex the whole of Spain to the Empire.

"In the midst of this great Spain, which does not want him, Joseph takes refuge on the raft of New Castile, with the few Spaniards attached to his fortunes, the few Frenchmen who share it, and he plays the King; while in his provinces, rich and poor, rebel or not rebel, the Emperor's generals, making themselves by degrees independent, make laws, levy taxes, dispose of the lives and property of his subjects, ignore entirely his authority, and arrange to get out of their astounding fortune all the profit possible."

This situation did not put an end to Joseph's infatuation. In a sort of delirious egotism, he took no account of the circumstances in which he was placed; he hardly felt his isolation in his kingdom. He felt as if France and Europe had no other duty than to establish him safely as King of Spain. He lived among a few flatterers. He convinced himself that he had great military ability. He went so far as to write: "I wish posterity to pity a great nation for having misunderstood the King which God in His goodness had given it." This state of mind is what M. Masson calls "the royal delirium—the delirium of the *légitimes*," but he justly wonders how it could have been produced in the mind of a

"bourgeois of Ajaccio, placid, liberal moderate (or thinking himself moderate), who, in his astonishing fortune, had hitherto preserved a certain sense, a notion of the real world. His delirium was not like that of King Louis [the King of Holland], the result of illness combined with the tragic circumstances in which he had been accidentally placed; it was a special delirium, unclassified, the delirium of the throne. In virtue of his Corsican right of primogeniture, which constitutes a sort of principle, Joseph was predisposed to it; but he had resisted a purely French greatness, even the Neapolitan greatness; it was the work of Spain."

It would be tedious to enter into all the details of the last struggles of Joseph; he consented at last to leave Spain, but he had not made up his mind about an abdication; he reserved the future. He returned to France with the hope of coming to some final understanding with the Emperor; he wanted an explanation from him, and renounced all hope of a throne, though he wrote, "To live as quietly as I have lived, agitated for twenty-five years, especially for the last ten, is all I ask from the Emperor."

Correspondence.

SUPERIOR AND INFERIOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am sure I voice the opinion of many of your readers in expressing an unqualified satisfaction in your recent editorials on the race question. They are of the right ring all through, and impart new hope and strength to the mind bewildered by most of the public speaking on this subject. These articles are to be the more commended that they are written from the philosophical and not the sentimental point of view, in simple elucidation of an accepted political faith and polity.

The most serious results of this controversy lie not in any continued disabilities against a particular class, bad as these results are; they are rather found in the proof they give of a weakening political faith and honor on the part of those imposing such disabilities. The race that counts itself the superior is rapidly losing its right to the title. Its loss of moral tone and fibre is daily evinced in the published utterances of distinguished professors, statesmen, and divines, who hasten to put themselves on record in words of lame apology, twisted logic, and feeble sophistry that will form strange reading to the student of history a generation or two from now.

And the race that admits itself the inferior is steadily moving forward. It has survived worse hardships and more flagrant wrongs than those arising from the sectional strifes and race prejudices of our own day, mean legislative enactments, civic tyranny, and social insult. So it will survive these latter-day wrongs, more subtly devised, and far more shameful to those imposing them than their more brutal atrocities were to the low and ignorant Legrees of an earlier time.

No; the concern of the patriot to-day is not for the black man so much as for his white oppressor. We need another Thomas Jefferson and a new John Adams to teach us a few primal truths about the rights of man and the province of self-government. In the meantime the *Nation* is doing its part to preserve our moral backbone, and shame the spirit of reactionary folly and distrust which has ruined many a state and institution in the past, and may ruin ours.

Celia Parker Woolley.

Chicago, May 4, 1903.

A DISCLAIMER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your criticism, issue of May 7, of an article on the mulatto, in the current *Atlantic*, you express the opinion that, if that article reflects the sentiment of the committee of which the writer is a member, little is to be expected from its findings.

In justice to that committee, I am prompted to make the statement that no member of it was consulted by me in connection with the opinions expressed in the article in question, and that I have no reason to believe that any member of it holds views similar to my own. The committee is composed of five members, the undersigned being the only Southern white man on it. One of its members is Dr. W. E. B. DuBois, the most intellectual man identified with the negro race, though himself a mulatto. The business of that committee is to investigate conditions, not to put forward theories, and membership upon it can scarcely be held a bar to the expression of one's personal ideas.

I may also add that I had no knowledge of the fact that any statement of my association with that committee was to be made in connection with the appearance of the article noticed by you.

Very truly yours, Alfred H. Stone.

200 A Street, S. E., Washington, May 9, 1903.

THE STRIKE COMMISSION'S REPORT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A more careful examination of Bulletin No. 46 of the Department of Labor

would have shown you that the hiatus between premises and conclusion in the report of the Anthracite Strike Commission, referred to in your editorial, "Strike-Commission Logic," in the current number of the *Nation* (No. 1975), was supplied by the report itself.

Your report of the finding in response to claims (1 and 2), as quoted, is qualified by the following quotation:

"In attempting a comparison with other occupations, we are met at once with the embarrassing condition that in such occupations the rate of wages paid by the day or month is uniform, while in the work of contract miners, who are paid by the yard, car, or ton, the number of days or hours represented by the earnings is a varying quantity, and the number of days in which he is actually employed at all, may be much fewer than the average number of days constituting a year's work in most other employments."

The report of the Strike Commission contains much more in the same line indicated by this quotation. Here is a sample: "Take, for example, the year of 1901, a year of more than usual activity in mining operations; the average number of days throughout the region on which work was started was approximately 260. The number may have been less."

Again, your quotation of the finding in response to claim 5, to the effect that the hazard of the contract miner is not greater than "in the fisheries, and in those of switchmen and freight-train crews on our railroads," is qualified by what immediately follows, viz., "Still the requirements are exacting, and this fact has been duly weighed by the Commission, in coming to a decision upon the demand for an increase in the rate of compensation of contract miners."

In several other respects the report of the Strike Commission qualifies your point-blank findings, as quoted. Finally, the Commission, in its report upon this branch of the case, which relates to contract miners, and only one of the four demands made by the miners, and which is not the whole case, as you erroneously state, steps naturally and connectedly from premises to conclusion by the following statement immediately preceding the finding on this part of the case, as quoted by you, without any astonishing "*therefore*," in manner following, which I quote in full:

"Reviewing the whole case, and acting upon the conviction produced by the hearing of testimony, and the examination of statistics, the Commission is of the opinion that, in view of the interruptions incident to mining operations, the increased cost of living, the uncertainty as to the number of days during the year presenting an opportunity for work, and the inequalities of physical conditions affecting the ability to earn, and not overlooking the hazardous nature of the employment, some increase in the rate of compensation to contract miners should be made."

HERBERT A. DRAKE.

CAMDEN, N. J., May 11, 1903.

[The qualifications adduced by our correspondent are the very thing in question. They are part of the give and take which makes the award amenable to the criticism we applied to it. Of course, both sides were taken under consideration, but what is negatived in pretension does not prepare for what is allowed in the verdict. In other words, the Commission disallowed about 90 per cent. of the miners' contentions but granted them about 50 per cent. of their claims. As to daily rate and annual earnings, the Commission concluded that "the future demand for anthracite coal will keep the industry at its present point of activity"—that is, with all the men practically employed all the working days of the year.—ED. NATION.]

JOHN EDWARDS HOLBROOK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Please allow me to correct a statement in the report of Dr. Gill's biographical memoir of Dr. John Edwards Holbrook, read at the recent meeting of the National Academy of Sciences in Washington. In your paper of April 30, page 351, you say:

"He [Dr. Holbrook] was an ichthyologist of the finest scientific quality, well known to Louis Agassiz, Jeffries Wyman and a few more, but known to very few even of the scientific world."

It is the last line to which I object. Dr. Holbrook made his reputation by his 'North American Herpetology' in five volumes, 1836-42. This is said to have been the first important scientific work produced by a native American. It received such general recognition in this country and in Europe that when the first (and only) volume of the 'Ichthyology of South Carolina' appeared, the title-page of that work described him as "Professor of Anatomy in the Medical College of South Carolina; Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh; of the Royal Society of Northern Antiquities, Copenhagen; of the Society of Naturforschende Freunde, Berlin; Corresponding Member of the American Philosophical Society; of the American Society of Arts and Sciences; of the Academy of Natural Sciences, Philadelphia; of the New York Lyceum of Natural History; and of the Boston Natural History Society."

Dr. Holbrook died in 1871.

H. H. RAVENEL.

CHARLESTON, S. C., May 6, 1903.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will bring out 'A Political History of Slavery,' by William Henry Smith, in two volumes; 'The Anglo-Saxon Century and the Unification of the English-Speaking People,' by John R. Dos Passos; 'Modern Civic Art: The City Made Beautiful,' by Charles Mulford Robinson; and 'Psychology and Common Life,' by Frank Sargent Hoffman.

Doubleday, Page & Co. announce 'How to Keep Well,' by Floyd M. Crandall, M.D., and a 'Poultry Book' in eighteen parts, with Prof. W. G. Johnson and George O. Brown for American editors.

Macmillan Company will issue during the present month volumes i. and iii. of 'An Illustrated History of English Literature,' edited by Dr. Richard Garnett and Edmund Gosse, in four volumes; 'Why the Mind Has a Body,' by Prof. C. A. Strong of Columbia; and 'A Fight for the City [New York],' by Alfred Hodder.

An interesting announcement is that, in the reorganization of the London house of Routledge, its American agency passes to E. P. Dutton & Co. of this city.

A tiny forerunner of this centennial anniversary month is 'Every Day with Emerson,' compiled by Harriet A. Townsend (Buffalo), by arrangement with Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Prose and verse extracts fill out the year on the rubricated pages. Less dainty and comely, but fuller, is the 'Thoughts from Emerson for Every Day in the Year,' selected by Ann Bachelor (Boston: James H. Earle & Co.). Oddly enough, while the verse of the Concord philosopher is quite disregarded, each month is introduced by a seasonable poetical extract from some other poet.

An attractive little edition of R. L. Stevenson's 'Memories and Portraits' is put forth by Herbert B. Turner & Co., Boston, with a liberty which substitutes for the essay called "The Manse" an early production, "The Philosophy of Umbrellas." Among the other pieces is that "Humble Remonstrance" with Henry James for a critique of 'Treasure Island,' supplemented by a briefer comment on Mr. Howells's theorizing about his own art.

For the thirteenth time Dauchy & Co. of this city issue their annual 'Newspaper Catalogue,' geographically arranged, with lists of religious and "class publications," of newspapers in foreign languages, and of such as use "patent outsides (or insides)," with some other distinctive features for the benefit of advertisers.

The stout volume entitled 'The Kaiser's Speeches, forming a Character Portrait of Emperor William II.,' translated and edited by Wolf von Schierbrand, upon the basis of a compilation made with the imperial sanction by A. Oscar Klaussmann, but more inclusive (Harpers), is a useful *corpus*, but not above criticism as a piece of bookmaking. It gives really more than it promises, being to a large extent a chronicle of the Emperor's doings and journeyings as well as speeches. It gives less than it should, because there is no index, and because the typography adopted confounds the imperial words with the editor's elucidations. Hence it is not easy to find one's way even with the aid of the awkward classification adopted—"The Kaiser for Peace and Reconciliation," "Promoting the Welfare of the Empire," "The Kaiser in More Intimate Circles," with numerous sub-divisions. Surely, a strict chronological arrangement would have been preferable, with the least thread of historic connection, and then a first-rate analytical index, in which the political and the psychologic aspects would have shone out. As it is, where should one look for expressions of the Emperor's mediæval view of the divine right of kings? In the last-named category, section "The Kaiser and his Family"! The translation has the idiomatic defects one might expect, but is faithful in intent. The preface contains the just observation that what shocks Americans, for example, in the Emperor's speeches often touches "chords in the German soul which would not have vibrated otherwise."

No English writer has ever known more of the history of Siena and its institutions than Mr. Heywood, the author of 'Our Lady of August,' the 'Ensamples of Fra Filippo,' and various other works concerned with the past of that most fascinating of Italian city-states. It was a brilliant idea of the Sie-

nese publisher, E. Torrini, to get this accomplished scholar to write down in popular, even seductive, form the history of Siena, and to supplement it with a very complete and genuinely critical account of its art, by Lucy Olcott (Mrs. F. M. Perkins). The resulting volume forms a guide-book, the like of which scarcely exists for any other town—a guide-book at once more critical and constructive than Mr. Langton Douglas's, more careful and select than Mr. Gardner's, both which works we have recently reviewed in these columns. It is a sign of the times, by the way, that Siena is beginning to absorb so much attention, and it is even more refreshing a sign that, in the book we are now considering, Sodoma is no longer the chief attraction of Siena. You might as well journey to Athens to spend all your admiration upon the Temple of Zeus, ignoring the Parthenon and all the other glories of the Acropolis.

The popularizing of Plato is not always judiciously done, and, on the whole, in an age like ours, when not to have definite and serious views on education is to be thought flippant, one is likely to hear only too often of the 'Republic' of Plato, a storehouse from which one can always point a moral. But Professor Lewis Campbell, having boldly ignored the advice of Joubert not to live on Plato, but to visit him now and again for change of air, is an excellent guide. His little book entitled 'Plato's Republic' (Home and School Library Series, E. P. Dutton & Co.) sums up in 176 pages certain aspects of the 'Republic' that have impressed himself and Jowett. The style is quite informal, the illustrations are pleasing, and one who should make the acquaintance of Plato from these chapters would probably feel impelled to further researches into the dialogues.

The third number of the new *Hibbert Journal* contains several articles of unusual interest. Rhys Davids writes on Buddhism as a living force, finding a favorable environment for this cult in present conditions. Less philosophical, but of a practical importance that should result in its being read by all those interested in missionary work in foreign fields, is the striking article by Josiah Oldfield, on the failure of Christian Missions in India. American contributors are well represented; Prof. B. W. Bacon writing on the Johannine problem, and Prof. G. B. Stevens on Sabatier and the Paris School of Theology.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for May, Mr. Cyrus C. Adams shows how the geographic conditions of this country have contributed to its development. Among these are its diversity of climate and products, its situation on the same side of the tropics with the great buyers of our food commodities, our harbors and rivers (affording, on a basis of three feet as the minimum depth of navigability, 14,000 miles of navigation measured in a straight line). The remainder of the number, with the exception of the notes, is devoted to our work in the Philippines, the conquest of the bubonic plague, the improvements in Manila, and the attempts to develop the agricultural resources which, according to Gov. Taft, must always constitute the wealth of the islands. A marked feature of the number is the eighteen full-page illustrations, which are of unusual merit and interest.

The scientific *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* is publishing a series of instructive articles on the merits and demerits of the literary language of modern Greece, in which the pros and cons are defended with unusual vigor. Several weeks ago Dr. Krumbacher of Munich, the recognized leader of Modern Greek philology in Western Europe, and the occupant of the only university chair in Germany devoted to this department, published a discussion of the subject, in which with great learning he argued for the substitution of the popular Greek of the day in place of the *Kunstsprache* which practically holds supreme sway in Hellenic literature. A keen reply to this comes from the pen of Dr. Kleanthes Nikolaides, a Greek who has spent about two decades in research in Western university centres, and who makes a determined defence of the modern adaptation of the classical idiom now current in Greek literature. He declares that ninety-nine out of every hundred educated Greeks would protest against the use of the vulgar idiom for literary purposes, just as the Low Germans from the Dutch borders to the Baltic province would protest against the elevation of the Plattdeutsch to an equal rank with the literary German. He further insists that the classical movement proceeds from the people at large; the rioters some twelve months ago in the interests of the "Gospel Language" being not the ecclesiastical or academic authorities, but the rank and file of the people, who understand the literary Greek just as well as the North German peasant understands the language of the pulpit, the court, and the press. Every attempt to establish newspapers in the popular dialect of Greece has failed. The editor, in commenting on this article of Nikolaides in No. 58, states that Professor Krumbacher will continue the discussion.

The publication house of Hermann Seemann in Leipzig announces that it will soon issue a collection of writings and speeches of President Roosevelt, under the general title of 'Der Amerikanismus.' The translator is Paul Raché, who will also furnish a lengthy introduction. A specimen of the contents, a chapter entitled "Die Monroe Lehre," is published in the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 63, and shows fairly good work, along with unmistakable evidences of translation. The other chapters are headed: "Der Wahre Amerikanismus; Der Amerikanische Junge; Das Volle Leben; Volksleben und Volkscharakter."

The interesting news comes from Stockholm that the Swedish authorities have decided to establish in that city an Arctic Museum on a grand scale, in which the imposing collections brought from the Arctic regions by Scandinavian investigators are to be deposited and arranged systematically. The majority of these treasures are to be found in the Royal Museum of Natural Sciences in Stockholm where the late Professor Nordenskjöld succeeded in putting the geographical and biological sections into good shape; but other finds, especially those brought from Spitzbergen, Greenland, Jan Mayen, Nova Zembla, and Siberia, are in the university collections of Upsala and Lund. The Arctic collections of Sweden are the most complete in the world, and are as unique in that line as the art treasures of the Vatican and the antiquities in the British Museum. The Swedish navigators have been systematically engaged in this work since the beginning of the last century.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for April contains a report by Mr. Macalister of the progress of the excavation of Gezer. He has no important discovery to chronicle, but describes the arrangement of the ancient buildings, the city walls, and the objects found, among which was a curious stone whistle. An interesting note on the famous Gate of Nicanor in the Temple of Jerusalem is contributed by Prof. Clermont-Ganneau, apropos of finding an ossuary inscribed with that name in a sepulchral cave in the neighborhood of the city. Major-Gen. Sir C. W. Wilson shows that the Golgotha and the Holy Sepulchre referred to by Eusebius in his Life of Constantine are identical with the traditional sites of the present day. In the "Immovable East," by P. G. Baldensperger, are sketched the different handicrafts mentioned in the Bible and still practised in Palestine. Our consul, Dr. Selah Merrill, notes the discovery of an immense charnel-house near Jerusalem.

Part II. of the second volume of the Korean Asiatic Society's Transactions (New York: George Stechert) contains two notable papers. The Rev. J. S. Gale, the linguist, furnishes an historical and descriptive paper on Seoul, accompanied by a map which enables the English reader to get a tolerably clear idea of the great city and its surroundings, and of the principal edifices and numerous "neighborhoods" within its walls. The map is a reproduction of one by a native cartographer, but the division into eighty-one squares, with a numeral and an alphabetic key at the top and sides, enables one readily to find a place or name. Palaces, temples, city gates, bridges, business quarters, are marked. One is impressed with the enormous antiquity of the place, even though it has been the national capital only under the present dynasty, beginning in 1392. "Type Neighborhood," if not named after the movable or "living" types which were used in Korea before Gutenberg was born, refers to the wooden stereotype blocks made by the printers of the neighborhood. As fascinating in literary style as it is philosophical in tone and exhaustive in its comprehensive outlines, is a paper on Korean Folk Tales by Prof. H. B. Hulbert. He groups the miscellaneous collection in "the back attic of Korean folk lore, . . . for the same family has occupied the house for forty centuries, and there has never been an auction," under six heads, Confucian, Buddhist, Shamanistic, legendary, mythical, and general. The Confucian stories are extraordinarily "Sunday-schoolish," of a sort somewhat out of date among us. "After one gets a little used to the formulæ, the first few lines of a story reveal to him the whole plot, including commencement, complications, climax, catastrophe, and conclusion." The Buddhist tales show a larger volume and a wider range, for here the imagination has freer play and a greater dramatic effect is possible. "To-day ten stories hinge upon Buddhism where one borrows its motive from Confucian principles." Of stories reminding one of the Holy Grail, there are several. Among the highly accomplished animals, the fox, toad, serpent, wild boar, and tiger are always bad, while the dragon, rabbit, frog and deer are always good.

The Association for Maintaining the American Woman's Table at the Zoölogical Station at Naples awarded, last month, the place to Dr. Grace Emily Cooley, professor of botany at Wellesley College, and the prize of $1,000 for the best scientific research work done by a woman, offered two years ago, to Dr. Florence R. Sabin, assistant in anatomy at the Johns Hopkins Medical School, for "an investigation on the origin of the lymphatic system embodying a discovery of far-reaching importance, believed to be the most important contribution yet made to the morphology of that system." Dr. Sabin is a graduate of Smith College. The prize offer is renewed, for award in 1905.

—The seventh and concluding volume of Doubleday, Page & Co.'s 'Variorum and Definitive Edition of the Poetical and Prose Writings of Edward FitzGerald' is the thinnest of the set. Prose predominates, and includes the exemplary memoir of Bernard Barton and obituary notices of the Rev. George Crabbe, and the account of Percival Stockdale, which even Leslie Stephen might envy as a pithy summary fit for the Dictionary of National Biography. There are also the introduction to 'Readings from Crabbe,' in which the variant seems hopelessly entangled with the *editio princeps* by some juggle of the press; and the Lamb Calendar. The verse consists of early original pieces, none of which would have secured FitzGerald a single-poem fame; least of all "Bredfield Hall," in spite of the author's own preference for it above any independent work of his. Yet some of them would be hailed by compilers of unhackneyed anthologies, and all illustrate the personal and poetic side of this man of deep feeling and strong friendships. His transfusing, as his filing, habit is shown in two paraphrases of the speech of Æmilius Paullus from Livy (which, by the way, are not collocated in the very inadequate index); and in the sonnet from Petrarch, which cannot be thought to preclude one closer to the Italian. The Bibliography is another distinguishing feature of this volume. And so we take leave of an enterprise well conceived in many respects, beautifully but not faultlessly printed, and an indispensable possession for all who revere FitzGerald's name and genius, though lacking the Letters, for which we must go to Mr. Aldis Wright's latest edition of the Works, now nearing completion from the press of Macmillan.

—Eliza R. Scidmore's 'Winter India' (The Century Co.) was doubtless pleasant to write and is likewise pleasant to read. For one who knows the sights described, which lie on the "regular Indian round," it recalls them distinctly enough, though it is doubtful whether the descriptions would raise a vivid image of them in the home-stayer. Miss Scidmore makes much of the discomforts of Indian travel as compared with American. We, who have tried both, would give our preference the other way. Indian travel taken in Indian fashion is perfectly comfortable; and Indian hotels, though not comparable to the Waldorf or the Carlton, are superior to the hotels of small New England towns. Indian service is the perfection of service. Indian politeness surpasses all other, though it only made Miss Scidmore mad when she was called "My lady." Is she mad in France when they call her "Madame"? The book may well be useful to intending travellers. It indicates a well-planned route, though omitting Kashmir, the very pearl of India. It adopts conventional judgments, but not unfair ones. More should have been said of the excellence of the early Moslem architecture of Old Delhi and its superiority to most of that of the Moghuls. The wonderful cities of Rajputana are perhaps hardly enough brought out. But the book is a good book of its kind; no one will regret reading it.

—Mrs. Aubrey Le Blond, the widow of Col. Burnaby, has an established reputation among lady climbers. In 'True Tales of Mountain Adventure for Non-climbers, Young and Old' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), she writes graphically, and she is a mountain photographer of exceptional merit. The reproductions of her photographs here printed do the originals no sort of justice. The text is readable, and will be found interesting by the general reader, for whom it is intended. Much of it consists of classical stories of mountain adventure extracted from the published works of writers of repute. The authoress has also adventures of her own to record. She does not mind using the language of lowland people. She is not ashamed to talk of "danger" where the actual risk may have been very small or actually *nil*, but the appearance or idea of danger was doubtless really present. In these days it is surprising how many folks who never were above the level of perpetual snow, read with avidity books on mountaineering. There seems to exist (so the publishers say) a definite and not small class of such readers. This is the very book for them. It will give them the very thrill they want. It is not untrue; it is not even disproportionate in its treatment of incidents. As a matter of fact, much of the time spent in climbing high mountains is spent in very dull plodding. The interesting hours are a small proportion of the whole. The exciting moments are very widely scattered. Here the exciting moments are singled out and compressed together. The result is a book which will be liked by people who like that sort of book.

—'Om Amerika' (About America), by Carl Fischer-Hansen, published simultaneously by Brentano in New York and by the Gyldendalske Boghandel in Copenhagen, a volume of 253 pages, aims, in the first place, to give the author's countrymen at home a clearer and more correct idea about things and institutions in America than is obtainable from works previously existing, and in the second place to make it easier for Danish immigrants to obtain such information about the United States as most of them will be likely to desire, and the acquisition of which would involve long years of experience with much fruitless search. Few if any literatures are so rich in books intended to give information about the United States as the Danish, almost every Danish journalist, actor, or artist who visits this country feeling called upon to record, on his return, his impressions of it; but these productions cannot, as a rule, lay claim to accuracy. The present book contains in thirteen chapters remarkably full and mostly correct information about the Union, the individual States, the currency, banking, legal institutions compared with those of Denmark, the bar (*i. e.*, the lawyers as a class), stock companies and Trusts, Stock Exchange speculation, religious matters, schools, universities, literature, and the army. It is to be feared that the price of the book will prevent it from reaching as many immigrants as were to be wished, while on the other hand the fact that the language throughout—except in the chapter dealing with American literature—bears witness to the author's long sojourn away from his native land, will probably deter many readers on the other side of the ocean. Of misstatements we have noticed a few unimportant ones. Page 121, New York city is said to be the "district" of the District Attorney; page 143, one-half of the Lutherans in the United States are said to be Germans, the other half Scandinavians, *Irishmen*, and Finns; here Irishmen (Irlændere) might be thought a misprint for Icelanders (Islændere), though even so we do not see why they should not be counted among the Scandinavians. Page 194, Mr. Carnegie is said to have given $10,000,000 to establish a *university* in Washington, D. C. Page 197, students' societies, we are told, often have as a name *one* of the three Greek letters, alpha, beta, or kappa.

—Prof. J. B. Bury, lately inaugurated as Regius professor at Cambridge, began with a lecture on the "Science of History," which affords an interesting glimpse of the present position of historical study as mapped out by a representative modern historian. Having not unhandsomely acquitted himself of his duty to the memory of the late Lord Acton, his predecessor, he spoke of "far-reaching changes in the geography of thought" initiated during the nineteenth century, and especially of the "transformation and expansion of history," not complete as yet, and still in many places ignored or unrealized. Before the last century, criticism, even in Muratori, Ducange, and Tillemont, not to be named without warm gratitude, was sporadic and capricious. To Germany and Wolf's 'Prolegomena' was due the systematized method which issued in the microscopic criticism now deemed indispensable. But there was a preparation of minds, due in part to Puritanism and partly to Rationalism, which also helped toward the elevation of all standards of truth in history, our real modern point of vantage. The spirit of resurgent nationality, characteristic of the nineteenth century, and not even now inactive, had enforced the unity and continuity of history upon patriotic minds, and swept them beyond the outlived conception of history as "philosophy by examples," as the material for political and moral science. The science of history could as little be the handmaid of literary art as of social science, he maintained. Mommsen, whom he called "the greatest living historian," derived his reputation from the 'Corpus,' the 'Staatsrecht,' and the 'Chronicles,' rather than from "that dazzling work," his Roman history. This all had come about through the "new transfiguring conception" of human development, started by Leibnitz, but first acclaimed by the nineteenth century, when it appears as the true solvent of the anti-historical doctrines arrayed during the French Revolution "against the compul-

sion of the past." This brought history into line with other sciences, and freed it from political and ethical encumbrances. The nineteenth century A. D. would rank with the fifth century B. C. in the annals of historical study. Both marked "a stage in the growth of man's self-consciousness." Perhaps the most striking and inspiring passage came toward the end, where Professor Bury declared that "the humblest student of history may feel assured that he is not working only for his own time; he may feel that he has an interest to consult and a cause to advance beyond the interest and cause of his own age." Remarkable also, as inspired by the instant and novel requirements of the hour, was his proclamation of the absolute identity between history and archæology, which last has a distinct name and place solely because it requires a special training.

—The publication, in a convenient octavo volume, with delightfully clear typography, of a general index to the first thirteen years of *Le Droit d'Auteur* directs attention to this most excellent periodical issued by the Bureau of the International Copyright Union at Berne, Switzerland. The monthly numbers of the magazine appear in a three-columned quarto page slightly larger than that of the *Nation*, the contents arranged in two divisions—"Partie officielle," containing the French texts of laws, ordinances, administrative decrees, treaties, etc.; and "Partie non-officielle," consisting of contributed monographs upon special points in copyright law, summaries of copyright decisions by the courts of various countries, and a record of all movements the world over affecting the protection of literary and artistic property. Of special note are the detailed summaries of the annual book production of the principal countries. The index seems an excellent piece of work. The first one hundred pages contain references to the contents of the journal from 1888 to 1900, arranged alphabetically under about 300 catchwords, with sub-alphabets under each, the eye being aided by a discriminating use of italic type. Then follows, as a second division, a table of official documents—laws, treaties, ordinances, etc.—arranged chronologically under an alphabet of countries, 372 separate documents being recorded. Finally, there is a chronological list of court decisions reported and commented on, with an alphabetical index of parties to the suits. *Le Droit d'Auteur*, which is published at the cost of the Berne Bureau, maintained by a pro-rata charge upon each of the countries of the International Copyright Union, is issued at the nominal subscription price of 5.60 francs per year. But libraries are now given an opportunity to secure full sets of the fourteen volumes, including the index, for 50 francs in lieu of 77.80 francs, so long as the limited stock holds out; thus permitting about 2,000 quarto pages of copyright literature, most of it of permanent value, together with this useful index, to be obtained for the sum of ten dollars. Some of the yearly volumes are understood to be already nearly exhausted; hence librarians should take prompt steps to secure sets of this admirably conducted publication, which forms one of the best collections of printed documents relating to copyright.

—The vexed question of the transliteration of Greek words has come under the consideration of a committee of the Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies, which was lately intrusted by the Council with the preparation of a scheme to be adopted in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*. The scheme as adopted and now in use by the editors of the *Journal* pays due regard to the literary traditions of English scholarship. Therefore, being of the nature of a compromise, it allows in most cases a considerable latitude of usage. Its first general principle is laid down as follows: (A) "All Greek proper names should be transliterated into the Latin alphabet according to the practice of educated Romans of the Augustan age." κ=*c*; υ, αι, οι, ου=*y*, *ae*, *oe*, *u*; final ος and ον=*us* and *um*; ρος=*er*. To this rule should attach three exceptional considerations: (*a*) The diphthong *ei*, which under this rule would be either *e* or *i*, should be transliterated by *ei*, except in names like *Laodicea*, *Alexandria*, where there is a clearly established usage; words ending in ειον must be transliterated with the termination *eum*. (*b*) Discretion should rule as to occasionally retaining *os* and the like, especially in cases like Delos, where Augustan usage favors the form with *o*; Latin usage should similarly be followed as far as possible in *e* and *a* terminations, *e. g.*, Priene, Smyrna; in obscure names in ρος, such as Λέαγρος, *er* should be avoided as likely to produce confusion; the Greek form *on* is to be preferred to *o* for names like Dion, Hieron, except in a name so common as Apollo, where it would be pedantic. (*c*) Names having a definite English form, such as Corinth, Athens, should not be otherwise represented, but it is hardly necessary to point out that names like Hercules, Mercury, Minerva should not be used for Heracles, Hermes, and Athena. (B) Though names of gods should be transliterated as other proper names are, personifications and epithets like Nike, Homonoia, Hyakinthios have their special rule. (C) No accents should be used to show quantity; the circumflex is especially objectionable. (D) Greek words other than proper names, used as names of personification or technical terms, should be transliterated letter for letter—κ=*k*; υ=*y*; ου=*u*. *E. g.*, Nike, apoxyomenos, diadumenos, rhyton. But this rule should not be rigidly enforced in the case of Greek words in common English use, such as ægis, symposium. It would also be necessary to preserve *ou*=ου in such definitely established words as *boule*, *gerousia*.

THE OLD BISMARCK AND THE NEW GERMANY.

Personal Reminiscences of Prince Bismarck. By Sidney Whitman. D. Appleton & Co. 1903. Pp. 346.

Germany: The Welding of a World Power. By Wolf von Schierbrand. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1902. Pp. 376.

Whitman's 'Imperial Germany,' which was written fifteen years ago and which reached a second edition in 1891, pleased Bismarck and secured for its author an invitation to visit the ex-Chancellor in his retirement. This first visit made him what the Germans call a "house-friend," and from 1891 to 1896 he was Bismarck's guest at Friedrichsruh, Varzin, or Schönhausen, on not less than nine occasions. He witnessed in 1895 the wonderful celebration of the Prince's eightieth birthday—a tribute of national reverence and affection such as no other private citizen ever received in any country during his lifetime—and three years later he stood with Prince Herbert beside the old Prince's coffin.

In the work before us Whitman has recorded his recollections of these visits, and his impressions, not only of the Prince and his family, but of other house-friends: notably of Lothar Bucher, the revolutionary of '48 and later the Imperial Chancellor's "right hand," and of the painter Lenbach, from whom he obtained some of his best material and to whom he appropriately dedicates this volume. To our knowledge of Bismarck little is added. The author's picture of a loving and considerate husband and father, a genial and attentive host, a kind and beloved landlord, a man of so warm a heart that he was troubled by a passing glimpse (in driving) of a stranger, a workingman, who looked ill; the assertion that the "dominant memory" which the author carried away from every visit was of Bismarck's "moderation and refinement"; the judgment quoted from Dr. Schweninger, "that in his composition there was something of the tenderness of the woman, much of the *naïveté* of the child, and all the qualities of the man"—these views may surprise those who are wont to think of the great German as a Titanic bully; but to those who are at all familiar with the Bismarck literature, with the utterances of his friends and with his private letters, this side of Bismarck's character is already well known. That the ex-Chancellor's last years were sad ones, we knew already, although we have had perhaps no such outspoken confession as that which Bismarck made to Lenbach: "There is only one happy day left for me. It is the one on which I shall not wake up again."

The book is disappointing in that it contains so few of the striking phrases which nearly every other writer who heard Bismarck talk has been able to remember and record. We cannot expect, in a single generation, more than one such graphophone as Boswell or Busch, but Whitman is not even a fairly good reporter. We credit his claim that he has withheld from publication some interesting confidences because they were confidences, and we respect him for a reticence which neither Boswell nor Busch would have found intelligible; but we have a significant confession that when, on one occasion, the author jotted down a few memoranda, he found himself subsequently unable to remember what some of them meant (p. 266). It is therefore not surprising to find that of this book of reminiscences a considerable part is padding.

Of some of the minor personages the book tells us more that is new, because of them so much less has hitherto been written. The simple, strong, and somewhat eccentric personality of the old Princess is made very vivid; and of that obscure great man, Bucher, also, the author gives us an attractive sketch. From Bucher we have a judgment, prejudiced, of course, but interesting, of the present Emperor:

"The dominant influence with us at present [1892] is a queer mixture of cunning and impressionability, leading to rapid generalization based upon the observation and knowledge of the surface of things.

This in its turn leads to impulsive action" (p. 165).

Schierbrand is a good reporter, and from his three interviews with the old Bismarck in the nineties he carried away some good "copy" (pp. 350-356), which, so far as we know, has heretofore appeared only in the newspapers. American politics, Bismarck confessed, had always been "a sealed book" to him; but as far as he could pretend to understand them, they seemed to him "decadent." Cleveland, in his opinion, had "the stuff in him out of which statesmen are made," but was "thrown away in a republic." In May, 1898, less than three months before the Prince's death, his views were obtained (in spite of the opposition of his physician and his family, who were trying to shield him from fatiguing excitement) concerning the Spanish-American War. He regarded the course pursued by the United States as indefensible. Spanish misgovernment of Cuba was a mere pretext. "Colonies have often been mismanaged, and I suppose that the Americans, when they shall have colonies, will not be exempt. But that is no fair reason for dispossessing the owner. . . . Spoils, spoils—all else is pretence." His remarks about the Monroe Doctrine, which he described as an "insolent dogma," were equally interesting. The Doctrine had flourished only because of dissensions in Europe. A union of two strong naval powers like England and France could at any moment have made an end of it. On this occasion Schierbrand found Bismarck "bent and shrunken"; his hands trembled, his voice was "raucous and hollow"; but his "steel-blue eyes still shot fire," and "his intellectual faculties were unimpaired." This is not the domestic Bismarck of Whitman's acquaintance; it is the other, the public, Bismarck.

Schierbrand's book is an attempt to describe the Germany of to-day. For comprehending it, he has the advantage of German birth and education. For interpreting it to Americans, he has the advantage of long residence in the United States, and an acceptance in the main of the American point of view. He is chiefly interested in Germany's remarkable economic development and in the resulting changes in social life, but he touches also upon Germany's constitutional organization and its politics. In his discussion of German politics he seems to have been unable to escape from his early prepossessions. Only a *Fortschrittler* of the old school could allege, as he does, that the Fortschritt party (which until 1866 held the majority of seats in the Prussian Chamber of Deputies) caused Prussia to be recognized all over Germany as the champion of political progress, and that "this moral factor had as much to do as all others together in giving Prussia her hegemony, and in bringing about the formation of the North German Confederation" (p. 70). In view of the facts that this party opposed every step which the Prussian Government took towards Prussian hegemony, and that the Government realized its aims only by overriding the parliamentary opposition and disregarding the Constitution, the author can only mean that the rest of Germany was willing to come under Prussian hegemony because there were so many good Liberals in Prussia. It is hard to believe that the helpless and discredited Liberal party in Prussia exercised any such attraction, and all the contemporary evidence indicates that the Liberals of the smaller German States anticipated from Prussian hegemony the reëstablishment of absolute government throughout Germany.

Starting with this twisted construction of the facts, the author is naturally unable to account for the weakness of the Liberal party since 1878, except on the ground that its leaders have forsaken the ancient standards. To an outsider the phenomenon seems capable of a simpler explanation. The Germans who reached the voting age (25) between 1868 and 1893, and who are now from thirty-five to sixty years old, grew up during or immediately after the unification of Germany by the Prussian Crown and the Prussian army. They saw, and still see, in that achievement the complete justification of intelligently directed absolutism. They naturally have little faith in popular government. The National Liberal party, which after 1866 absorbed all the more intelligent elements of the Fortschritt, became increasingly conservative, not because its leaders changed their principles, but because an increasing proportion of their constituents had come to believe in Crown government. Under such circumstances a new popular party of opposition could develop only along lines of class antagonism, as it is to-day developing in the Social-Democratic party. It is probably in this party, which is yearly becoming less socialistic and more democratic, that the leaders of the new Radical-Liberal party will be found, and not, as the author expects (p. 363), in the left wing of the present Liberal remnant.

It is not in this matter only that the author's digressions into history are open to criticism. That *one* of the old German Emperors was a Luxemburger (p. 150), is an odd understatement. That the little principality of Reuss-Greiz, which sided with Austria in 1866, is still, in theory, at war with Prussia (p. 307), is a legend so amusing that it seems a pity to discredit it; but, as a matter of fact, Reuss-Greiz made peace by a formal treaty on September 26, 1866. Another unhistorical legend which the author repeats is that the Ultramontane or Centre party was "formed" as a result of the *Kulturkampf* (p. 79).

When Schierbrand touches upon law, he is often equally inaccurate. The assertion that Bismarck, in his Reminiscences, inferentially takes a position favorable to "pure parliamentary" government (p. 30), is based on a failure to distinguish between Constitutional and Parliamentary Government. The statement that the German Emperor has the power to declare war (p. 24) is misleading; it should be added that the consent of the Federal Council is necessary, except when an attack has been made on the territory of the empire or on its coasts. It is misleading, again, to say that the Emperor has no power to veto legislative measures (*ibid.*). His seventeen Prussian votes in the Federal Council enable him to defeat any amendment to the Constitution; and as the head (*Präsidium*) of the Council he has an absolute veto on changes of the military, naval, customs, or excise laws. In discussing the Prussian election laws, the author says that those who do not pay a certain minimum of direct taxes have no votes, not even in the third class (p. 74). This is true as regards municipal voting, but not as regards voting for the electors who choose the members of the Prussian Chamber of Deputies. The sketch of the movement for securing uniform civil law for the whole empire (p. 171) is very confused. In referring to the various systems which existed before 1900, the Roman law is disguised under the strange title of the "Imperial Law Collection"; and, while the number of legal systems is not exaggerated, the number of "codes" is greatly overstated. There were not sixteen leading codes, nor was there "a number" of other codes. The new Civil Code, in force since 1900, is incorrectly said to have established uniform law in several fields which had long before been covered by imperial legislation, *e. g.*, marriage, and bankruptcy and other commercial matters. Bankruptcy and commercial law are, in fact, not covered in the new Civil Code.

Among other *errata* we may notice the statements that Prince George, recently deceased, was the uncle of the present Crown Prince of Prussia (p. 307), and that he was the uncle of the present Emperor (p. 308); and that the German colonies of East Africa and of Southwest Africa are in north latitudes (pp. 291, 292). A theory which will strike non-Germans as being more ingenious than plausible is that the German, as such, is a modest person, and that the arrogance of the Prussians is due to infiltration of Slavic blood (p. 131). It is the common and, we think, the correct impression that the arrogance of the Prussians, like that of other people, has varied with their power, and particularly with their success in war. Prussian arrogance seems to have begun with the Great Elector, to have increased under Frederick the Great, to have abated sensibly after Jena, and to have reached its present height soon after 1866. Some of the other Germans, who are not charged with miscegenation, have shown signs of arrogance since 1870. The English began to be arrogant at a much earlier period, and some foreigners assert that the Americans are growing arrogant.

The chapters dealing with Germany's economic and social conditions and prospects, which make up the larger part of this book, constitute also its best part. The great changes of the last thirty years—the transformation of the empire from an agricultural into an industrial state, its entrance into active competition in the markets of the world, its rapidly accumulating wealth, and the resultant growth of refinement in manners and corruption in morals—all these changes are vividly portrayed. Here again the author has advantages over a foreigner or a German who has remained at home. The foreigner does not know the old Germany; and to the home-staying German the magnitude of the transformation is obscured by his familiarity with its successive stages. On the questions that most interest Americans—the position and prospects of Germany in the contest for the markets of the world and in the development of colonial empire—the author's conclusions are (to us) reassuring. Superior technical education and more perfect industrial and commercial organization give the Germans advantages over their English and American competitors, but these advantages are more than offset by the German

lack of initiative. Germany has as yet shown no capacity to establish outposts that promise to attain importance; the development of its colonies is checked by *Assessorenthum* or bureaucracy, *i. e.*, by too much governing.

The book is full of statistics. We have tested the author's accuracy in two instances only, and in one of these the result is disquieting. He says on page 92 that the imperial budget for 1898-99 reached the total of 4,980,000,000 marks. These figures bear no resemblance to the receipts or expenditures, estimated or actual, of that fiscal year; but in the 'Statesman's Year Book' for 1901 the estimated revenue for 1900-01 is stated to have been 1,979,135,000 marks. The author has apparently rounded this estimate into 1,980,000,000 marks, and retrodated it by two years—and the printer has done the rest.

One of the good things about both of the books under review is that they plead for peace and concord between the three great kindred nations—the German, the British, and the American. To-day governments all over the world are working for peace. The danger of war lies largely in the dislike and suspicion with which every people regards other peoples. This attitude toward the foreigner is, of course, as old as the human race; but it has become particularly perilous in our day, because nations, in spite of their increasing size, are growing more homogeneous and more solidary. In addition to this, they feel and will more rapidly than ever before; electricity and the newspapers have given to each national body a nervous system which responds in a day to any strong suggestion. Nothing is easier or more popular than to increase international prejudices and excite international hatred. Nothing is better worth while than to aid in creating, in one nation, that sympathetic comprehension of another nation which destroys ignorant prejudices and allays unfounded suspicions.

THE PUBLICATIONS OF THE IRISH TEXTS SOCIETY.

Giolla an Fhiugha, or, The Lad of the Ferule.—Eachtra Cloinne Righ na h-Ioruaidhe, or, Adventures of the Children of the King of Norway. Edited, with translation, notes, and glossary, by Douglas Hyde, LL.D., M.R.I.A., etc. 1899.

Fled Bricrend (The Feast of Bricriu). Edited, with translation, introduction, and notes, by George Henderson, M.A., Ph.D., etc. 1899.

Dánta Aodhagáin úi Rathaille (The Poems of Egan O'Rahilly). Edited, with introduction, translation, notes, and glossary, by Rev. Patrick S. Dinneen, M.A. 1900.

Foras Feasa ar Eirinn, le Seathrún Céitinn, D.D. (Keating's History of Ireland). Volume I., containing the Introduction and the first book of the History. Edited, with translation and notes, by David Comyn, M.R.I.A. 1902.

In 1893, when making his inaugural address as first President of the Irish Literary Society in London, the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke described a number of objects which he thought might well be cherished by such an organization. He dwelt upon the importance to Ireland, and indirectly to the whole world of letters, of building up a national and traditional Irish literature in the English tongue. To this end he advocated in particular the following undertakings: The publication of ancient Irish texts with good, faithful translations; the literary treatment in English of native Irish material, either in episodic poems like Ferguson's 'Conary,' or in larger epic compilations similar to Malory's 'Morte Darthur'; the collection of folk-tales while they can still be obtained from oral sources; and the republication of much of the Anglo-Irish poetry of the last two centuries.

In the ten years that have elapsed since this interesting address was delivered, Mr. Brooke's programme has been fulfilled in larger measure than one might have hoped. To be sure, not much that is notable has meanwhile been done in the free literary treatment of Irish saga-material. For Sir Samuel Ferguson was already dead when Mr. Brooke spoke, and his 'Deirdre' and 'Conary' still stand among the very best attempts at Irish epic in English verse. Mr. Yeats, too, who is peculiarly endowed for the interpretation of some elements in the Celtic nature, had published his 'Wanderings of Ossian' before 1893. The Irish Literary Theatre, an institution of more recent growth, has not yet succeeded in getting a large hearing for its dramas based upon episodes in Irish romance. It also remains to be seen how much vital interest is possessed by Lady Gregory's late volume, 'Cuchulain of Muirthemne,' which, if it should gain wide acceptance at all, might come to be regarded as a kind of vulgate of the older Irish saga cycle for English readers. But if work has been rather tentative, and progress small, on the side of pure literature, it is possible to make a better report of Mr. Brooke's other projects which belong more particularly to the field of scholarship. He himself, in collaboration with Mr. T. W. Rolleston and a number of contributors, has edited an admirable 'Treasury of Irish Poetry,' which contains the best of the Anglo-Irish verse since the popular songs of "ninety-eight." In the collection of folk-lore there has been steady activity. Although no such compilation of Irish tales yet exists as was made by Campbell for the West Highlands of Scotland, still—thanks to the late William Larminie, Dr. Douglas Hyde, and a dozen others—a large number of stories have now been taken down in various parts of Ireland and made accessible in either Gaelic or English. The movement for the revival of the Irish language (which seems to have entered very little into Mr. Brooke's reckoning) has given an impulse both to the collection and to the publication of these traditional tales.

Of all Mr. Brooke's proposals, however, the one of most immediate importance was probably the first, which contemplated the formation of an association, like the Early English Text Society, to secure the publication and translation of the great body of Irish literature, still largely unknown, but rich in materials for the use alike of the historical scholar and of the literary artist. We do not know whether the foundation of the Irish Texts Society was at all due to Mr. Brooke's influence, and we do not mean to claim for any one the credit for its organization; but we are glad to be able to record that, within ten years of this address upon the subject, such a society is securely established, and four volumes of its annual publications have seen the light. They are a good indication of the kind of texts which the Society will be chiefly called upon to publish. They represent some of the most interesting types of Gaelic literature, and, in three out of the four cases at least, are very good specimens of their types.

The first volume contains two modern romantic tales edited by Dr. Douglas Hyde, the President of the Society, and one of the most productive of Gaelic editors and writers. The interest of these stories is almost solely linguistic or historical. They are long, very fanciful, and so disorderly as to be hard to follow. In short, they represent a somewhat debased form of the romantic sagas of an earlier period, and as such they best repay study. One of them, "The Lad of the Ferule," belongs in part to the cycle of Celtic other-world adventures which once had considerable influence on French and English romances of chivalry, and it has been examined from this point of view by Dr. A. C. L. Brown in his forthcoming dissertation on "Sir Ywain."

The second volume contains Dr. Henderson's edition of 'The Feast of Bricriu,' an excellent old Irish Saga of the best period. The interest of the story is great, and its historical bearings important. It was a good selection with which to begin the Society's series of older texts. But the editor's work is in many respects unsatisfactory, and, in view of the competence he has manifested in Scottish Gaelic publications, most disappointing. His text is hardly as good as that published by Windisch in 1881. The translation is frequently inaccurate or infelicitous. The introductory chapters are by no means thorough or final, and the whole question of the compilation of the saga has been already reopened by Thurneysen in the *Zeitschrift für Celtische Philologie.*

The editor of the third volume, which contains the poems of Egan O'Rahilly, was confronted with the very different task of collecting from scattered manuscripts the works of a popular modern poet. Father Dinneen, by virtue of his intimate knowledge of both language and people in O'Rahilly's country, was specially equipped for the work, and has done it well. He has not undertaken to go into questions of historical grammar, or in general to do more than interpret his author's meaning, but his translation and notes will furnish grammarians and lexicographers with much valuable information about living usages. In his literary comments Father Dinneen gives an estimate of the poetic value of O'Rahilly's work, with which we cannot fully agree; yet in our gratitude for the product of his "lungo studio" we are not disposed to criticise his "grand' amore." Beyond a doubt there is much in O'Rahilly's verse—and the remark may be extended to most modern Gaelic poets—which, if judged by classic standards, is crude and inartistic, and which, from any point of view, is utterly commonplace. But the best of this Irish poetry, including some of O'Rahilly's, has great charm and human interest. In metrical structure it stands quite apart from the familiar verse-forms of Western Europe. Moreover, its substance can hardly be neglected by the historian of Ireland,

for it is the genuine expression of the native Gaelic people during the generations of British rule.

The most welcome of the works thus far issued by the society will undoubtedly be Keating's 'History of Ireland,' the first part of which constitutes the fourth volume of the publications. Keating has long been recognized as the greatest writer of Gaelic prose in the modern period, and his works have been widely circulated in manuscript; but until lately they have been by no means easily accessible in print. In 1890 Prof. Robert Atkinson brought out an admirable edition of 'The Three Shafts of Death,' which, with its grammatical appendixes and exhaustive vocabulary, furnishes one of the best existing introductions to the modern Irish language; and in 1898 a convenient, though rather imperfect text of 'An Explanatory Defence of the Mass' was issued by Patrick O'Brien in Dublin. In 1900 a small volume of Keating's poems, very competently edited by the Rev. J. C. MacErlean, was published under the auspices of the Gaelic League. But of the 'History of Ireland'—a work of more general interest than any of the preceding—no complete Irish text has been printed, and Haliday's unfinished edition of 1811 has become extremely rare. For a knowledge of the contents of the work it has been necessary to depend upon two English translations, both rare and one exceedingly inaccurate. Mr. Comyn, therefore, if he carries his undertaking to a successful issue, will be rendering a memorable service to Irish studies. His first volume does not go beyond the point reached in Haliday's edition. We are bound to say that we do not feel quite sure of the principles by which Mr. Comyn has been guided in the establishment of his text, and we should like to see a more thoroughgoing study of the manuscript tradition than his brief preface provides. Perhaps this will be supplied in one of the later volumes. For practical purposes, in the meantime, the reader is sufficiently guided by the variants recorded on every page. We look forward with interest to the volumes in which Mr. Comyn, to use his own term, will have to "break new ground."

For the excellent appearance of this important series a word of recognition is due to the house of David Nutt, which is honorably associated with other publications in the field of Celtic scholarship.

Studies in Contemporary Biography By James Bryce. The Macmillan Co. 1903.

This is one of Mr. Bryce's best books—which is saying a great deal. Most of the sketches had already appeared in print (many of them in the *Nation*); but these have been, as the author explains in his preface, enlarged and revised, some indeed "virtually rewritten." The result is that the collection has all the freshness of a new book. Many of the studies relate to men who passed from the scene twenty years ago. Of the six which deal with politicians, those on Gladstone and Disraeli are the most important, but all are worth reading, even that on Anthony Trollope (a well-worn subject), in which Mr. Bryce makes an excursus into the literature of fiction which may fairly be called, notwithstanding his great literary gifts, alien to his talents.

It is in political portraiture that he is at his best, and above all in the portraiture of House of Commons men. In this atmosphere he has lived and moved for many years, history and government are the subjects to which he has devoted his life, and consequently, when he analyzes the career of the two statesmen we have mentioned, of Robert Lowe, or of Parnell, it is with the hand not merely of a skilful writer, but of a master. But we have hardly reached this conclusion when we are forced to recall that his sketch of Mr. Godkin, not only not a House of Commons man, but a journalist, and an American journalist at that, is almost equally good. In fact, in the end, perhaps what strikes us most is the even merit and occasional striking excellence of whatever Mr. Bryce undertakes to do.

For biography he has peculiar talents, especially of style. In this respect he maintains the best traditions of English writing. He is lucid, simple, unaffected, and never weak. On the other hand, he has no secret or mystery to reveal, he writes no jargon of his own, he is no lover of novelties; and he has a profound belief in reason and right—altogether, one might think, not at all in the fashion. Yet the reader, if he be of the same turn of mind, may be consoled by the reflection that as an author Mr. Bryce long since attained a hold upon the public which promises to be permanent.

It is difficult to know exactly what to quote from a book which is rather to be read as a whole than in isolated passages, but we will content ourselves with giving one or two instances of a merit rarely found in modern biography, and for memorable examples of which we have to go back to St. Simon, or possibly to Plutarch—that of painting the *character* of the subject in a few strokes, which bring its features into a relief almost like that of a face on canvas.

"He never feared to give battle, even when he expected defeat, if he deemed it necessary (with a view to the future) that the judgment of his party should have been pronounced in a formal way. On the other hand, he was wary of committing himself to a policy of blind or obstinate resistance. When he perceived that the time had come to yield, he knew how to yield with a good grace, so as both *to support a character for reasonableness* and to obtain valuable concessions as the price of peace."

This is one aspect; now turn to another:

"He had studied the House of Commons till he knew it as a player knows his instrument—studied it collectively, for it has a collective character, and studied the men who compose it; their worse rather than their better side, their prejudices, their foibles, their vanities, their ambitions, their jealousies—above all, that curious corporate pride which they have, and which makes them resent any approach to dictation. He could play on every one of these strings, and yet so as to conceal his skill, and he so economized himself as to make them always wish to hear him. He knew how, in a body of men obliged to listen to talk, and most of it tedious talk, about matters in themselves mostly uninteresting, the desire for a little amusement becomes almost a passion, and he humored this desire so as occasionally to err by excess of banter and flippancy."

It is hardly necessary to say who this is, but if it be thought that a man well known to everybody is easier to paint than one comparatively obscure, let him turn to any one of those with whom he is least familiar. For instance, to most American readers, T. H. Green is a mere name. After reading Mr. Bryce's sketch—the essential part of which lies within the limits of a single page—his image remains imbedded in the mind.

If Mr. Bryce has a fault, it leans to virtue's side. We should describe it as over impartiality, too great a desire to be fair and just. It is absurd, perhaps, to quarrel with a trait which is at the same time what makes the author what he is; but the reader, with his inherited simian propensities, sometimes misses a little malice. There is no malice here, no foible even, on which we can put our finger. Probably in the end we shall have to admit that the defect is in us, and not in the book.

The Complete Writings of Walt Whitman. Issued under the editorial supervision of his Literary Executors, Richard Maurice Bucke, Thomas B. Harned, and Horace L. Traubel. With additional bibliographical and critical material prepared by Oscar Lovell Triggs, Ph.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This edition of Walt Whitman's writings may truly be said to surpass, at several points, all recent reproductions of the *opera omnia* of any single author—first, in its mechanical execution; and, secondly, in that absolutely fearless candor which only the profoundest faith in their author can secure for editors. This faith is apt to be severely tested where so many successive versions of individual poems have been published as in Whitman's case; and the present editors do not shrink from inserting not only the details of every change, but even the unprinted variations which have hitherto existed in manuscript only. This becomes the more interesting from the fact that not a few of these alterations were made in apparent recognition of those criticisms on the score of impropriety—or, as Emerson called it, "priapism"—which so abounded in Whitman's earlier days, and to which he sometimes, though rarely, seems to have paid a discreet deference. (See 'Leaves of Grass,' iii., 107, 122, 191, etc.)

But, apart from this, it is a thing always very desirable, especially in dealing with a peculiarly original and innovating poet, to know the successive phases and forms of his literary productions, although in the case of most poets this might seem to the author himself very undesirable, since he usually prefers to preserve the final form and no other. It also throws a vast responsibility on the editor, lest he be led, like some of the early editors of Coleridge, to confuse hopelessly note-books and extract-books, and thus make his poet seem a plagiarist when he is not. Such mishaps are not quite wanting in this case, as where Walt Whitman had written down in his note-book, as a substitute for a poor version of Uhland's greatest poem, the last verse of Sarah Austen's exquisite translation, of which he alters one word only, here italicized:

> Take, O boatman, thrice thy fee—
> Take, I give it willingly;
> For, *unwittingly* to thee,
> Spirits twain have crossed with me."

This verse the editor here attributes to Whitman himself ('Leaves of Grass,' iii., 282). We have found, however, no companion instance of inaccuracy, which is saying a great deal for a work so difficult.

In other respects, the editors have shown

excellent judgment in letting Whitman speak everywhere for himself, whether in his strength or in his weakness; and this is especially to be noticed when they deal with those occasional bursts of fine humility which are too rarely visible in the writings of this remarkable man. After saying to us, in his "Backward Glance," that "it is certain that a poetry of absolute faith and equality for the use of the democratic masses never was," Whitman goes on with this touch of manly modesty:

"And whether my friends claim it for me or not, I know well enough, too, that in respect to pictorial talent, dramatic situations, and especially in verbal melody and all the conventional technique of poetry, not only the divine works that to-day stand ahead in the world's reading, but dozens more, transcend (some of them immeasurably transcend) all I have done, or could do" ('Leaves of Grass,' III., 49, 50).

Such an outburst of courageous frankness atones for a multitude of sins.

Shakspere and his Forerunners. By Sidney Lanier. In two volumes. Doubleday, Page & Co.

In this book are printed for the first time lectures delivered more than twenty-two years ago. They are presented not merely in substance, but almost exactly, as they were written, and yet the book is pervaded by a charm which almost wiles one into ignoring its defects and shortcomings. The preface, page vii., speaks of the author's idea of Shakspere as definite and vital. This seems entirely true. Hastily prepared as the manuscript undoubtedly was, the lectures were clearly built up around a live and well-defined conception. In this, in the author's earnestness, in his fervid enthusiasm, in his occasional witcheries of expression, the value of the book consists, rather than in any breadth of scholarship, depth of insight, or cogent marshalling of facts into well-massed demonstrations. The proof-reading is not impeccable; witness "inn" for "iuu" twice (I., 102); "heofourices" for "heofonrices" (I., 161); 'Εκατογπάφια far 'Εκατομπάθια (I., 200); "system" for "extreme" (II., 8); "tunes" for "words" (II., 14, line 4). The make-up of the book is handsome, and the editing generally good, but the fine full-page illustrations are seldom inserted to face the text which they often fail to illustrate. The print called "Shakspere's House at Stratford" (II., 74) is apparently from a very bad picture antedating the invention of photography. The book would have been improved had the editors omitted I., 50-52, 132-136, and most of II., 67-72, and of the conclusion, II., 312-329; the two former, expositions of Anglo-Saxon words, are of little value or interest; the two latter are largely dry recapitulations.

The hastiness of the original writing appears in some errors which the author, had he lived, might have removed. We note (I., 111) the not wholly correct exposition of the steps giving the present meaning of "gossip"; the all too common misuse (I., 216) of the phrase "that ilk"; the statement (I., 297) that the mystery play had to do with matters mysterious; the objection (II., 43) to the accepted derivation of "madrigal," and the suggestion of one altogether absurd. The construing of a passage of Beowulf (I., 50-52) is somewhat infelicitous. So also are the formulas and tabulations appearing frequently, as I., 25, 27, 42; II., 247, 248, 249, 253, 254. We find somewhat irritating the species of linguistic chauvinism manifested in I., 160, 161. We approve the author's admiration for the English language, but the expression is scarcely judicious. The skeleton of fiction running through chapters xvi.-xviii. is likewise rather irritating than otherwise. In II., 279-289, Lanier certainly fails to show or even to make it seem probable that Greene was the writer travestied in the anti-masque of the artisans in "A Midsummer Night's Dream."

Chapter i., on the formal side of poetry, is left hanging in the air, as it were; for the matter to which, as originally delivered, it led up is not included in this book, but was reworked into the author's 'Science of English Verse.' Chapters xi. and xii., on the pronunciation of Shakspere's time, probably very effective in lectures and well judged for the audience to which they were addressed, are ill fitted to be read, and can bestow very little information and hardly any stimulus of interest upon even the rawest neophyte. Chapters xvi., xvii., and xviii. are entitled "The Domestic Life of Shakspere's Time," yet they really tell little or nothing about domestic life. They do set forth, by examples drawn from literature, something of the diversions of high and low, and of the books, sermons, comedies, and tragedies of the time. Chapter iv., on some birds of English poetry, is a very slight performance. In it, more forcibly than in any other part of the book, we are reminded of the lapse of time since the matter of the book was composed. It was then still possible for a scholar to believe in Sir John Mandeville as a real person, and in the book which goes by his name as reflecting the experience of actual travel in the East.

Thus far in dispraise. More welcome is the opportunity to point out the attractions of the work. Chapters xx. and xxi., on the metrical tests for the order of composition of Shakspere's plays, are excellently well done, and present the subject almost as well as if written when printed. Chapter xix., on the doctors of Shakspere's time, is a pleasant, rambling discourse, informing and agreeable. Chapters v. and vi., on women and wives as exhibited in earlier English poetry, evince more than a little originality of view and clearness of insight. In chapters vii.-x., on sonnets and sonneteers, the author so warms with the congeniality of his subject that his enthusiasm communicates itself to the reader and quite carries one away. Still more is this true of chapters xiii.-xiv., on the music of Shakspere's time. All the musician, all the poet in the author come forward together to this theme, and the result is an absorbing monograph, full of information and very entertaining. Chapter ii., on the supernatural in early English and Shakspere, and chapter iii., on Nature in Early English and Shakspere, are delightfully well done. The selections taken to illustrate the points made are apparently fragmentary in respect to English literature as a whole, and seemingly chosen haphazard and hastily; yet the author manages in these chapters especially, and also elsewhere in the book, to weave his examples into a discourse which gives a lively and pleasing impression of the whole development of English thought and expression. Best of all are chapters xxii.-xxiv. They form a convincing exposition of the coördinate development of Shakspere as a metrist, a playwright, a poet, and a man; exhibit the author at his best, and are worthy of more than one reading.

Original and striking utterances in the book are not few. For instance, take what is said (I., 152) of Griselda's husband, and of Lear; or (I., 165) Lanier's objection that Chaucer's language, a hodge-podge of worn-down English words mixed with unassimilated French, should by no means be called "English undefiled"; or the dictum (I., 214) that the Elizabethans were diffuse, but diffuse in ideas, never merely diffuse in words; or, again, the distinction drawn (I., 298) between truth and reality; or yet again, the valuation (II., 212) of "Measure for Measure." And there are many felicities of expression.

The fulness of the table of contents does not excuse the absence of an index.

Unitarianism in America: A History of its Origin and Development. By George Willis Cooke. Boston: American Unitarian Association.

Heretofore, the main haunt of Mr. Cooke's literary interest has been that of New England Transcendentalism, though he has written excellent handbooks of Browning and George Eliot. It was no doubt the patient elaboration of these books, together with his 'Emerson,' 'Curtis at Brook Farm,' 'John S. Dwight,' and others, that selected him for this official history of the Unitarian body. Up to the fifth chapter it is the history of a theological and religious evolution; from thence onward it deals for the most part with different aspects of Unitarian organized activity, with a parting word on "The Future of Unitarianism," which certainly does not err on the side of too sanguine expectations.

The introduction, "English Sources of American Unitarianism," has a quite general character, allying the Unitarian origins with the Renaissance, the Reformation, and English tendencies towards toleration and rationalism. The following chapter indicates the forces that from the very beginning of the New England theocracy made for increasing liberality in church government and belief. Next we have "The Growth of Democracy in the Churches," Arminianism its theological concomitant, with the Great Awakening for its most striking incident—in the event, a significant awakening of such opposition as that of Chauncy and Mayhew. Mayhew is set down as the first pronounced Unitarian, though there were many tending to his position. The names of fifty ministers opposed to the methods of Whitefield are given. Nevertheless, there was, as the fourth chapter relates, a reactionary revival in the last decade of the eighteenth century, and it was in opposition to the dogmatic and exclusive temper of this revival that the Unitarian movement gathered head from the beginning of the nineteenth century for thirty years, in the course of which period more than a hundred churches in New England were aligned upon the liberal side, including twenty of the first twenty-five organized in Massachusetts, with the Church of the Pilgrim Fathers in the lead. Here was virtually, though not in its ultimate appearance, a secession of the exclusive orthodox dogmatists from the Congregational body, in defiance of its original spirit.

A chapter on the "Period of Controversy" emphasizes less than is common the crucial events of 1815 and Channing's contribution to the controversy on its upper side. We have an exact account of the various agencies through which the new movement expressed its thought and spirit, with a chapter devoted to the origin and early course of the American Unitarian Association. This chapter, but the whole book in a hardly inferior degree, is a monument to Mr. Cooke's careful diligence in the collection of material and to his judicious use of it. The extreme difficulty of giving such a multitude of details an agreeable literary form is obvious, but Mr. Cooke's success in this respect is more conspicuous than we should have imagined possible. One of the most engaging incidents of this chapter is Emerson's service (1827) as missionary of the new organization on the Connecticut River, illustrated by one of his letters detailing his experience.

Mr. Cooke's choice of a title for his next chapter, "The Period of Radicalism," is hardly justified by its contents. The period described was for the main body and large majority of Unitarians their period of ultra conservatism, near the end of it Freeman Clarke describing them aptly as "a discouraged denomination." Radicalism there was, but it was radicalism in a minority and under ban. Mr. Cooke's studies heretofore had fitted him peculiarly for the treatment of this aspect of the Unitarian development, but, as if modestly withdrawing from a field so much his own, he barely touches it, possibly because disinclined to garner where he has already reaped. What is certain is that two of the most significant moments of the Unitarian history, Emerson's Divinity School Address of 1838, with its antecedents and consequents, and Parker's South Boston sermon of 1841, are passed over in silence, nor is there more than the most casual allusion to the controversy of which these events were the elliptical centres. That no fear was here of opening old wounds we have the proof in Mr. Cooke's frank dealing with subsequent controversies that raged with extreme violence, and whose ashes are not yet perfectly cold. As touching these his book is an eirenicon, conceived in a spirit of admirable fairness to those most concerned, while he does not conceal his own satisfaction in the final outcome of each new controversy which made "the bounds of freedom wider yet."

The "denominational awakening" of 1865 was clearly a product of the superabundance of energy engendered by the civil war, finding preëminent embodiment in Dr. Henry W. Bellows, of whom Mr. Cooke writes with more warmth of admiration than of any other of the multitude of *dramatis personæ* that crowd his stage. Tuckerman's "Ministry at Large" has no more space than it deserves in a proportion where there are many pressing claims. The Sunday-school work is one of these; others are the Women's Alliance and Post-office Mission, agencies that from small beginnings have attained to a remarkable efficiency and scope. Mr. Dall's noble work in India and that of Mr. MacCauley in Japan have both honorable mention. Then come a series of chapters which tax the resources of Mr. Cooke's Unitarian restraint and modesty to a degree that in the upshot more commends his prudence than convicts him of too much complacency. If there is an exception to this ruling it is the anti-slavery part of the chapter on "Unitarians and Reforms." One gets a less favorable impression from Dr. Channing's letters and from such an event as the refusal of his church to him for a memorial service of Dr. Follen, his high-minded anti-slavery friend. On the other hand, Mr. Cooke is able to quote the praise awarded by Samuel J. May to his co-religionists. The fact is, they did better as time went on, and it was easier to do better; also, that the personal sympathy with the anti-slavery movement was always in advance of that expressed in the pulpit and in denominational action. The unsympathetic reader will probably discover in Mr. Cooke's chapters, "Unitarian Philanthropies," "Unitarian Men and Women," and "Unitarianism and Literature," a disposition on his part to "claim everything in sight"; but seldom or never does he gather anything that can easily slip through the meshes of his net. Civil Service Reform, with the Unitarians Sumner, Jenckes, and Curtis for its founders (Bellows might have been added), is paralleled by many other lines of social help, and on that of literature Mr. Cooke is able to quote Prof. Barrett Wendell: "Almost everybody who attained literary distinction in New England during the nineteenth century was either a Unitarian or closely associated with Unitarian influences." For the inheritors of this great renown there remains the proverb that dead men's shoes soon wear out, and they cannot bestir themselves too eagerly if they are hereafter to be worthy of such high descent.

Symphonics and their Meaning. By Philip H. Goepp. Second Series. Lippincott. Pp. 498.

Mr. Goepp is an enthusiast who believes that music tells a message clearer, richer, nobler, than one may hope from prose or even verse. A few years ago he wrote a book in which he tried to find and describe "the mystery of symphonies." The present volume is an extension of his analytical method and completes his survey of classic symphonies. Mozart is represented by one work, Beethoven by six (including the Pastoral and the Ninth), Schumann by two, Mendelssohn by one, Raff by three, Brahms by three. A chapter is also devoted to Liszt, Tchaikovsky, and R. Strauss, and the appendix briefly considers symphonies by Berlioz, Gade, Goetz, Gilchrist, and Goldmark. A footnote explains that the omission of the symphonies of Americans like Paine and Chadwick is due not to a lack of good will, but a lack of space. However, so far as that goes, Raff's "Winter" symphony and Gade's B flat might have been spared; nor were Beethoven's first two symphonies quite worth as much as fifty-two pages, for they were written before the composer had "found himself." Our author, too, is often diffuse. The substance of his book might have been easily condensed into half its number of pages. Apart from this, there can be nothing but praise for it. It is sympathetic, thorough, lucid; and the author fortunately realized that the only way to make such a book intelligible and useful was by giving illustrations in musical type on nearly every page.

There are Germans who still hold Mozart's symphonic works to be the *ne plus ultra* of art; some of them consider not only the romantic composers, but even Beethoven, a descent from this sublime pinnacle. But Mr. Goepp, although in the main a conservative, understands and clearly hints at the line of progress made since Mozart. In his time and Haydn's an adagio meant not so much a sad mood as "merely a decent suppression of spirits for ceremony's sake." "In those days the main business of music was to cheer and amuse"; in Beethoven it began to seek emotional utterance in all its phases. His symphonies mark the modern fondness for strong and extreme emotions. Not only are his adagios unsurpassed, but he also created the frolicsome scherzo, to supplant the languid minuet of Haydn and Mozart. Oddly enough, in his analysis of Beethoven's Eighth Symphony, Mr. Goepp makes no mention of the important quarrel between the Mendelssohnians and the Wagnerites in regard to the *tempi* of the middle movements.

It is pleasant to find a good word for Raff, whose "Lenore" and "Forest" symphonies have fallen into premature neglect. In regard to pictorial or programme music, Mr. Goepp justly points out that Raff "solved its problem successfully as to symphonies, achieving here what Mendelssohn reached only in the overture." On the other hand, he gives Raff too much honor when he intimates that "some of the melodic, harmonic, and dramatic manner that is all attributed to Wagner is quite distinctively Raff's own." It is true that, as he points out, Raff's Forest Symphony was written nine years before the Nibelung's Ring was first heard in public; but he forgets that "Tristan" was produced in 1865, four years before that symphony; and Raff was a collaborator of both Wagner and Liszt. In an American book it might not have been out of place to mention that Raff was the teacher of Edward MacDowell. With touching modesty and keen appreciation of budding genius, he said to his pupil, shortly before his death: "Your music will be famous when mine is forgotten."

For one who is so great an admirer of Brahms as Mr. Goepp, it is surprising to find him so tolerant of Liszt. True, he refers to a "lack of strong-knit musical structure in Liszt"—which is absurd, as the symphonic poem invented by him is much more logical and coherent in structure than the classical symphony with its four detached and unrelated movements. But the author reads the symptoms of the times correctly as regards the growing valuation of Liszt's music: "There are increasing signs that Liszt was the true author of much of modern vein that has been ascribed to others who merely followed in his wake."

The House of Seleucus. By Edwyn Robert Bevan. 2 vols., with plates and maps. London: Edward Arnold. 1902.

The field of Hellenistic history has been little cultivated. Most historians of Greece, inspired by love for free Hellas or for classical literature and archæology, or attracted by the relative abundance of historical material, have confined their labor to the period ending with the death of Alexander. Thirlwall's 'History of Greece,' however, oversteps this landmark, to treat the Hellenistic age in a series of

chapters which are admirable for the time when they were written; and more recently Mahaffy, especially by his 'Greek Life and Thought,' has awakened an interest in certain aspects of the same age. These were almost the only important works composed in English which had to do with the political history or the civilization of the period. The Germans have paid more attention to the subject. J. G. Droysen devoted his historical genius to the preparation of a monumental work, 'Geschichte des Hellenismus' (2 vols., 1836-43), which is practically a history of the civilized world for the period which it treats. Holm covers the ground more briefly in his excellent History of Greece, now translated into English; and at present two distinguished German scholars—Niese in his 'Geschichte der griechischen und makedonischen Staaten,' and Kaerst in his 'Geschichte des hellenistischen Zeitalters'—are presenting detailed accounts of the Hellenistic age from modern points of view.

Mr. Bevan's work differs from those named in applying itself to the thorough treatment of a single Hellenistic kingdom. In the preface he acknowledges his indebtedness to earlier laborers in the field. "One's obligations to Droysen and Niese are, of course, so constant and extensive that they must in a majority of cases be taken for granted; it is where one's own conclusions do not altogether tally on some point that they are in many cases referred to—a circumstance which may give the work of a younger writer an appearance of presumption which is far from the truth." In this respect the author has followed the English rather than the German custom. He certainly deserves full credit for independence of judgment; but could he not have better satisfied the scholarly reader by giving continuous references to his modern as well as his ancient authorities? This method would have greatly facilitated the study of the subject.

The author's task has been difficult. Most of the ancient authorities for the period lived ages after the events which they describe, and are generally uncritical and shallow. The material is not only inferior in quality, but scant and fragmentary; it leaves wide gaps at most important crises, and rarely affords a glimpse of the political organization and administration, the social and intellectual life, and the economic condition of the empire (subjects of the greatest interest to the serious modern reader), but presents instead a dreary maze of unintelligible wars. Mr. Bevan has supplemented the scant literary sources by the use of coins and inscriptions, and by attention to the physical conditions and the ethnography of the Seleucid empire. Chapter ii. is, accordingly, a brief but valuable presentation of "The Physical Environment," in which the author summarizes the geographical and racial character of the nearer East; and in the course of the work entire chapters are devoted to the physical features and the population of the various provinces in relation to the empire as a whole. Although these parts of his history will doubtless prove highly instructive, they lack the freshness of interest which one might expect of a writer who has himself visited the countries he describes. It is to be regretted, too, that throughout the narrative the author has not brought out more boldly the relation of the political events to the physical environment. Perhaps the most interesting chapters are the first, "Hellenism in the East," and the last, "Government, Court, and Army." The author's analysis of Hellenism is remarkably keen and thorough. It is his great merit never to lose sight of the truth that in the Seleucid court and kings he has to do with Greeks, and that his theme is Greek civilization on Asiatic soil. This idea gives the work unity and a definite purpose. As to the importance of the Seleucid government in universal history he says:

"We have tried to get some idea in outline of the constitution of the Seleucid realm. To do so is interesting, not so much as calling up the picture of things long passed away, but as studying a phase in the tradition which has come down to us. For when Rome became an Empire with a monarchic court and system, it followed to a large extent, both in its inner principles and its external forms, the Greek kingdoms which it superseded. A real continuity of tradition bound the court and government of the Cæsars to the court and government of Seleucid and Ptolemy, and the tradition sanctioned by the authority and majesty of the Roman name continued as a sort of ideal in the Middle Ages, shaping institutions which in their turn have gone to make the modern world."

The author shows little disposition to generalize, and still less dramatic power. His narrative is sober, unimaginative, and clear, designed to instruct rather than to stimulate or entertain. The work seems to be in a high degree trustworthy, and may be earnestly recommended to those who wish to study the period. It comes, too, most opportunely, as recent international events have directed the attention of the world to Asia.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barbour, A. M. At the Time Appointed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.50.
Benson, L. F. Studies of Familiar Hymns. Philadelphia: The Westminster Press.
Burney, C. F. Notes of the Hebrew Text of the Book of Kings. Henry Frowde. $4.75.
Cymbeline. The Works of Shakespeare. Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.
Daskam, Josephine. Middle Aged Love Stories. Scribners. $1.25.
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 21, 1903.

The Week.

In spite of Postmaster-General Payne's ready assurance that thirty-five of the forty pages of Mr. Seymour W. Tulloch's charges against the Post-Office Department are "hot air," the extracts published by the press on Monday afford extremely interesting reading. Mr. Perry Heath is not the only political freebooter who figures in Mr. Tulloch's charges. Senator Platt and his bonding company pass across the stage, but only for a moment. That famous breeding-place of great men, Muncie, Ind., furnishes the background for one scene, and one of the leading actors, Mr. Oliver H. Smith. This gentleman, like his townsman, Mr. Neely of Cuban prison fame, was evidently a man of genius, for he was called upon to fill two positions at once. Both were laborers' places, with $2 a day for "carfare and additional expenses." Evidently Mr. Smith was a high-class workingman like Mr. Edgar S. Maclay of the Brooklyn navy-yard. Then we have the familiar charwomen who figure in every spoilsman's drama. Neither of them is to know of the existence of the other, and neither is to do any work. A "complimentary" roll of those who likewise draw pay and do nothing is a very stimulating episode, and may go far to explain why the Post-Office Department never can make both ends meet. But the *dramatis personæ* of Mr. Tulloch's setting of the interior of the Washington Post-Office do not end here. There is the familiar Porto Rican or Cuban postmaster, a highly civilizing and entertaining figure, but a trifle short in his accounts. In place of the usual populace there are travelling inspectors of military post-offices, almost all with grips marked Ohio or Indiana, drawing good salaries, and living on the fat of the land. Finally, there is the fake manufacturing concern, as familiar in our Government scandals as fake gold mines in Bowery melodramas. The final touch is an auditor's statement, "Look here now, this is a new [McKinley] Administration, and a new crowd, and we intend to make our own precedents." Mr. Tulloch published his play without "authority" and without copyright.

According to a telegram in the *Times*, the purpose of our international silver commission, consisting of H. H. Hanna, Charles A. Conant, and Prof. J. W. Jenks, who sail for Europe this week, is merely "to learn whether there is any way in which the great Powers of the world can come together in some plan to steady the rates of exchange between gold and silver-using countries." This is a laudable curiosity, although somewhat belated in the world's monetary history, when we consider the several attempts to satisfy it during the latter part of the nineteenth century. Very likely the Powers which are to be newly interrogated will retort the question on its askers, in which event the latter should be prepared to give a categorical answer. Meanwhile it is reassuring to know that our Commission has done nothing, and expects to do nothing, which will affect the monetary system of this or any other country, so far as the integrity of the gold standard is concerned. A difficulty presents itself to the Commission, however, as to the methods, if any, by which the great Governments might give to the commodity silver a stable value when coined into money. This question was debated at some length in the Brussels Monetary Conference, and it was deemed necessary by the delegates to take into consideration the output of the mines as well as the utilization of the product. So the question was bluntly put to the representatives of the silver-producing countries whether any means could be devised to limit the output. When a negative answer was returned, the project of regulating the purchase of the metal by international action was abandoned.

Ex-Secretary Gage has written a letter to the President of the Texas Bankers' Association, in response to an inquiry of the latter: "Is the money supply of the United States sufficient?" It is Mr. Gage's opinion that, although the money supply of the United States can be reinforced to any extent from the gold resources of the world, there is a deficiency in the credit currency. He shows that the supply of checks, drafts, and bills of exchange is limited only by the amount of business transacted, which creates its own medium of exchange for the larger transactions and leaves nothing to be desired; but for the smaller transactions, remote from banking facilities, there is a deficiency which should be supplied by the banks on the same principles as those governing the issue of banknotes in France, Germany, Scotland, Canada, and other civilized countries. Mr. Gage holds that the protection of the note holder against loss may be made entirely adequate without bond security lodged in the Treasury; that there need be no dangerous expansion under such a system; that such a currency would go far toward relieving the tension in monetary circles during the crop-moving season; that it would tend to steady the rates of interest for money, and that it would be in the interest especially of the agricultural classes, affording them an adequate supply of a safe circulating medium on terms more favorable than they can otherwise enjoy.

The National Business League, whose headquarters are at Chicago, have reopened their campaign for the reform of the consular service, and have begun to distribute copies of the Lodge bill, together with arguments for its passage. The bill contemplates a complete change in the system of selecting and promoting foreign consuls and their assistants. It abolishes Congressional patronage completely, and puts this branch of the public service under the merit system. It exacts as conditions of appointment a general knowledge of the trade conditions, resources, and requirements of this country, as well as of the country to which the appointee is accredited, and ability to speak either French, German, or Spanish, as well as good English. The aim of the measure is to make fitness for the particular duties of the office—that is, ability to promote the manufacturing and commercial interests of the United States—the sole test and standard of qualifications for appointment and promotion. The bill was voted down with derision in the last Congress, but it will "come up smiling" in the next one, and it will continue to come up till it is enacted into law. It has a much stronger supporting force than the Civil Service law had twenty years ago, consisting not only of "theorists," but of business men of both political parties, whose trade with foreign countries depends largely and increasingly on the intelligence and efficiency of the men holding positions in consular service. It is gratifying to perceive that these men are not in the least daunted by their defeat in their earliest battles with the spoils politicians.

President Roosevelt is very fond of dealing with the "hard fact." Ideals are all very well, but what is the use of dashing yourself against the reality? But what is the real and what the fanciful? For example, at the dedication of the naval monument in San Francisco on Thursday, Mr. Roosevelt said that the victory of Manila had "opened the Pacific Ocean to American commerce." This, therefore, is one of the official "facts as they are." But, unhappily, it is also one of the statistical facts as they are not. We will not burden our readers with the figures. They are in the Government tables. Suffice it to say that our Philippine exports are less than one-half of one per cent. of the total, and that they have not increased by anything like the amount of the new foreign trade which has come to us since 1898, and with which "the thunder of Dewey's guns"

had nothing whatever to do. If the President had been intent on the real commercial fact, as related to the acquisition and cost of the Philippines, he would have come to a conclusion nearer that of a cynical English economist, who, asked what was the chief lesson of the Boer war, replied, "The chief lesson is that war is an industry which does not pay."

Some one has said that, with the extension of modern means of communication, the whole American people are dancing at the end of wires, one ring from the centre setting all their nerves to jangling simultaneously from Broadway to the last dusty corner of the Western farming States. The fling finds its mark, if at all, in the quality of the nerves; certainly not in their close connection, for the welding together of the intelligence of the world has been the great achievement of the past fifty years. Perhaps our most remarkable development in this line during the past decade has been the rural delivery system. A recent press dispatch stating that the establishing of these postal routes must be discontinued till the next fiscal year for lack of funds, calls attention to the marvellous growth of this institution. Started in 1896, it has advanced in almost geometrical progression. There were 1,276 routes in 1900, 4,301 in 1901, and 8,466 in 1902. The report from Washington states that, within two years, at the present rate of increase, 38,000 routes, covering the whole country, will be in operation. As a civilizing agency—in the extension of trade, the promotion of reading (especially of current literature), the vivifying of the dead reaches of country existence—there have been few movements of recent years, certainly none under Government control, that have approached this.

The employer—when most a worm—will turn. That is the salutary lesson for organized labor taught by the events which crowd the news from day to day. In this city the employing builders have had to federate against federated unions, as a necessary measure of self-defence. There is a limit to the concessions which can be made; wages cannot indefinitely go up; hours cannot be cut down without end; owners have a few rights still; managers must be allowed some voice in the management. In other words, the trades unions have at last provoked, by their mounting arrogance of dictation, an assertion of common right and common manhood on the part of employers. Nothing but their desire to avoid friction, and their undoubted willingness to share, as they have shared, the profits of these prosperous years with their men, have prevented such a resolute stand from being taken long ago. It is a sharp and wholesome reminder. Wages and hours of labor remain, what they have always been, a matter for adjustment between workmen and employers, of give and take. But it was high time the unions were given plainly to understand that they cannot go on forever giving nothing and taking everything.

In Bridgeport, Conn., the question is whether the city shall be run by a "labor" Mayor or directly by the labor unions, without the intervention of superfluous officials. When the Mayor tried to quell a strikers' riot on Sunday, a blow on the head promptly reminded him that he should respect his betters. The dogma to which the Mayor of Bridgeport and all the rest of us must subscribe was promulgated in this city the same day by Delegate Fitzgerald of the Reliance Labor Club. The topic under discussion was whether to stand by the newly formed union of rockmen and excavators, which has struck in defiance of the Central Federated Union. Delegate Fitzgerald argued: "Right or wrong, this union ought to be supported. When a union is in its infancy it is right at all times." The glaring insufficiency of this statement was at once apparent to another delegate, deeply versed in the theory of implied doctrines. He leaped at once to the logical conclusion that unions are right not merely in their infancy, but always. It must be confessed, however, that the dogma of union infallibility, like that of papal infallibility, presents some difficulties. In this city we have the spectacle of the Central Federated Union and the Rockmen's and Excavators' Union squarely opposed to each other—and both right; and the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners and the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners fighting each other to the death—and both right. This is an opportune moment for such a subtle casuist as Delegate Fitzgerald to write a 'Harmony and Exposition of the Labor Gospels.'

A couple of years ago a Republican State Convention in Pennsylvania devoted the larger part of its platform to denunciation of the press. This was the party's answer to an indictment for corruption, the truth of which it could not gainsay. Gov. Pennypacker's inaugural address echoed the sentiments expressed by the State Convention, in much better language, it is true, but with the same note of exasperation at public criticism of men in high official place. All this clearly foreshadowed the new libel law which the Governor has just signed. The spirit in which it was passed, and the temper of the Governor in signing it as expressed in a long, pompous, and fatuous memorandum, fully warrant the charge made by the leading newspapers of the State, that this is an attempt to gag the press in order that known corruptionists may ply their trade with less interruption. The bill provides that civil actions may be brought against newspapers for negligence "in the ascertainment of facts and in making publications affecting the character, reputation, or business of citizens"; and that, when such negligence is proved, compensatory damages may be recovered, together with punitive damages where the matter is libellous and has been given special prominence by means of cartoons or display type. The act also requires newspapers to print at the head of their editorial page the names of their owners, managing editors, etc., under a maximum penalty of $1,000.

Part of this is little more than codification of existing law, but the Governor, in his memorandum, goes much further. Describing the conditions which he thinks ought to be dealt with, he says: "Bishops, too, hurry into print without investigation, and with only such information as comes from muddy sources, to express their disregard for those whom the people have entrusted with authority." A Tammany executive, gifted with Gov. Pennypacker's power of expression, would doubtless have said as much when Bishop Potter sounded his note of alarm against corruption in this city two years ago. Describing a cartoon in which he himself is depicted as in danger of being overturned by a free press, the Governor declares: "In England, a century ago, the offender would have been drawn and quartered and his head stuck upon a pole without the gates." He does not say that he desires this now, but the idea is evidently no more offensive to him than the cartoon. The Philadelphia *Press*, which, despite its former anti-Quay sentiments, supported Gov. Pennypacker during his canvass and has regularly praised him since, describes the memorandum as "unspeakably shallow, silly, and wrongheaded." In its more serious light, his approval of the bill and his memorandum constitute one more attempt on his part to shield, by his abilities and reputation, men who are known to be the worst of public plunderers.

It could have been only a compelling sense of duty to the legal profession and to the public which led the Bar Association last week to adopt a resolution reflecting upon one of the most prominent judges in this city. His acceptance of a position in a private corporation while still on the bench, has been the subject of much disturbed comment among scrupulous lawyers. They have felt that his action, while violating no statute, did infringe upon that delicate sense of propriety which is never more admirable than when seen in a judge. The Bar Association now takes this view. It votes that such a mixing up of

judicial and money-making activities is "incompatible with that degree of dignity and independence of the judiciary which this Association is striving to promote." We might be even more emphatic. Quite aside from professional ethics, the need of absolutely incorruptible and absolutely unsuspected judges was never so great as now. They have to decide cases where not only immense money stakes, but wild social passions are involved. The vast issues affecting great corporations are by far the most important matters now coming before the courts. If their decisions are to be accepted as the awful voice of the law, and to be submitted to without questioning, the judges who render them must be known to be men stayed by no private interest. Otherwise, the strain upon our law-abiding tradition will be too severe, and the respect for an unbought judiciary—which is one of our few remaining bulwarks against sudden popular manias—will be swept away.

Gradually the ghastly details of the massacre of the Jews at Kishenev are finding their way into print. They recall the Bulgarian atrocities and the Armenian massacres by which alone their horrible items are paralleled. The offenders in this instance are nominally Christians of an old civilization, whose sole excuse for their inhuman atrocities is a difference in religion, combined with a racial prejudice. Well may the London *Jewish Chronicle* call upon Christian Europe to denounce this outrage. There is no pen so halting but that it should protest against such savagery, no voice so feeble but it should make an outcry. As far as the nations are concerned, no other action is possible than that of individuals and the press. It is no Bulgaria with which the world has to deal, and there is no Gladstone to make the world ring with his matchless indignation. As for ourselves, it may well be asked whether our hands, so recently bloodstained in the Philippines, and so constantly befouled by the lynchings of the South and West, will permit us to enter as strong a protest as should come from a land of liberty and of free speech. But it is gratifying to note that American charity is already coming to the relief of the survivors of this carnival of blood.

The persons who are urging Secretary Hay to file a protest with the Government of Russia against the barbarities practised on the Jews at Kishenev, should take notice of a debate in the Italian Chamber of Deputies on May 7, in reference to the lynching of two Italian citizens at Erwin, Miss., in July, 1901. The Under Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Signor Baccelli, was asked what had been the outcome of the representations made by Italy in reference to that affair. Signor Baccelli replied that, notwithstanding the energetic measures taken by the diplomatic and consular agents of Italy, no conviction of the guilty parties had been obtained. He said that the United States Congress had voted the sum of five thousand dollars for the next of kin of the victims, but that the Italian Government would not accept blood money as a satisfaction, although it could not prevent the relatives of the victims from receiving it. He added that the late President McKinley and President Roosevelt strongly condemned lynchings, and that bills had been introduced in Congress for the trial by the Federal courts of such offenders against foreigners, but that the bills had not been passed. In short, the matter stood just where it was in 1901, when the crimes were committed. Some statistical information was contributed, showing that, besides Europeans, about 150 American citizens are lynched every year. This fact might be taken as presumptive evidence that we are not moved by prejudice against foreigners, and that we mete out equal injustice to all, but Signor Baccelli did not dwell upon that feature of the case. He hoped that the American nation would realize that lynching is a custom which is not a credit to an advanced stage of civilization, such as the United States has reached, and that this country would mend its ways.

The opinion of the Marquis of Granby concerning certain English statesmen who would repeal the English bread tax, was expressed in terms which bring to the minds of the older generation the spicy literature of the anti-Corn Law campaign. The Marquis telegraphed to the Leicestershire Chamber of Agriculture, saying: "I should wish meeting to know my strong disappointment at abolition of corn tax, which abolition, if only on ground that tax enlarged basis of taxation, seems to me to approach criminal idiocy." The Marquis, it should be added, was for several years private secretary to Lord Salisbury, whose party is still in power. Mr. Balfour is at present the reigning "criminal idiot." On Friday he received a large deputation of the agricultural interest who came to protest against a repeal of the tax on imported corn, but he declined to entertain their proposal, saying that the tax was never intended to be a protective measure, and that the Government could not make it such by mere silence and non-action. If protection was to be restored as a British policy, it must be done in a broad and open way after debate, and not in a clandestine manner.

Emperor William has once more placed himself upon the side of the military reactionaries within his dominions by accepting the resignation from the army of his brother-in-law, the hereditary Prince of Saxe-Meiningen. The Prince's offence consisted in publishing a remarkably humane order to his army corps, encouraging the private soldier to report ill-treatment on the part of officers, as of non-commissioned officers, guilty of cruelty; and stating that it was not the Emperor's wish that men should suffer in silence. This his Majesty now disavows, bowing before the god Discipline, who might, he thinks, be offended by such a procedure on the part of the men in the ranks. Needless to say, this will be as serious a blow at those who would reform the evils of Prussian militarism as is the Emperor's encouragement of duelling. That there is a terrible amount of persecution in the army admits of no dispute. The powers of an officer are almost absolute. To complain is to subject one's self to insult and additional punishment. In most cases, moreover, brutal non-commissioned officers are upheld by their commissioned superiors—always for the sake of discipline. Because of his wife's eccentricities, the Prince of Saxe-Meiningen has not been in favor at court or with the people. But his retirement and his evident desire to right the wrongs of the oppressed soldiers are certain to give him a novel and, it is to be hoped, lasting popularity.

In 1893 Germany reduced the term of military service for the infantry from three to two years, and the same reduction has been recently made by France and is now contemplated by Austria. Even the German Emperor, with all his love of military pomp and power, admits that the change has not diminished the efficiency of the army in the slightest degree. In fact, the discipline of the soldiers has been thereby greatly improved, the percentage of punishments for insubordination in the infantry having decreased during the last ten years nearly one-half (nine to five), whereas in the cavalry and mounted artillery, who continue to serve three years, there is no perceptible improvement in this respect. Most remarkable, however, is the impulse which the adoption of the two years' military service has given to the development of German industrialism. It is now generally conceded that under the three years' system Germany would never have attained her present prominent position as a manufacturing and commercial nation. It is the recognition of this fact which has led other European Powers to introduce the same reform. The experiment was at first regarded by conservative military authorities as extremely hazardous, and for this reason was to be tried for ten years, *i. e.*, till March 31, 1904; but it has been so successful in every respect that there is now no thought of returning to the old system, but rather a desire to apply the two years' term of service to the entire army.

PROGRESS OF CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

Notwithstanding the postal scandals and other discouragements, the tone of the annual meeting of the New York Civil-Service Reform Association, held last week, was distinctly one of hope and good cheer. Primarily, this was due to conditions in the Federal service. But in its annual review of the progress of the cause, the Association was able to report changes for the better in this State and this city. Six months ago the local situation was very discouraging. Although waited upon by a committee of the Association, to which he promised certain changes in the Municipal Civil-Service Commission, Mayor Low continued in office the seven Commissioners under whose management there had arisen endless delays and embarrassments, hampering the entire reform Administration. This year the Association reports that the work of the local Commission has shown a marked improvement, although little of a constructive character has been accomplished. To have such heads of departments as Dr. Lederle and Gen. Greene on hand to testify to their approval of the principles of the Association was also a gratifying sign of the times.

As far as the State is concerned, the Association found occasion for both praise and blame. Gov. Odell it thinks open to criticism for having signed certain bills of a year ago, and for having too frequently secured the approval of the State Commission in exempting offices from competitive examinations. It must be remembered, however, that many of the exemptions since Gov. Odell's first election have been due to decisions by the courts. If we are correctly informed, he himself is of the opinion that, this considered, his Administration compares very favorably with previous ones in the matter of exemptions. In other respects, the Association states, Gov. Odell has strictly upheld the law, and has shown a readiness to veto bills injurious to the merit system.

But it is in the Federal service that advocates of the merit system the country over find the greatest cause for encouragement, thanks largely to President Roosevelt. Since this graduate of the Civil Service Commission took the Presidential chair, the entire tone of the service itself has been wonderfully improved, until the contrast with its status under the preceding Administration is striking. One of the signs of this is the changed attitude of Congress. For perhaps the first time, the voting of the Civil Service Commission's appropriation was unaccompanied by any of the time-honored attacks upon the "snivel service," in which the Grosvenors have so long delighted. Moreover, Congress doubled the Commission's appropriation, thereby making possible the employment of the clerks it needs, and whom it has hitherto had to borrow from several departments.

Coming to the details of President Roosevelt's work for the civil service, in reorganizing the Commission he has thus far appointed two pronounced advocates of the merit system, Messrs. Foulke and Garfield. The result has been to obtain what is probably the most satisfactory Commission that has thus far held office. He early served notice that the law must be respected and obeyed, by removing prominent officials who had violated it, by accepting forced resignations from some and by declining to reappoint still others. Among these may be mentioned the Surveyor-General of Colorado, the Collectors at El Paso and Louisville, and the Postmaster in Philadelphia. Early in his term President Roosevelt included within the rules 11,800 rural free-delivery postal employees, and 1,800 field employees of the War Department who were excluded by the order of May, 1899. He has established a registration system for the selection of laborers in the Washington departments, and has more recently extended this to the larger outside offices. Moreover, Mr. Roosevelt defeated the plan to foist upon the permanent civil service the great body of temporarily appointed census clerks, and brought about the establishment by Congress of a permanent classified Census Bureau on the same footing as other departments of the Government. The President has also insisted "that not an office should be filled in the Philippines or Porto Rico with any regard to the man's partisan affiliation or service, with any regard to the political, social, or personal influence which he may have at his command."

But this is not all. Soon after taking office, Mr. Roosevelt approved amendments to the rules which restored some of the safeguards removed by President McKinley on May 1, 1899, and only two months ago signed a complete revision of the rules which will establish a general system far in advance of the old one. It does away with the many objectionable features of Mr. McKinley's amendments, and restores many offices to the competitive class. This in itself constitutes one of the greatest steps forward in the history of the movement. Fortunately for the country, Mr. Roosevelt's pledge to follow his predecessor's policy plainly did not include the civil service. In the consular and diplomatic services Mr. Roosevelt has also done well, on the whole, and has readily promoted or transferred to better positions men who have been faithful in less important offices.

It must not be overlooked that, in spite of this and his emphasis upon the merit system in many public utterances, the President has been weak enough to make some very bad appointments. Of these we shall mention merely Byrne of Delaware as Federal District Attorney and "Joe" Murray, Mr. Roosevelt's old "ward heeler" in Assembly days, fastened upon the local Immigration Bureau. The Association also denounced afresh the appointment of James S. Clarkson, and made serious charges against him of absence from his office and of bad selections of subordinates.

COMMISSIONER IDE ON THE PHILIPPINES.

The most interesting statement as to the methods and aims of the Philippine Commission which has appeared since Gov. Taft testified at the time of Senator Lodge's mock inquiry into the affairs of the islands, was made last week by Judge Ide of the Philippine Commission, in an interview published in the *Evening Post*. That the Commissioner should be extremely optimistic was, of course, to be expected. He speaks warmly of the growth of the educational work undertaken in the islands, disregarding President Schurman's scathing criticism of the attempt to force a foreign language upon an alien people. He is able, moreover, to report that the hunting down of ladrones has gone on swimmingly since the duty of ferreting them out has been transferred from the American troops to the Philippine scouts and constabulary. The experiment of setting one race of Filipinos—the native troops are nearly all Maccabebes—against another seems, therefore, to be successful. Judge Ide, moreover, prides himself upon the establishment of courts, comparing "favorably in their general character with those of any State in this Union," and thinks this the greatest achievement of the American Government. He makes the usual plea for the postponement of any action looking to the freeing of the slaves under our flag, or to the stamping out of polygamy among our Mohammedan subjects, although he admits that it is desirable to end slavery as soon as possible. And he is able to state in an interesting way the relative unimportance of the Moro questions as compared with those which concern the Christian Filipino. Upon the financial needs of the people, their sufferings because of the war, the prostration of their agriculture and commerce, the interview barely touches, save to plead for an amelioration of the injustice which compels Philippine products to pay 75 per cent. of the Dingley tariff rates. Best of all, Judge Ide believes in "developing the Filipino rather than the Philippine Islands," and praises the Government employment of many Filipinos in pursuance of this policy.

The striking feature of the interview is, after all, the tribute paid throughout to the character of the Filipino people. They have, Judge Ide says, no fondness

for manual labor, but they are ambitious to enter every trade or profession of the higher grade. They are extraordinarily temperate, far more so than our own people, and have, fortunately enough, not imitated our whiskey-drinking habits. They respect and approve of our American women, while not understanding our social conventions. The individual Filipino makes an excellent citizen, being peaceful, law-abiding, mindful of his own affairs, and considerate of others. The former members of Aguinaldo's Cabinet who now hold office are giving valuable aid. Such success as the Commission has obtained is more probably attributable, Judge Ide thinks, to the policy of utilizing natives than to any other cause. Aglipay, the leader of the new Filipino Church, is reported to be astute and bright, with very considerable executive ability. Finally, Aguinaldo's preëminence is largely due to his remarkable organizing faculty. For a race that has been condemned, by men like Gen. Chaffee, to Anglo-Saxon tutelage for hundreds of years, and which has variously been denounced as barbaric and savage, this is certainly a very remarkable showing.

When Commissioner Ide turns to the future and the question of independence, he declares the time not ripe for such discussions, believing that mere agitation will lead to the formation of "unlawful" conspiracies to encompass that end. But this seems to us not inconsistent with the view that the love of liberty and the desire for nationality are so strong that the mere mention of the subject is likely to inflame the minds of the thoughtful Filipinos, much as Patrick Henry's words fell upon fertile soil throughout the colonies. Judge Ide's counsel of silence and delay we think the counsel of cowardice and compromise. Whatever the effect upon the Filipinos, the United States cannot afford to be in a doubtful attitude about this matter. It owes it to itself and to every ideal and tradition it possesses to announce to all the world its intention to help the Filipinos to a national existence as it has helped Cuba to independence.

The time has come for the nation to search its heart on this question. Are the Filipinos to be mere vassals and subjects, or citizens of the republic, or citizens of their own republic? Are we exploiting the islands for our own profit, or for the benefit of its rightful owners? If the former, it must not be forgotten that, as John Stuart Mill put it, to found a great empire for the sole purpose of raising up a people of consumers, is a project fit not for a nation of shopkeepers, but for a nation whose government is influenced by shopkeepers. To deny the Filipinos light as to their future status now is to repeat the folly of 1898, when Aguinaldo and his officials had no information as to our intentions until the announcement of the Treaty of Paris. Frankness now, with the promise of independence, might act, whatever Judge Ide may say, as a stimulus to good behavior and rapid progress in the art of self-government. When the instinct of nationality is so powerful, it is idle to suppose that partial freedom will seem anything else to the Filipino than the "privilege and prerogative and not liberty" which Burke termed it in one of his appeals for the American colonies.

Commissioner Ide's interview is also unusual in that it is free from any notes of vulgar spoliation or exploitation such as have been heard so often in the debates at Washington. He takes strong ground in defence of the Filipinos against the Chinese. But the very watchword of the "Philippines for the Filipinos," which is in his mind in discussing this question, is what we need to apply ourselves, and, Judge Ide to the contrary, we cannot but believe that the word which the Filipinos should hear oftenest from American lips is independence. There are some words which, spoken in connection with the lives of peoples, have an irresistibly tonic and stimulating effect, and have done more to advance civilization than all the exchanges of the mart. History has yet to record an instance where the spirit of liberty, with a free discussion of its attainment, has done aught but ennoble the people who breathed it.

ABANDONING PROHIBITION.

In New Hampshire's enactment of a local-option license law (under which elections occurred on May 12), following so closely on that of Vermont, may be seen the concluding confession of the error and failure of State prohibition, as a means of dealing with the liquor problem. Of the seventeen States that adopted the idea when it was new and attractive, all but three have now abandoned it. They are Maine, Kansas, and North Dakota, in each of which it is by tacit consent treated as a farce; and the spasm of enforcement just now seen in Maine will have for its probable result, if not its purpose, the repeal of the law.

Next to Maine, Vermont has made the longest trial of prohibition, enacting it just fifty years before the late repeal. New Hampshire enacted it with regard to distilled liquors in 1855, and extended it to beer in 1878. Maine was two years earlier than Vermont, leading off with the experiment in 1851, whence the agitation spread to every State of the North, and left its record on the statute-books of most of them. It was the result of the great moral upheaval of the second quarter of the last century against intemperance, and of the general sweep of "isms" humanitarian which so characterized that era. That it has had its place of usefulness, educational and disciplinary, in our social evolution, is not to be denied. To realize this we have only to compare present conditions of sobriety with those of three generations ago, when liquor drinking was almost universal, and when, according to a report of a citizens' committee in New York in 1817, one inhabitant in eight in this city was living on charity, while of this pauperism seven-eighths was due to intemperance. In the same year a report of the Mayor showed 2,500 grog-shops in a population of about 115,000, or above one to each fifty people.

Prohibition was the first crude effort of an aroused morality to deal with a most difficult and complex problem, but it has now been replaced almost everywhere by local option, constantly growing more carefully restrictive and stringent in supervision, aiming, wherever practicable, to draw the line between that part of the traffic which public safety requires to be prohibited, and that other part which, if evil at all, is too remotely and indirectly so to warrant an interference with individual rights. The fundamental error of State prohibition has been that, for the sake of getting rid of a part, it has sought to sweep away the whole, and yet in so inconsistent a way, by forbidding the sale while admitting the right to purchase liquor, that failure was inevitable under the moral law. In all the history of mankind the only prohibition that has ever come within sight of success is that of Mohammed and Buddhism, which applies to buying and selling alike. "Thou shalt not buy or sell, give or receive any intoxicating drink," is the fifth commandment of the Buddhist Decalogue.

The local-option legislation of the different States is of all degrees of merit, but, generally speaking, it shows a steady and hopeful progress towards a practicable basis. The new Vermont law may fairly be said to reach high-water mark, thus far, in this respect. It goes further in the direction of home rule and home responsibility than has ever been done before. All license fees go, one-half to the local treasury and one-half to the construction of permanent highways throughout the State. More important still, so do all penalties for violation of the law. These are very heavy — from one hundred dollars to three hundred dollars for each offence. Thus a motive, and a powerful one in rural communities, is afforded to every taxpayer to see that the law is obeyed—not only that there shall be no unlicensed selling, but that there shall be no violation of the restrictions of the law. Then, to make the motive operative for good, every policeman, sheriff, and constable must "report forthwith," under penalty of $200 fine, to the License Board—which has charge of the business in each town and city—"any violation brought to his attention." Moreover, he must periodically appear

before the Board, and on oath, under the full penalties of perjury, state in detail "whether he has observed any indications or received any information tending to show" any violations. The License Board must then, under penalty of $500, follow up such information, investigate, and prosecute every complaint, if well founded, and if not, report at the annual meeting the reasons for non-action in every case. The Madisonian recipe for law-making, "to mark with precision the duty to be done and to diminish the discretion that is liable to be abused," seems here to be well followed.

Every licensee is placed under three thousand-dollar bonds, not from surety companies, but from two townsmen whose liability extends to any action for civil damage; and to further guard against ownership of the retail traffic by breweries or distilleries, it is provided that no person "directly or indirectly engaged in the liquor traffic" shall be accepted on any bond, nor shall one person be accepted on more than one bond.

With all these and other safeguards to prevent any but reputable men getting licenses—especially necessary in a State where the long reign of prohibition has tended to drive the traffic to men of the blackleg class—there is a further limitation of the number of licenses by population. They are one for each thousand, which is only sufficient for the hotels and bona-fide restaurants and an occasional drug store for trade in bottled goods, not leaving room for a dozen mere saloons in the whole State. For towns that vote "no license," there is provision for a purely medicinal drug-store license, to sell only on a physician's prescription, with restrictions somewhat like those of the Kansas law, but far more effective and assured of proof in case of violation. For this, the penalty is business ruin for the offending druggist.

These are only a few of the interesting and instructive features of the new Vermont law. In Massachusetts, whose law has hitherto been recognized as the best-devised and best-guarded of the local-option statutes, all available data indicate an average improvement of 25 to 33 per cent. as compared with State prohibition. But the Vermont law represents such an advance over that of Massachusetts that we may expect the rum evil to be reduced by a full half from what it has been under nominal "prohibition."

ENGLISH PARTY PROSPECTS.

Mr. Chamberlain's speech at Birmingham, if not a direct contradiction of Mr. Balfour's, is an evident bid for the Premiership based upon a change of British policy in reference to free trade. Although Mr. Balfour had not denied that some changes might be advisable, he indicated the purpose of the Government to proceed with deliberation and not to run ahead of public opinion. Now his Colonial Secretary clears the fence at one bound, assuming evidently that he is the real leader, and that the party will follow him. For this exploit he chooses a time when the Balfour Ministry is weakened by serious defections, and when Mr. Balfour himself shows signs of weariness. Mr. Chamberlain's speech may prove captivating to the masses who do not see very far below the surface. He deals in stock phrases. He talks of binding the empire together and repelling foreign dictation and "cultivating the trade of our own people," but he does not descend to details. A year or more ago, Sir Robert Giffen invited attention to the details of the proposed new policy in reference to colonial trade, and riddled it so completely that nobody has even attempted to answer him. Sir Robert's summing up was, in substance, that the preferential policy was a scheme to throw away, or put in jeopardy, three hundred millions of trade in order to win thirty millions.

The political sensation caused by Mr Chamberlain's speech on Friday is largely due to the fact that it was so timed as to hit a political crisis—or something very like one. That Mr. Balfour's Government has been on the down grade for some months is beyond question. The Conservatives themselves admit it. The evidence lies not alone in the bye-elections. These have been, however, extremely significant of the swing of the pendulum away from the Conservatives. In twelve constituencies where, in 1900, they had a total majority of 20,002 votes, in the bye-elections they have been left in a minority of 3,496. Obviously, that ratio of loss in a general election would sink the party.

Even plainer signs of the waning fortunes of the Ministry have not been lacking. There are such things as the indefinable prestige of a Cabinet and the unwritten authority of the Prime Minister, both of which have been seriously undermined during recent weeks. Mr. Balfour is not a masterful man. He has marked personal charm and an intellect at once subtle and powerful. Everybody likes him, but nobody is ready to follow him through thick and thin. His very lucidity and detachment of mind seem to unfit him for the position of party leader. He has not those rough-and-ready methods, those hot and surging convictions (or the appearance of them), which are demanded in the chief of a great political organization. Had Mr. Balfour been an imperious man like Gladstone, or a strongly haughty one like Lord Salisbury, he would never have tolerated those party revolts and that occasional insubordination of even a colleague, which the present Prime Minister has meekly suffered. The formation of a vigorous and daring Fourth Party within the Conservative ranks; the several unhappy instances of vacillation or misjudgment in foreign affairs, which can be laid to the charge of the Government; the hostile electoral tide running against the Ministry in the bye-elections—all have combined to shake Mr. Balfour's position rudely. Now comes Mr. Chamberlain's speech.

In effect, it raises a standard of disaffection. Nothing is more likely, to be sure, than that statements or letters will presently appear showing how completely in harmony are Mr. Balfour and his formidable colleague. Chamberlain is an adept in disavowing popular impressions of his speeches or activities. But the fact remains that he has skilfully chosen his occasion to convince the country that he is the one strong man in the Cabinet who knows his own mind and never hesitates. Almost at the moment when the Prime Minister was delicately balancing the pros and cons of protective taxes, the Colonial Secretary was boldly striking out for himself and his party a new policy, shrewdly designed to take advantage of Conservative discontents, and, at the same time, to fall in with the popular tendency to do and sacrifice everything for great Imperial interests. The average sense of England will arrive at the conclusion, no matter what Mr. Chamberlain's disclaimers may be, that he has offered himself as the real man with the real policy for the hour.

Mr. Balfour will not be the first Premier to suffer from having too powerful a subordinate. If a Cabinet is not to be made up wholly of what have been called "ornamental phantoms," this danger must always exist. Palmerston and Gladstone were never comfortable Cabinet-mates. The latter said that he seldom went to a Cabinet meeting without taking the precaution to carry his resignation in his pocket. On the other hand, Palmerston declared that he had a whole drawerful of Gladstone's resignations, which had been either refused or recalled. But Mr. Balfour is too winning and hesitant a personality to assert himselm as "Old Pam" did. His health is not robust enough, and his taste is too fastidious, for the arduous labors of his office. Nature seems to have designed him for the House of Lords. Exchanging persiflage there with Lord Rosebery would seem to be a more congenial rôle for him than to be having to deal with the sappers and miners in his own Cabinet. At any rate, more and more people in England will now expect him, sooner or later, to make for that harbor of refuge, leaving the leadership of the Conservative party to that whilom Radical, Joseph Chamberlain.

That the latter is an exceedingly adroit and ready man, dowered with great political courage, too, or the plausible semblance of it, no fair-minded student of his career can deny. But his course has justified, in many respects, Mr. Gladstone's early characterization of him as the nearest approach to an American politician yet produced by English

public life. What he meant was doubtless that keen instinct for the feelings and desires of a democracy, with a capacity for evolving large and showy programmes, which Mr. Chamberlain has so often displayed. For a man of his type, it matters little that his plans fail when the pinch of legislation comes. He always has another just as good. Mr. Chamberlain's scheme of Old Age Pensions came to nothing; his Colonial Conference was a practical failure; and there is no sound reason for believing that his project of an all-British preferential trade can be enacted into law. But that is not necessary for his purposes. He has appealed to the national imagination in a very striking way. He has caught the fancy of the hour. The result will be, almost certainly, to make him chief of the Conservative party. That, as such, or even as Prime Minister of England, he will succeed in reversing the historical fiscal policy of England, we do not believe. The facts, the laws of trade, will be too strong even for his alert and flexible understanding and wonderful political skill.

THE RIGHTS OF DIALECTS.

There is a suggestion of pathetic irony in the publication of a project for the official sanctioning and preserving of local dialects in France, at the very time when the converging forces of centralization in that country seem to be culminating in a supreme effort. In a pamphlet entitled 'Pétition pour les Langues Provinciales,' which revives pretensions originally advanced in 1870 but silenced by the outbreak of the Franco-German war, Prof. Henri Gaidoz contends that such dialects, while forming as it were a centre of accretion for provincial or cantonal sentiment, are nevertheless compatible with homogeneity of national life; administrative endeavors towards unification of speech may consequently be regarded as infringements on natural rights, entailing at the same time irreparable loss of material for students of popular literature, folklore, and philology. The plea is therefore urged that in such a region as Brittany, where a population of more than thirteen hundred thousand cling tenaciously to their ancient Celtic tongue, the use of Breton, if only as a vehicle of explanation, becomes all but imperative in primary schools frequented by children totally ignorant of French; and like conditions apply equally well in Provence and elsewhere. To institutions of higher learning should be entrusted the function of cultivating such rich stores of literature and philology through the work of special chairs.

It is the fatal defect of compressed argumentation of this character that all its question-begging is at once laid bare. The plausibility of Professor Gaidoz's pleadings rests in acceptance of his disputable postulates, and in prudent waiving of the very points that give vitality to such discussion in any country where difference in speech involves differences of religious and political views. To treat these as negligible *questions de clocher* is to simplify the problem into blank unreality. The very cases cited in support of the central position differ so fundamentally from Brittany (for which the whole pamphlet is an undisguised contention, and naturally, as proceeding from the chair of Celtic philology), that no valid analogy exists in the appeal. Toleration, in the British Isles, of Celtic or other local dialects nowhere involves their recognition in any broad official sense. The use of them is a private family luxury similar to convenient bilingualism in the educated. In Switzerland, the existence, side by side and in refreshing amity, of French, German, and Italian depends on that historic tradition of cantonal self-government which only long experience has fused into harmony with the idea of a fully developed and coherent national life. The one instance, conspicuously unnoticed by the pleader, of the natural linguistic divisions in Italy offering some resemblance to France, stands out in strong opposition, since the unification of young Italy derives a generous share of its strength from the fact that, between the Alps and the southern coast of Sicily, the "Illustrious Vulgar Tongue" is to-day at least generally understood, even in remote hamlets, and that chiefly through the work of the newspaper and the common school. That Spain has granted to her Basque provinces the use of their own strange idiom as a political language, and that the Catalan dialect may yet be heard in the *Ayuntamiento* of Barcelona, are among the most patent signs of the truth contained in the popular Iberian saying which makes of every Spaniard a political faction in himself. The particularism of the various components of the Austrian Empire, largely the result of mutual unintelligibility, is too familiar to be dwelt on. If Professor Gaidoz had chosen to glance across the Atlantic at our immediate neighbors to the north, he would have discovered that resolute and systematic preservation of a distinct speech in a distinct province has formed one, at least, of the most constant obstacles to the development of the organic national idea which the Fathers of Confederation had in view.

It would, however, be both arbitrary and dogmatic to insist that a difference of language is alone sufficient to sunder a truly united people, or to stay a healthy growth. The case of Switzerland, already mentioned, discloses the strange phenomenon of an *entente* in certain vital respects more completely cordial between cantons divided by speech but one in faith, than between cantons using the same tongue and following different creeds; for the trifling inconvenience of an occasional failure to understand is no such ground of division as a radical impossibility of agreement over questions that touch all the profounder relations of the individual to the State, and of both to the Church. Belgian unity of national feeling, here described in the phrase "une vraie nation de frères," is for the most part undisturbed by active religious dissent; and yet the linguistic areas of French, Flemish, and Walloon remain virtually unaltered. The unfortunate element in the pleading of Professor Gaidoz consists in its urging the claims for recognition of a local dialect associated for more than a century with conditions unacceptable to the general spirit of modern France; it is needless to insist on facts of history here so obviously blinked.

RUSSIAN RIGHTS IN MANTCHURIA.

OBERLIN, May 11, 1903.

The prevailing comments upon Russia's movements in Mantchuria seem largely to be based upon a misunderstanding of the facts. In the first place, the unmeasured condemnation of Russian action fails to take into account the difference in the relations between China and Russia and those with other European Powers. For three hundred years Russia has had to live next-door neighbor to China. Along a border of three thousand miles she has been compelled to keep peace with China, and to prevent her citizens from infringing on Chinese rights; whereas the other European Powers are simply interlopers, forcing themselves upon China from the outside by reason of their maritime supremacy. The whole attitude of European Powers toward China is one of supreme selfishness. None of them can claim disinterested motives for what they are doing. Nothing worse than this can be said of the motives actuating the Russian Government. But the proximity of the two countries to each other lays upon Russia special responsibilities, and subjects her to various exigencies different from any that can arise with the other European Governments in their relations to China. It is important, therefore, in this connection, briefly to review Russia's relations to China.

During the seventeenth century there was a long contest between Russia and China for the possession of the valley of the Amur. In many respects this was much like that between the French and the English for the valley of the Mississippi. This contest ended in the Treaty of Nertchinsk, in 1689, in which the Russians yielded their claims, and left China in full possession of the Amur Valley. Notwithstanding the great inconvenience to Russian interests, Russia continued to observe this treaty with remarkable fidelity for one hundred and seventy-five years. Meanwhile, overland trade with China, in proportions that are scarcely realized by the outside world, was continually kept up over the caravan route from Kalgan to Kiakhta, and over the more western route from Su-chau to Semipalatinsk.

Upon the breaking out of the Crimean

war in 1854, it became evident that all the Russian interests on the Pacific Coast were in jeopardy. It was impossible to get reinforcements into that field without the use of the Amur River, and the exigency was such that Muravieff, who was the Governor of East Siberia, obtained permission from the central Government to deal directly with China. This he did, first asking permission to go down the Amur River with the troops that he had raised in Transbaikalia, and then going down before there was time for the answer to be obtained. But there was no interference with Chinese rights. There was, however, the discovery that the Chinese were doing nothing for the development of the country, and that there were no Chinese upon the north side of the river and very few upon the south.

The next year there was the same necessity for sending fresh reinforcements down the river. This time, to secure safety, Muravieff established various Cossack colonies upon the north side to facilitate his return. The results are well known. Russia was entirely successful. The allies were ignominiously defeated upon the Pacific Coast, while the discovery of the unsettled condition of the country north of the Amur River led to a proposition from Muravieff that all that territory, together with that east of Ussuri down to the present site of Vladivostok, be ceded to Russia. One ground upon which this proposition was pressed was that, in the Treaty of Nertchinsk, the commissioners had been overawed by the presence of Chinese troops, while, as already said, the existing condition of things showed that China had no real interest in the country, so that the Russians were entitled to it by the "right of discovery" about as much as civilized countries are to their colonial possessions in general. At any rate, without bloodshed and without serious opposition, by the Treaty of Aigun, in 1858, this whole region was ceded to Russia; but the right of navigating the river was secured to Russia and China alone.

No sooner did Russia come into possession of this territory than a vast tide of immigration of Russian peasants began to set in, so that now there is in the region about half a million of Russian settlers with all the appliances of Western civilization. In the city of Blagovestchensk one will find a creditable museum, well-equipped hospitals, ample churches, and literary and musical societies comparing favorably with those in any city in the United States of less than 100,000 inhabitants. Just before I was there in the summer of 1900, a local society had rendered with great success Saint-Saëns's "Samson and Delilah."

In general it may be said that the Russians have been scrupulous in their regard for Chinese rights, and that they have in almost every way manifested an extreme desire to keep on good terms with the Chinese. For example, though by this treaty they had the right to navigate the Sungari River, penetrating Mantchuria, they never exercised the right, because of the popular opposition to it. It is well to remark, also, that the statement frequently made that Russia never withdraws her foot from territory which she has once occupied is shown to be incorrect, not only by the long withdrawal from the Amur after the Treaty of Nertchinsk, but by two other events which occurred during the latter part of the last century. One of these was her withdrawing from America on the sale of Alaska to the United States. The other instance occurred in her relations to China connected with the Russian occupation of western Turkestan. In 1871 Kuldja, one of the most flourishing Chinese provinces south of Lake Balkash, was occupied by the Russians for the purpose of putting an end to the pandemonium that existed on her borders, which the Chinese were unable to suppress. But, desiring to keep on friendly terms with China, Russia assured her, as she is now doing with reference to Mantchuria, that the province would be restored as soon as the Chinese were able to take bona-fide possession of it and maintain order. After ten years, on the fulfilment of these conditions, the province was restored and Russian troops were permanently withdrawn.

Russia's present rights and duties in Mantchuria cannot be understood independently of the history of the past eight years. However much Japan may have been wronged in the matter, Russia came into the possession of Port Arthur by the consent of the other European Powers, when the Germans had no scruples in seizing Kiao-chau on the Shantung Peninsula, and the English Wei-hai-wei. Then, under the provisions of the Treaty of Peking, in 1895, came the permission to build the Chinese Eastern Railroad, securing a direct line from Transbaikalia to Vladivostok and a branch line from Harbin southward via Newchwang to Port Arthur. This treaty was obtained by as legitimate a method as that by which we have obtained the right to that providing for the Panama Canal. According to the provisions of the treaty, and in view of rights in the road granted to the Chinese Government, the Chinese pledged themselves to furnish one-half the military protection. With these encouragements, a company under the patronage of the Russian Government, which guaranteed their bonds, undertook the building of the road, and pushed the work along with such phenomenal rapidity that, by the close of 1900, it would have been opened for traffic but for the interruption of the Boxer revolution. Hundreds of millions of rubles had been spent upon the enterprise, and everything was moving along without friction, and without serious protest from other Governments. The Russians had implicit confidence in the good faith of the Chinese to carry out the provisions of the Treaty of Peking. The lives of the great numbers of the engineers and their families engaged in the construction of the road, and all the vast property which had been created along the line, were completely at the mercy of the Chinese. Small squads of Cossacks alternating with similar bodies of Chinese soldiers supplied all the military protection that was afforded for the road when it was approaching completion in the summer of 1900. The city of Blagovestchensk upon the Amur was completely denuded of its Russian guard—the whole body with their artillery and ammunition having been sent forward to the centre of the disturbance about Peking.

Then came the revolution which changed the entire condition of things. Without a moment's warning, the Chinese by imperial order turned against the Russians, did their utmost to kill all the foreigners along the line of the railroad, and destroyed everything upon which they could lay their hands. They began at once and without warning to fire from the Chinese side upon the steamers plying upon the Amur River. They crossed the river and captured and destroyed such Russian villages as they were able to do; and began a formidable bombardment of the defenceless city of Blagovestchensk. On my way up the Amur River to this city, where we arrived two days after the siege began, two gayly dressed mandarins boarded our steamer, where they were put under arrest and their baggage was searched. They were found to be loaded with proclamations from the central Government for an uprising to destroy all foreigners, and were provided with plans for the capture of the city.

I wish to repeat here what I have said before, but what has failed to make the impression it ought to make, that the seeming atrocities connected with the driving out of the Chinese from the north side of the river, and especially from Blagovestchensk, immediately following these events, are to be attributed to the casualties of war that could not be provided against. The Russians had no troops in the locality for the regular protection of their interests. What was done was from the impulse of the moment, under the stress of a terror such as befalls a frontier settlement when savages suddenly break loose upon them. If they had had troops in Blagovestchensk they could have proceeded in a more regular way; but, being without troops, self-protection demanded that the Chinese, who had so suddenly transformed themselves into enemies, should all be driven over on to the other side of the river. I will not again go into particulars, but will simply reiterate that the Russians made a bona-fide attempt to give the Chinese safe passage from Blagovestchensk to the other side. The correct statements of these facts you will find, not only in my letter in your columns for September 27, 1900, but in the London *Illustrated News* for September 1, 1900, from the pen of Capt. Smith-Dorrien, a distinguished English commander, who was with me through all those harrowing events.

In this condition of things it follows, as a matter of course, that Russia must send troops into Mantchuria to reclaim the railroad and carry out for herself the provisions of the treaty for securing its protection. From that time to this the preservation of order has demanded their presence. Nor can they be withdrawn with safety until China has shown herself able to preserve order and gives ample assurance for the future. The revolution of 1900 has changed the conditions, so that it may not be possible ever to get back to the former status and protect all the interests that have arisen under the operations of the treaty.

Russia's interest in the region, therefore, differs from those of all other European Powers. Japan, by reason of her contiguity, has most reason to feel aggrieved by the Russian occupation. Under the pressure of political necessity, it will not be surprising if she speedily resorts to desperate measures to regain the position which was lost when she was forced to cede Port Arthur to Russia. But the Russian position is already impregnable, and in the long run her interests are not likely to

be antagonistic to the just rights of other European Powers or of America—if, indeed, the various demands made upon China by the civilized nations can be called rights.

So far as the matter of trade is concerned, I may illustrate by my own experience. When we went out on the construction train from Port Arthur, we were drawn by a Baldwin locomotive running over rails which were made in Baltimore laid on ties shipped from Oregon. At Harbin we counted the names of fifteen American manufacturing firms that had supplied material to the railroad shops. Within a few weeks I have had a letter from one of the most prominent Russian engineers, whose hospitality I shared, saying that since the railroad was completed he had remained to build a steam grist mill, and that he desired to be put in communication with an American firm that could supply him with the needed machinery. Going farther west, at Verkhni Udinsk I met twenty-eight carloads of American machinery being transferred to boats to be taken farther into the interior. In Tashkent I found one of the largest stores devoted entirely to the sale of American machinery; while going up the Irtysh River I saw a team of camels walking briskly along with an American mowing machine behind them. The extension of Western civilization into the unsettled portions of Mantchuria (which constitute two-thirds of the country) would create demands for commerce from which only our own folly or shortsightedness can debar us of our share.

Looking at the whole subject from the broad interests of humanity, one can not well wish to debar the vast Russian population which is filling up eastern Siberia from a readier access than it has had heretofore to an open port upon the Pacific. It is a strange phenomenon in this enlightened century to hear so many complain, as we do, that Russia is trying to secure these ends not by war, but by "diplomacy" and by "biding her time." The reason why she can attain these ends by these means lies in the fact that the Fates are working for her. The natural and legitimate growth of the country is making the accomplishment of this object inevitable, and, so far as we can see, it will be a blessing to the immediate region over which she is bound to extend her control, and probably a boon to all mankind. G. Frederick Wright.

DUTCH ART AT THE GUILDHALL.

London, April 28, 1903.

The exhibition at the Guildhall has now become one of the most important events of this busy season of big art exhibitions in London. It has opened this year simultaneously with the New Gallery, which simply cannot compete with it in interest. Of course, the aims and scope of the two shows are wholly different. To the New Gallery, as to the Royal Academy, artists send the work they have just done; at the Guildhall, a loan collection, representing one man, or one school, or one country, is hung. If this loan collection of pictures, many of which are already exhibited, proves the more important, it is because the managers of the New Gallery, instead of securing the finest examples of the best artists of to-day who do not send to the Academy, are content with commonplace. At the Guildhall, while commonplace has crept in, while it even, as I shall explain, prevails in one section, it has at least some sort of suggestive value in the historical sequence.

Primarily, the show is one of work by earlier and modern painters of the Dutch school. It is a large subject for comparatively small space, especially as the largest room in the Guildhall gallery is given over to an entirely separate collection. The earlier masters have suffered the most. As far as they are concerned, more could easily have been made of the limited opportunity. For when so little could be shown, it seems to me that this little should have consisted of one or more masterpieces by each of the great masters, instead of a few fine paintings and many inferior works of interest to nobody but the dealer in attributions. There are pictures by Frans Hals and Rembrandt that one need not be a Morellian to refuse to those painters, who, surely, would turn in their graves could they know that such performances were being foisted upon them. But then there is also one fine portrait by each that the artist and the art lover would travel many miles to see. "Admiral De Ruyter," by Hals, lent by Earl Spencer, is a strong study of strong character. It is a three-quarter length, the figure posed with as much feeling for the commanding force of the man as for its place on the canvas, the face broadly modelled, and the costume of black, with full white sleeves and a white collar, put in with the technical freedom that makes Hals seem so very modern—yet what modern could be quite so supremely skilful? You feel the strength of a man born to lead and to conquer in this portrait by the Dutch master, even as you do in the Admiral by Velasquez. Rembrandt's portrait of his son Titus, as a youth of thirteen, lent by a French collector who calls himself Monsieur X., has been seen in recent years at the Rembrandt shows in Amsterdam and London, and needs no description. But to see it again is to feel again the beauty of the face and the splendor of the color.

Perhaps it is because these two pictures give the standard of Dutch art in the past that so much else of the old work strikes one as trivial and insignificant. But there are still a few other fine things. From the same French collection comes a Ver Meer that I have never seen before anywhere, "The Cook Asleep." It is one of the usual simple Dutch gray interiors, almost bare of incident, save for a map on the wall, the rich cover of the table upon which a plate of fruit, a flagon, and a bottle are set, and the woman who sits sleeping in a corner. At the back of the room, a door opens into another apartment as quiet and gray and bare. But it all has the beauty of tone, the complete pictorial unity, by which Ver Meer and one or two other of the old Dutchmen could transform the most prosaic scene or subject with something as poetic as any Parnassus or Paradise imagined by the Italian painter. The way the black rod of the map tells against the gray wall, and the quality of that wall, the detail in the cover and the fruit, the beautiful painting of the head, so well enveloped in atmosphere, retaining so perfectly its relation to the gray background from which it is so tenderly detached—these are things worth all the thought and meaning with which the old masters of symbolism are supposed to have crowded their pictures, while they give to their painting as a whole as much dignity and solemnity as if the cook sleeping in her corner were the Madonna on her throne.

Two little portraits of women attributed to Terburg should offer a chance to the Morellian, but, however he decides, there can be no question of the charm of a silken skirt in one, of a white cap with wonderful little touches of gold in the other. And there is also a noble landscape, "Le Commencement d'orage," long catalogued and even engraved in the last century as a Rembrandt, but now presented to De Koninck by the critics, who are unanimously generous in determining that the lesser painter should not be robbed of his one masterpiece in favor of the great master who can so well spare it. There are pictures by De Koninck in the National Gallery, as well as at Amsterdam, and doubtless in most other national collections where Dutch pictures are so many as to seem at a discount; but I confess they have left with me the vaguest impression. It may be that this one splendid exception—if it is really his work, as I leave it to the critics to decide—was painted immediately under the supervision of Rembrandt, whose pupil he was. In any case, its impressiveness cannot be denied. A wide, flat, brown country, through which a stream wanders toward the sea, lies in sombre but warm shadow under a sky, spacious and cloud-swept, that must have made Jacob Maris despair if he ever saw the picture, which is now in the possession of Lady Wantage. There is plenty of pictorial incident—a windmill, a group of red-roofed cottages, figures, a town, a many-arched bridge. But the details are so harmoniously subordinated that the effect of the landscape as a whole is retained no less completely than if the country were empty as one of Pointelin's barren moorlands. Though there are a few pictures besides—notably one by Palamedes, usually a second-rate painter, of a lady at a harpsichord—that might be mentioned among the exceptions, these certainly are the works that give most distinction to the room devoted to the earlier Dutch painters.

When it comes to the modern painters—and there is no link between them and the giants of the seventeenth century—the chief merit to me seems to be in the unusually large and representative series of paintings by Matthys Maris, an artist who now rarely exhibits—who, for that matter, now rarely produces. Many of his most beautiful pictures, done before he became a slave to his ideals, belong to English and Scotch collectors, and I have seen individual examples every now and then in other loan exhibitions. But never, to my knowledge, have such a number been hung together. There is, therefore, an admirable chance to study his methods and his achievement. I cannot say that the collection alters the opinion I had already formed; to me there is still no question that he was most accomplished when he was least vague and elusive. It may be that he is now busy in pursuit of far higher ideals, but if these elude him so persistently just as he endeavors to realize them on his canvas, it cannot be marvelled that in his halting expression of them they should escape us altogether. Perhaps this is the reason he now finishes so

little. There is only one of his most recent pictures here—not a picture really, but the "Study" the catalogue calls it—which I remember having seen two or three years ago in the little Dutch Gallery. That he meant to express something charming in the two figures dimly discerned through a mist of paint there can be no doubt, but exactly what it was you wonder if he himself could say. Yet, all this elusiveness, all this vagueness, is based upon a technical precision, a minuteness in detail, that might have served as model for the English Pre-Raphaelites. A small study of "Still Life" is shown, a painting of carrots and cabbages placed against a brass plaque in the approved Dutch manner, in which, as in the Ver Meer in the adjoining room, the only beauty the painter has sought to record is the beauty of tone and color, and the only means he has used a literal and faithful copying of the objects before him. According to the catalogue, this was painted in 1872—his finest period, for to it belong also the lovely little "Four Mills," the "Montmartre," and the "Outskirts of a Town," all three full of the most careful detail, all three as poetical portraits of places as have ever been painted. There is no vagueness here, either in his manner of seeing and feeling or in his endeavor to make us see and feel with him. And if you take the last of these three, a gray town by a gray river bank on a gray winter evening, and study it carefully, you must be simply amazed at the ingenious design: the arrangement of long parallel lines in the sad pale walls, the sadder river, and the melancholy sky with the bare trees silhouetted against it; the rhythmical way in which the one tower rises above the houses at once to break and concentrate the composition; the value of the little green patches on the desolate river bank. Matthys Maris never did anything more impressive and exquisite. But in many of the pictures that followed (and a number are included in the present series), you begin to be conscious of the vagueness, the mist which was later to envelop design and detail, in which, indeed, they have now lost themselves altogether.

It must be confessed that much of the work of Jacob Maris seems in comparison only a brilliant technical exercise. He was more the artist, less the conjuror, with the brush, when he was still under the influence of his brother Matthys, and painted such sober, quiet little pictures as the well-known "Peacock Feather," "Birdcage," and "Shrine"; also marvels of minuteness and fine reticent color. But in later years he painted too much. He gained in breadth without ever tumbling into the pitfall of vagueness; but his brown towns, his blue milkpails, even his big lowering skies came to have in them something of a trick, a convention. However, when he did not dash them off according to recipe, when he studied his Holland with sympathy or made you feel that he did, he could be very stately and dignified, and the large "River and Windmills" and "Gathering Seaweed," the small "Souvenir of Dordrecht" and "A Small Bit of Delft," show him at his very best. Israels, likewise, has been the victim of over-production, the tool of his sentimental public. His pathos, too, has gradually become a matter of recipe, and more often than not degenerates into sheer mawkishness and sham. As Mr. Henley puts it, "his appeal is all too obvious. He makes no secret of his design upon your tears." And the result is that, when you see a long succession of his fishermen and fishwives at home and at work, as you do at the Guildhall (Mr. Staats Forbes and other British collectors having emptied their walls that his representation may be complete), you are tempted with Mr. Henley to receive his pathos with scoffs and sneers. But he can paint when he chooses, and there is pathos of the right sort—the painter's pathos—in the quality he gets in a simple cottage wall, or in the tiles about the chimney, the pots and plates on the mantel above, or in the glimpse of a quiet, gray Dutch landscape through a white-curtained window. And here are some of his most genuine performances—the "Sewing School at Katwyk," the "Ray of Sunshine," "In the Surf," and a few others that would seem still more accomplished were it not for the innumerable repetitions by himself and his followers.

Willem Maris, the least distinguished of the three brothers, is not seen to advantage. Mauve fares better, and many of the landscapes, and studies, and animals by him justify a reputation that has suffered at the hands of the dealers. Where the exhibition is lamentably weak is in the poor showing it makes of men like Breitner and Witsen, hanging only one example of the first, only two of the latter, though every one who has been to the museum of modern work in Amsterdam knows what a vigorous and very personal painter he is. Bauer fares no better, though he also deserves greater consideration. Van Toorop is ignored altogether. Nor is there anything to suggest that admirable black-and-white work is being done to-day in Holland. The omissions are many and serious, but there still remains much that is fine and interesting, and no American coming to London this spring and summer should miss a visit to the Guildhall.

I have referred to a quite separate collection that fills the largest room and has nothing whatever to do with the Dutch work. It is a collection of pictures lately bequeathed to the Corporation of London by a Mr. Gassiot, described as "Citizen and Vintner." He collected, it is evident, during the second half of the Victorian era, when the Royal Academy gave the standard, when the Royal Academy was rich in Friths and Faeds, Leaders, and the later story-telling Millais. By a curious chance there is no accounting for, the ideal being what it was, a few good pictures did somehow find a place. But the collection, as a whole, represents a fashion in these matters that, fortunately, has passed or is passing. It is annoying now to see it taking up space that might have been used so much more profitably; but its presence in the Guildhall at the present moment has at least one use: it proves, eloquently enough, how entirely the standards of art have changed in Great Britain —and changed for the better. While the late Mr. Gassiot was collecting his pictures, the very word Romanticism meant revolution and anarchy to the average British picture-buyer. I have quoted Mr. Henley. Within the year he has republished in book form the criticism he wrote, not more than a dozen years ago, of the Romanticists, French and Dutch, and he has found it necessary to explain in his preface that the praise which is the commonplace of to-day, at the time of writing sounded singular and violent. And so now, it is the most natural thing in the world that the treasures of the British collector should be the works of the Romanticists, and that these should be in demand for popular exhibitions, while the old Academical masterpieces, beloved by the late Mr. Gassiot and his generation, appear as old-fashioned as the really great work of art never can and never does. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS SERIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to offer some explanations in regard to certain points brought out in the excellent review which appeared in your columns, April 30, of the historical series entitled 'The Philippine Islands—1493-1803.' As was stated in the prospectus of the work, the list of documents to be published was necessarily only a partial one; it included the classics of printed Philippine historical literature, supplemented by such manuscript material from foreign archives as belonged to the early period which ended about 1640. It is obvious that, in so extensive a series, new material must continually be found, as a result of investigations in so many libraries and archives; and that it is impossible to enumerate all the documents at the start. In the period above mentioned, commerce and missions are naturally the predominant subjects, but other aspects of Philippine history are by no means forgotten or slighted in our plans; they will duly appear in their natural development or sequence. One of the editors, Mr. James A. Robertson, is at this time in Seville, Spain, engaged in researches for material to be used in this work among the manuscripts collected in the great Archivo de Indias. He will also visit the libraries and archives of Madrid, Simancas, Rome, Paris, London, and other cities for the same purpose; and we are making arrangements for similar investigations in Manila and Mexico. We desire to make our selection of documents as broad and representative as possible, but the enormous mass of documentary and printed material for Philippine history, and the limitations imposed by necessity on the space available for publication, render the task of selection one of great difficulty, and we shall be compelled to omit many documents which are valuable and interesting, because we cannot find room for them. For this same reason we have found it necessary to halt at the beginning of the nineteenth century; the documents of that century alone could easily fill a long series of volumes, and we are limited to only fifty-five.

A few words as to our editorial attitude. In both the selection and the presentation of material our aim is historical accuracy, entire freedom from partisan or sectarian considerations, and fairness toward all classes and interests. Our readers need not fear either a pro-friar or an anti-friar attitude on our part; we shall simply fur-

nish the most important and valuable documents that we can secure, and those most truthful and authentic, for the purpose of tracing the course of Philippine history. Others may engage in controversies; our effort and hope are only to furnish some light by which disputed points may be made clear and the truth made known.

Both of the editors were engaged in similar work on the Cleveland reissue of the 'Jesuit Relations;' and to our publisher, Mr. Arthur H. Clark, was due (as is well known to many persons) the original idea of that important historical enterprise, and the successful conduct of its publication. The notably impartial and fair attitude of that work will therefore be continued and assured in the conduct of the present series. EMMA HELEN BLAIR,

Editor of 'The Philippine Islands.'

STATE HISTORICAL LIBRARY,
MADISON, WIS., May 13, 1903.

NOT SO BLACK AS PAINTED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A rainy day in our Ozark camp induces me to write a protest against your designation of St. Louis as the most corrupt and one of the hottest cities, as alleged in your issue of May 7. I question whether any city of its size has less corruption; not a breath of scandal has ever been heard of in connection with the large city departments, in charge of appointive and professional officials. Even during the late Ziegenhein régime, the Sewer Commissioner, the Water Department, the Park Commissioner were all of the highest repute. Furthermore, our Public School Board, with its immense revenues and responsibilities, has for years been made up of the very best representative citizens, and its affairs so conducted that even the critical editor of the *Nation* would have only words of praise. The corruption to which St. Louis owes its notoriety is almost exclusively confined to the lower house of the municipal assembly, which is elected by wards, controlled by bosses who are much the same in St. Louis as in New York and elsewhere.

Regarding climate, I wish to state that, taking the average of the entire year into consideration, St. Louis will compare very favorably with any other either here or abroad. From October 1 to almost Christmas our Indian summer gives us a nearly unbroken sequence of ideal days; after a short winter, we have three or four spring months almost equalling the fall. The excessive hot weather in summer usually lasts only a few weeks, and, owing to the lack of humidity, the heat is not as unbearable as a much lower temperature in Boston or New York. The writer has spent five or six years abroad at various times, but knows of no better place for a continual residence; finer climatic conditions can doubtless be found by spending the winter on the Riviera, the summer in Norway, spring in California, and autumn in the Adirondacks. Such a composite climate is not given to any one place; and it is doubtless true that a New Englander dropping in on us during our hot spell with the thermometer hovering around 105, would not care much for our average climate.—Very truly yours.

J. M. WULFING.

STONE MILL SPRING, May 10, 1903.

LYNCHING AND COLONEL LYNCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a letter published in your issue of December 4, 1902, in which Mr. Albert Matthews ably discusses the early history of lynch law, some uncertainty is expressed in regard to the connection between Charles Lynch and Lynch law.

In the first place it may be said that the note in W. Wirt's Life of Patrick Henry (1818), page 372, was without doubt written by Wirt and not by Roane. In William Wirt Henry's Life of Patrick Henry, II., 482, the "MS. letter of Judge Roane to Mr. Wirt" is given, but the note is not included.

Henry Howe, in his 'Historical Collections of Virginia,' in a section entitled "Lynch Law," says:

"At that time [the time of the Revolution], this country [Campbell County and vicinity] was very thinly settled, and infested by a lawless band of tories and desperadoes. The necessity of the case involved desperate measures, and Col. Lynch, then a leading whig, apprehended and had them punished, without any superfluous ceremony. Hence the origin of the term 'Lynch Law.' This practice of Lynching continued years after the war, and was applied to many cases on mere suspicion of guilt, which could not be regularly proven." (Published at Charleston, S. C., in 1845. See p. 212 for the quotation).

In a book written a few years later than the above, Howe has the following to say on the same subject:

"The Lynch Law, as it is termed, originated in Virginia at the time of the American Revolution, and was first adopted by Colonel Lynch against a lawless band of tories and desperadoes, who infested the country at the base of the Blue Ridge. This plan was afterwards followed in the west, and its operation was salutary in ridding the country of miscreants whom the law was not strong enough to punish. The tribunal of *Squire Birch*, as the person who personated the judge was called, was established under a tree in the woods; the culprit, being usually found guilty, was tied to a tree and lashed without mercy, and then expelled from the country. In general, '*the regulators*' only exercised this law upon the most base and vile characters." ('The Great West,' published at Cincinnati in 1852. See p. 183 for the quotation.)

This account given by Howe cannot be considered as wholly independent of the influence of Wirt. In his 'Historical Collections of Virginia,' Howe quotes from Wirt's book in substantiation of his statement that the practice of "Lynching" continued for years after the war. On the other hand, however, the fact that he repeated his assertions in regard to the origin of "Lynch Law" in emphatic terms in his later book, and therewith described the operation of Lynch Law in the West, is strong evidence that he had other sources of information than Wirt's book on the matter.

An account, entirely independent of any influence from either Wirt or Howe, is found in 'Colonel William Martin's Narrative of Frontier Life,' prepared about 1842 for Dr. Lyman C. Draper, and now in the Draper MS. Collections in the Wisconsin Historical Society Library. It is as follows:

"In those times there were a great many bad men settled along the frontiers who by their thefts annoyed the country greatly. Insomuch that the people entered into combinations to suppress them and formed companies called regulators. They formed in military style, with officers, etc.

"They also organized a court and appointed some three or four of their aged, discreet men judges to try criminal causes, award punishment, etc. The company would bring up suspected fellows and the court would try them. But they seldom extended punishment beyond whipping and driving them from the country, sometimes making them pay for property stolen, when they had the means.

"This method of breaking up combinations of rogues was first set on foot by Col. Charles Lynch, of Bedford county, Va., where I was raised. He and my father were acquainted. . . . Lynch at first punished with thirty-nine stripes, taking as I suppose Moses for his model. And this was for a great while called Lynch's law, meaning all unlawful whipping. Any of the old men now in the South and West can tell the meaning of Lynch's law.

"Lynch, however, has been improved upon and more severe punishments sometimes inflicted. I have given this feature of Western history from the presumption that you may not have known it." (See Publications of the Southern Historical Association, November, 1900, p. 463.)

Such is the strongest evidence bearing directly on the point under consideration. Other writers might be quoted giving contributory testimony to the connection of the name of Charles Lynch with the earliest form of "lynching," but space will not permit doing so here. An article on "The Origin and History of Lynch Law," by Howell Colton Featherston of the Lynchburg (Va.) Bar, will be found in the *Green Bag*, March, 1900, page 150.

J. ELBERT CUTLER.

NEW HAVEN, May 13, 1903.

Notes.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish directly 'Bank Rate and the Money Market,' in England, France, Germany, Holland, and Belgium in 1844-1890, by R. H. Inglis Palgrave, F.R.S.; and this year's Bampton Lectures, by the Rev. W. H. Hutton, on 'The Influence of Christianity upon National Character,' as illustrated by the Lives and Legends of the English Saints, with an appendix containing a hitherto unpublished manuscript Life of Edward, King and Martyr, and another on mediæval miracles.

The superb limited edition of Hakluyt's 'Principal Navigations, Voiages, Traffiques and Discoveries of the English Nation' will be marketed in this country by Macmillan Co. at monthly intervals. They are also about to publish 'Bass, Pike, Perch and Others,' by Dr. James Henshall, in the "American Sportsman's Library," and 'World's Children,' by Dorothy Menpes, with 100 illustrations in color.

The Civic Press, Bible House, announces 'Quo Vaditis? A Call to the Old Moralities.'

Warren K. Moorehead has in preparation, for publication through the Robert Clarke Co., Cincinnati, two volumes entitled 'The Stone Age: An Archæological Encyclopædia of the Implements, Ornaments, etc., of the Prehistoric Tribes of the United States,' with more than a thousand figures illustrating some five thousand variations of types.

'A Reader's History of American Literature,' by Thomas Wentworth Higginson in collaboration with Henry W. Boynton, is announced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Among the new Vale Press volumes proceeding from John Lane are an abridgment

of Ronsard's 'L'Art Poétique Française,' and a selection from his Sonnets, in both cases in the original. The latter publication synchronizes with the appearance of 'Songs and Sonnets of Pierre de Ronsard,' translated by Curtis Hidden Page, which Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will issue in a limited, numbered, luxurious edition.

'The Responsibilities of the Novelist, and Other Literary Essays' and 'A Deal in Wheat, and Other Stories of the New and Old West,' by the late Frank Norris, will form part of the complete edition of his works which Doubleday, Page & Co. are bringing out. They are entirely new to print.

Our special correspondent at the late International Historical Congress at Rome, made a brief reference to the very illuminative exhibit contrived by Prof. D. Gnoli, director of the Biblioteca Vittorio Emanuele. In six rooms were displayed plans of ancient Rome, with plans and panoramic views of the mediæval and the modern city. The several stages before demolition were thus shown, along with Canina's original water-color drawings for the reconstruction of ancient edifices. A catalogue of all this is in preparation, but the principles of the collection have been already set forth in a brochure by the same scholar (Rome: Co-operative Social Printing-house). Colonel Rocchi is reported to be on the point of publishing a weighty volume on the city plans of the sixteenth century.

Our correspondent, by the way, writes: "The statement that the Campanile of St. Mark's will be rebuilt in three years, is misleading. It will take a year to make the necessary brick, three years to construct the main shaft, and another year to add the pinnacle and the *loggetta*—or five years in all. The three years mentioned in my letter referred only to the time actually required in construction."

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have made a charming little book of the dozen letters, constituting the 'Correspondence between R. W. Emerson and Herman Grimm,' which, under the editorship of Mr. F. W. Holls, have already seen the light in the April *Atlantic*. But the original German is now first given beside the translation, which, while generally adequate, is seen not to keep the level of Grimm's elevated yet simple style. Nor is the translator's English always impeccable. "Please send us a very good portrait of you" (p. 53) needs mending for idiom, and is not an exact rendering of "ein recht ähnliches Portrait"—truly faithful, or really like. So in what comes next: "I have succeeded in getting some which *no longer*, however, seem to me to be good likenesses"—for "nicht ähnlich scheinen," that is, seem not like. The worst slip we have noticed is on page 75. Grimm encloses "ein Blatt ihrer Tochter, einen *Stich* nach dem ersten und letzten Gemälde," etc., here translated, "a sheet of her [Frau Grimm's] daughter—a *shepherd* after the first and last painting," etc.—where we should read "a print of her daughter, an *engraving* after," etc. These letters, sometimes constrained, one thinks, by his addressing a foreigner, show Emerson tolerably at ease in reading German, without being able to pronounce or speak it, and freely ordering books for his library in that language. It will be remembered that M. Auguste Laugel, visiting him in Concord during the war, remarked the number of paper-bound books on his shelves.

The Emerson portrait in this brochure (there is also one of Grimm) is the well-known full-page standing figure, with hands clasped in front. The same has been made the basis of an etching, much enlarged in scale and stopping short of the knees, by Mr. Gustav Kruell of East Orange, N. J. This print deserves the attention of collectors in the present centennial week. The method is dry point, if we do not mistake, and there is some admirable technique—remarkable indeed as coming from one who has attained the highest distinction as an engraver on wood, a contrary process. The face may not quite satisfy those who recall the sweetness and high gentility of Emerson's, even if it retains the shrewd and speculative expression that fits the rural philosopher; to us the personality is rather sequestered in the hands, of which the execution is very plastic. For the main outlines and proportions of the slender figure a photographic accuracy has been secured.

Mr. Charles Booth is now approaching the conclusion of his remarkable investigation into the 'Life and Labor of the People in London' (Macmillan Co.). The section just published deals with a subject much more difficult to treat scientifically than either "Poverty" or "Industry," for "Religious Influences" must necessarily be estimated by methods from which the bias and temperament of the investigator cannot entirely be eliminated. Mr. Booth and his assistants have brought together a mass of material illustrating the work of the various churches and missions of London, but this material has been selected largely at haphazard, without very great care for accuracy, and the judgment expressed is often no more than a superficial impression. When, for instance, Mr. Booth declares that the congregation at a certain mission service does not contain persons who have been lifted out of depraved conditions, one cannot help asking, "How does he know?" On the whole, the writer's conclusions are uttered with a confidence which scarcely seems justified, but many of his criticisms and suggestions are nevertheless of value, and it would be well for the church workers, not only of London, but of other cities, to take note of them.

The Westminster Press has printed, and the Presbyterian Board (Philadelphia) sends out, 'Studies of Familiar Hymns,' by Dr. Louis F. Benson, who had previously edited several hymnals and commented on some of their contents. His work is not at all in the sketchy style of forty years ago, when English hymnology—as distinct from hymn-making—was in its infancy; every fact is run to earth as far as possible (as in the case of "God bless our native land"), and presented clearly. It is true that not much remained to do in this line, for the ground is pretty well covered by Mr. Julian's 'Dictionary.' Nor are the twenty-five hymns here gathered offered as "the best," which might be invidious; but some of them are certainly among the best, and we may take Dr. Benson's word for it that all of them are "familiar." Only four of them date back of 1800, and nine are from the Church of England since her hymnic awakening. Of the ten American pieces, Episcopalians wrote three, Unitarians as many, while two come from Congregationalists, one is by a Presbyterian, and one by a Baptist. Lest the editor should be suspected of undue leaning to a communion not his own, he points out (p. 236) the curious fact that a good and useful Lenten hymn of Dean Milman, in general use since its appearance in 1827, was never appreciated by the American Episcopal authorities till the present book was issued in 1892. Dr. Benson's handling of his themes, like his selection of them, is catholic and modern in spirit. He praises Samuel Longfellow and his work, while mildly lamenting his progress from "Christianity" to theism, as shown in the two "Sam books" of 1846 and 1864.

Miss L. E. Hill, the director of physical training in Wellesley College, is the editor of a series of articles on "Athletics and Outdoor Sports for Women" (Macmillan Co.), in which no less than sixteen varieties of games and sports are described by experts, with hints for beginners and abundant illustrations. Golf is ably treated by Miss Frances Griscom, and Equestrianism by Mrs. Beach, while Field Hockey, which was introduced to American colleges for women only two years since, is described by its pioneer, Miss Applebee. No one can learn an outdoor game from a book of this kind, but every woman who is interested in one of these branches of athletics (and few women are not) will find useful hints and recognize the weak points in her own "form" from the warnings of these concise chapters. The book is the heaviest for its size that we have met in these days of heavy, highly-glazed paper.

The needs of our amateur botanists are well met by the new books on the identification of plants which have come to hand. Among the later aspirants to favor are the two excellent handbooks on woody plants from the press of Charles Scribner's Sons. 'Our Northern Shrubs, and How to Identify Them,' by Harriet L. Keeler, has good reproductions from photographs, and the text appears to have been worked out with care. 'Trees, Shrubs, and Vines of the Northeastern United States,' with their characteristic landscape features fully described for identification by the non-botanical reader, together with an account of the principal foreign hardy trees, shrubs, and vines cultivated in our country and found in Central Park, New York city, by H. G. Parkhurst, is likewise well illustrated, and interesting. One must not search too closely for the faults which such handbooks contain, since in few cases are the slight errors likely to be misleading to the users of them. So far as the scope of these two is concerned, they may fairly be called rivals; nevertheless, they supplement each other. At least, it cannot do harm to the students of our shrubs to learn something with regard to the variety which now exists in the nomenclature of our common shrubs, and the like, owing to well-meant endeavors to improve certain inconsistencies in the names of our plants. It now plainly appears that the times were not yet ripe for authoritative convention respecting the generic and specific names. Out of the existing chaos, order is probably to come soon, perhaps within the next score of years, but at present it is well for amateurs and for real students to have at their command works in which the different proposals as to names are clearly brought out.

'Trees and Shrubs of Prospect Park

(Brooklyn),' by Louis Harman Peet (New York: American Printing-house), is a capital guide to the woody plants there grown. It is convenient in size, well written, and is provided with instructive maps or diagrams which satisfy every reasonable requirement. A busy man seeking an afternoon's recreation in this beautiful park could hardly have better direction for his footsteps than the handbook and its outline sketches; and certainly the lounger, who is not pressed for time, could not possibly do better than to follow out slowly the charming walks suggested by the author of this work.

The excellent engravings in 'Principal Species of Wood: Their Characteristic Properties,' by Charles Henry Snow, Dean of the School of Applied Science, New York University (John Wiley & Sons), which exhibit the aspect of the timber trees, have been well selected. It is rather a pity that the pages devoted to these fine reproductions have been made to carry also the burden of certain details which detract from the general effect of the photographs. It would have been better, on many accounts, to keep the photomicrograms and the delineations of the trunk-bark separate. In the text the author has brought together a great amount of matter useful to engineers and to all workers in woods. A little fuller introduction explanatory of the technical terms employed would make the treatise more useful to the general reader; such terms as "modulus of elasticity" and "modulus of rupture" mean very little to the beginner. But the beginner, and in fact every general reader, will be glad to have the clear definition of quartered oak, which is given in the following words: "Logs are sometimes sawn into quarters, and then into pieces crossing and exposing the yearly rings. These quarter-sawn surfaces are structurally stronger and better, but are, by reason of waste or small pieces, more costly than others. The pith-rays of some woods, such as oaks, are very prominent when split as they are in quarter-sawing, and the appearance of such woods is consequently improved." The nomenclature is somewhat confusing. In the case of Kauri, *Dammara* and not *Agathis* is employed, while in other cases the names go abreast or even a little ahead of the most advanced reforms. A full and accurate index removes, however, all liability to serious error or even misunderstanding in the matter of generic and specific names.

Mr. Henry F. Waters's Genealogical Gleanings in England were anything but exhausted in the two stout volumes in which they were finally published. While he himself has resought his native New England, his thousands of notes have been left in England, at least temporarily, and their present custodian, Mr. Lothrop Withington, has leave to prepare them at his convenience for the printer. These references to wills and administrations have accordingly begun to appear in the April number of the *Genealogical Quarterly* (Boston: The Research Publication Co.), in an alphabetical order (Abbott-Agas). They lack, of course, Mr. Waters's masterly correlation and the coöperative annotation by local genealogists which lent so much value to the original 'Gleanings.' Still, the editor of the *Quarterly*, Mr. Eben Putnam, contributes here and there a note, besides references to the 'Gleanings.' The source of the new matter is always indicated. In the same number of the *Quarterly* the early records of the First Church in Cambridge, Mass., begin to be printed.

In the Consular Reports for May it is stated that there was a decrease in the crude-oil production of the Baku fields in 1902, the first in eight years, on account of the overproduction of the previous year. The price declined to a "figure which was in many cases less than the amount to be paid the Government as royalty on the territory." The exports fell off, also, in consequence of the strikes of the workmen in the can and case factories. Consul-General Mason of Berlin reports an improvement in Germany's business conditions in the past year, but says that there are still signs of industrial paralysis which are not encouraging. The most significant of these is the decrease of the imports of the indispensable raw materials of manufacture and the cheap food materials which are essential to economical labor. He also contributes a valuable account, with illustrations, of the potato as a source of wealth in Germany. Its importance may be gathered from the fact that for every 10,000 inhabitants there were planted in 1900 160 acres of potatoes, as against 31 acres in Great Britain and Ireland and 34.8 acres in the United States. By an elaborate scheme of scientific fertilizing and cultivating organized by the Bureau of Agriculture and carried out in experiment stations in different parts of the empire, "the general yield per acre has been raised by not less than 38 per cent. during the past ten years." A continually increasing part of the crop is used in the manufacture of alcohol for motors and household purposes, as lighting and heating.

—It has been a commonplace of American history that the founders of the English colonies were men of considerable education. The early annals are full of evidences of the fact, not only that there were many university graduates, but that, what is more important, most of the first settlers in New England had a thorough grounding in the elementary branches of learning. Just what their schooling consisted in, however, has been a question frequently asked, but not satisfactorily answered. Many attempts have been made to describe the beginnings of the American public school, but each fails in the essential particular of telling what and how the seventeenth-century schools taught the children. The difficulty has been that no one had investigated with sufficient care the old English schools in which the colonial settlers received their first lessons, and which they undertook to reëstablish in America. The solution of the puzzle is due to Prof. Foster Watson of the University College of Wales, who has for some years been gathering notes on early English text-books. His description of these, "The Curriculum and Text-books of English Schools in the first half of the Seventeenth Century," published in the Transactions of the Bibliographical Society (London, February, 1903), is a very important contribution to an understanding of the intellectual equipment of the people who left England in and after 1607, 1620, and 1630. Professor Watson shows that the notes of sermons, in shorthand, in abstract, in heads, in commentary, which bulk so largely in every collection of the "remains" of colonial times, were not merely an expression of the intense religious interest of the period, but were a direct result of school training, which required the pupils, as a part of the regular school exercise, to reproduce the weekly sermons. "Besides," as Brinsley explains, in his 'Ludus Literarius, or the Grammar School,' published in 1612, "it will keep them from playing, talking, sleeping, and all other disorders in the church. To this end, therefore, pose diligently all those whom you observe or suspect most negligent; then you will have them to attend heedfully." And, further, that there may be no possible doubt that the stern Puritans, in their youth, resembled some of their remote descendants, "there must be great care by the monitors, that they trouble not their fellows, nor the congregation, in asking notes, or stirring out of their places to seek one another, or any other disorder." Professor Watson is planning to organize an "Early Text-Book Reprint Society," to reproduce the more significant of these guides to what the seventeenth century knew. It is to be hoped that he will receive ample support from American libraries and students, to which these should appeal quite as much as to English students of history and education.

—In volume x. of the Camden Miscellany the Royal Historical Society publishes three new documents: the Journal of Sir Roger Wilbraham for the years 1593-1616, a diary of travels by Sir Thomas Hoby, and a narrative entitled "Prince Rupert at Lisbon." The last is the shortest of the three, but possesses some importance as proving that Prince Rupert had made diplomatic arrangements in 1649 which gave him free access to the court of Lisbon, and placed the King of Portugal in almost open antagonism to the Commonwealth. Dr. S. R. Gardiner wrote a short preface for this relation, and Mrs. Gardiner has revised the text for the press. Of the other two pieces, we have found Wilbraham's Journal less striking than Hoby's. Wilbraham was Solicitor-General in Ireland and Master of Requests during the last years of Elizabeth and at the opening of the reign of James I. He was an unworthy person, who fattened on the spoils of Ireland and wrote a fulsome panegyric of Elizabeth and James. The Master of Requests was supposed to exercise a certain equity jurisdiction, but under such a man as Wilbraham the expenses of law could have been cheapened little if at all, while the Master's judgments were probably subject to the same influences which affected those of Lord Bacon. Sir Thomas Hoby, on the contrary, was an amiable and accomplished man, a student of languages and a diplomatist of great promise. His translation of Castiglione's 'Cortegiano' is almost as famous as Florio's 'Montaigne,' and very probably had some effect from holding up the ideals of a gentleman to the admiration of Tudor England. Sir Philip Hoby, an elder brother of the translator, rose in the service of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. until he became a privy councillor and envoy to the Imperial Court.

—Thomas was born in 1530, received his education at Cambridge under Sir John Cheke and at Strassburg under Martin Bucer, spent 1550 in Italian travel, and afterwards entered upon a diplomatic

career. He was only twenty-three years old when he made his translation of the 'Cortegiano,' which was four times reprinted during the reign of Elizabeth. The most interesting portions of his diary relate to his travels in southern Italy and his account of German -vents in 1552, the year when Maurice of Saxony chased Charles V. from Innsbruck and extorted from him the concessions of Passau. One gathers from Hoby's description of the Terra di Lavoro and Sicily that these regions enjoyed a greater degree of prosperity at the middle of the sixteenth century than one might be inclined to suppose from a general knowledge of Spanish administration. As for the events of 1552, Hoby was in a position to get accurate intelligence from his brother, Sir Philip. We give a little anecdote regarding the Duke of Alva. At Innsbruck there dwelt in 1552 a gun founder, "one of the best in his science of all Christendom, a verie discreate and sober parson. This mann (as he told my brother the tale) had a . . . great peecs of artillarie in hand for the Duke of Alava, which he minded to carie into Spaine. Upon these peecs the Duke had cawsed to bee graven the armes of Philipp, Lansgrave of Hess, with his stile, which was the Emperor's prisoner, and all for a certain vain glorie that menn shuld beleave he had gotten them in the feeld by prowess of armes. The Lansgrave's sonn, who was in Duke Maurice hoost, seeing those peecs there with his father's armes upon them, ceased upon them and tooke them awaye with him, geving to the gunn founder's wyff an hundrethe crownes to drinke." Sir Thomas Hoby became envoy to the Court of France in 1566, and died at Paris about four months after his appointment, aged thirty-six.

—An octavo of 543 pages (Longmans, Green & Co.) is entitled 'Higher Mathematics for Students of Chemistry and Physics,' by Dr. J. W. Mellor. It consists of a limping treatise on the calculus and matters connected therewith, including trigonometry, the theory of equations, and the like, to which are appended fifteen pages of numerical tables. It will prove a handy instrument for anybody who has not the same thing in more convenient form on his shelves; but its limitations will be a perpetual vexation. Such a book ought to be written by a master of the subject, a very different person from Dr. Mellor. Mathematics is useful to the physicist in two ways. First, it enables him to solve his own problems instead of employing a mathematician. In this respect it is a great convenience, but not indispensable. Secondly, it supplies him with fundamental conceptions and methods of thinking without which he never can rise from the ranks of the army of science. A volume like this can be of service only in the former way. The prime necessity for a chemist or physicist who proposes to do his own sums is a mastery of synthetic geometry. Beginning with the new doctrine of multitudes and ordinal numbers as a propædeutic, he should first familiarize himself with the results and methods of topics—the geometry of a universe of distortable but unbreakable things, no standard of straightness or of length being supposed. Next should come graphics, the doctrine of unlimited straight lines, comprising perspective, projective geometry, graphical statics, etc.—invaluable tools, all. Next, metrics, comprising the elements of geometry, Euclidean and Non-Euclidean, the Brocard geometry, etc. Of all this synthetic mathematics Dr. Mellor gives not one word; and his book should have been entitled, not Higher Mathematics, but Mathematical Analysis. Passing to this, the student should begin with algebra and analytic geometry, of which Dr. Mellor gives extracts. He should then make himself as familiar with the calculus of finite differences in its entirety as with his mother-tongue. Dr. Mellor allots about twenty-five pages to the fringes of this subject. Then should come the differential calculus, including trigonometry and the theory of functions, in its fullest modernity. Here quaternions may be taken up. Finally, such subjects as probabilities, rigid dynamics, molecular dynamics, hydrodynamics, viscosity, aerodynamics, must be studied. It is a vast course; but one cannot take high rank among the coming generation of physicists or chemists at any cheaper rate. A hand-book of rules and formulæ, of which there already are several, though none which accurately meets the need, would be, of course, an immense convenience. Numerical tables are best given in separate collections. A collection better suited to the uses of physcists than any now existing could easily be made, but in any case he would require his separate Crelle's 'Rechentafeln.'

SIR WILFRID LAURIER AND THE LIBERAL PARTY OF CANADA.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the Liberal Party: A Political History. By J. S. Willison. In two volumes. Toronto: George N. Morang & Co., Limited. 1903. Illustrated. Pp. 472 and 451.

Mr. Willison has been for some years the very successful and highly respected editor of the Toronto *Globe*, the chief organ of Sir Wilfrid Laurier's party. He has now exchanged that position for the editorship of an independent paper, his entrance upon which is a very interesting event in Canadian journalism. But we can scarcely expect him at once to doff the editor of the *Globe* and become the judicial critic of the leader and the party whose best advocate up to this time he has been. We must be satisfied if partiality is kept within bounds, and a reasonable measure of equity is extended to the other side.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier is a notable figure in Canadian politics. He is a Frenchman whose political character has been formed under British institutions, while he combines with that character French refinement, elegance, and tact. Not only is he an extremely pleasing speaker, both in English and in French, but he can adapt himself easily to the tastes and sentiments either of an English or of a French audience. He is, as a rule, studiously courteous in debate, and never, even in campaign speeches, is betrayed into anything violent or gross. Nobody questions his personal purity, at whatever he may be compelled to wink as a party leader. At the same time he is a complete and almost avowed opportunist. "The Prime Minister," says one who has just left his Cabinet, "has in fact no very strong opinion on matters of this [fiscal] kind. He is an opportunist; his favorite doctrine being that each day should look out for itself." Sir Wilfrid is very happily gifted with a remarkable facility of presenting in the best light each of the successive positions into which by the current of events he is borne.

He is a Catholic, but very liberal; one of the school of Montalembert and Lacordaire, who, trying to combine Catholicism with liberty, died under a cloud of Papal displeasure. In Quebec he was numbered with the party Rouge, Liberals who are not revolutionary, though they respect the patriotic traditions of 1837, but are opposed to the political domination of the priest. There was a curious incident in this part of Sir Wilfrid Laurier's career. He was a member of the Institut Canadien, a literary society which was excommunicated in the mass for admitting anti-Catholic works. Guibord, a member of the society, died, and the Church sought to exclude him from burial in his lot in the Catholic cemetery, on the ground that he was excommunicate. Thereupon there was a lawsuit which at last went to the British Privy Council, the judges in which debated "with iron gravity," to use Carlyle's phrase, the question whether people under the ecclesiastical law of the Church of Rome could be excommunicate in the mass. The judgment was that the excommunication must be individual. Preparations were made to bury Guibord in his lot. The Catholics resisted. There was great danger of an affray; when the Bishop cut the knot by mounting the pulpit and declaring the ground in which the heretic was to be laid de-consecrated, so that the faithful around might rest uncontaminated and in peace.

Mr. Laurier passed from the Provincial Parliament at Quebec to the Dominion Parliament, where he was the chief of the French members, and soon by his eloquence won high place. When the French half-breeds of the Northwest rebelled, the heart of the French province was with them. Mr. Laurier then pleaded their cause and denounced the execution of Riel, the organizer of the rebellion, in burning words, which rose in judgment against him when he was committing himself and Canada to the excesses of British martial law in the Cape Colony.

The party styled Liberal, though without much reason, was at this time in opposition. Its leader, Mr. Alexander Mackenzie, a very honest and worthy man, though too much devoted to details, was supplanted in the leadership by Mr. Edward Blake, an eminent advocate and jurist, but, as a leader of men, out of place. Upon Mr. Blake's resignation, Mr. Laurier was presently called upon to lead the party in a general election against the Tories under their veteran, wily, and long successful chief, Sir John A. Macdonald. The history of that election given by Mr. Willison is curious. There was at the time no constitutional ground for a dissolution, but the Government, seeing that its protectionist policy—national policy, as it was called—was losing ground, resolved to snap a verdict. It was, however, necessary that some constitutional ground for a dissolution of Parliament before the expiry of its term should be assigned. The Government gave out that negotiations were on foot with the United States for reciprocity, and that it required a popular mandate. Our Secretary of State,

Mr. Blaine, at once put forth a note stating that no such negotiations were on foot between the two countries. An appeal was next made to the loyalty of the Dominion by pretending, without the shadow of a ground, that Mr. Laurier and his party were conspiring to betray Canada to the United States. The appeal, though not only dishonest but supported, as we learn from Mr. Willison's narrative, by dishonorable means, was successful, and Mr. Laurier remained in opposition.

After the death of Sir John A. Macdonald and his successor, Sir John Thompson, the Conservative party was broken up by internal dissension and treachery. Mr. Laurier and his party then came into power. Their election platform had been free trade, or at least tariff for revenue only; and their leading economist, Sir Richard Cartwright, a man of great ability and force, had been always the sworn foe of protection. But they presently showed that they appreciated the political, perhaps also the financial, influence of the protected manufacturers, and began to talk of the respect due to vested interests and of stability of tariff. To stability of tariff, however, they still adhere, refusing to listen to the demands preferred by the protected manufacturers, of course on patriotic grounds, for further measures of protection.

Mr. Laurier now shone forth in a new and very striking character—that of a French Premier, and the great man of the French province enthusiastically attached to British institutions and connection. The pledge of his attachment was a tariff giving a preference of 33 per cent. to British goods. His rewards, besides the medal of the Cobden Club, to which his title was somewhat equivocal, were knighthood, a seat in the British Privy Council, and an enthusiastic ovation in England, where all eyes were fixed upon him as he rode in the Jubilee procession. Advocates of an Imperial Zollverein and Imperial Federation believed that they had at last found their man, and the sight of Imperialism embodied in a French-Canadian might well gladden their hearts. Canadian Tories were filled with chagrin at seeing their clothes thus stolen by the Liberal chief. But the belief that England was going back to protection never had much foundation. The British grain duty, which raised the hopes of protectionists high, has been abandoned. The Canadian preference in favor of British goods has been cancelled. The dream of Imperial Zollvereiners is at an end. So, probably, will soon be the dream of Canadian contribution to the British army and fleet.

A signal instance of Sir Wilfrid Laurier's opportunism is his conduct with regard to the reform of the Senate. The Canadian Senate is not elective, but is appointed by the Crown; that is, practically, by the head of the party in power. The long reign of Sir John A. Macdonald had filled it with Conservatives. Sir Wilfrid then moved earnestly for a reform of the Senate. Deaths have now reversed the balance, and though scandalous proof of the need for reform has recently come to light in the shape of an attempted sale of a Senatorship for a contribution to the party fund, Sir Wilfrid Laurier speaks of Senate reform no more.

The political cable which binds Canada to the Imperial country has, by successive concessions of self-government, been worn to the last strand; and of that strand about the strongest thread is the extraordinary craving of Colonials for Imperial titles and decorations. Sir Wilfrid Laurier is not the sort of man by whom that distorting influence is likely to be especially felt. No one would suspect him of being a sycophant or a title-hunter. But he is a knight and a Privy Councillor; and it is not in human nature that these titles, and the connection with the court and aristocracy of England which they involve, should fail in some degree to affect his sentiments and his course.

It was generally believed that Sir Wilfrid Laurier was unwilling to participate in the South African war, but yielded to the fear of being outbidden in loyalty by the Conservative Opposition, to the clandestine influence of Downing Street, and to the solicitations of a low agent of the South African Company, combined with militarist excitement. Mr. Willison, who could hardly fail to know the truth, does not contradict the common belief. The resolutions of the Canadian Parliament framed by its leader justify participation in the war on the ground that her Majesty is suzerain of the Transvaal Republic, and that "her Majesty's subjects now settled in that region are suffering under political oppression"; the political oppression consisting in the requirement of a seven years' term for naturalization (the British term being five years, with the additional requirement of the sanction in each case of the Secretary of State), while the Outlanders, for whom the concession of a shorter term was demanded, had recently invited foreign invasion.

In the preamble of the first of the two conventions with the Transvaal (1881) the term "suzerainty" was used; but it was distinctly limited to foreign relations; while in regard to domestic affairs, including, of course, the regulation of the franchise, "complete self-government" was assured. In the second convention, that of 1884, the word "suzerainty" was omitted, evidently by design, and the 'Annual Register' of the year describes the effect of the convention as "Suzerainty of England over the Transvaal abolished; England only reserving the right of veto on treaties with foreign Powers, except with the Free State and the northern Kaffir tribes." Mr. Chamberlain had himself said that "to go to war with President Kruger in order to force upon him reforms in the internal affairs of his state, with which successive Secretaries of State standing in that place had repudiated all right of interference, would have been a course of action as immoral as it would have been unwise." Lord Salisbury had said that the Boers had absolute control over their internal affairs. Mr. W. H. Smith, a Conservative leader of the House of Commons, had said, "It is a cardinal principle of that settlement [the Convention of 1884] that the internal government and legislation of the South African Republic shall not be interfered with." The Jameson raiders were tried under the Foreign Enlistment Act for fitting out an expedition against a foreign state at peace with Great Britain. The Lord Chief Justice had on that occasion defined the Transvaal as a "foreign state with which her Majesty was in friendly treaty relations." He said:

"The position of the South African Republic . . . is determined by the two Conventions of 1881 and 1884. The result is, that under these Conventions the Queen's Government recognize the complete independence and autonomy of the South African Republic, subject only to the restriction contained in the Convention of 1884, to the effect that that state should have no power to enter into any treaties without this country's consent, except as regards one or two minor states, one of which is the Orange Free State."

Did Mr. Laurier know these facts when he led the Canadian Parliament to rest its recorded justification for engaging in a war with a people who had never done Canada any wrong, on the existence of the suzerainty and the obligation to enforce political reform? Destiny can hardly appiy a more decisive test to the character of a statesman than by setting him to choose between a possible loss of office and consent to an unjust or unnecessary war. That test was put to the character of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, and Sir Wilfrid Laurier chose consent to the war.

HEGEL'S LOGIC INTERPRETED.

Hegel's Logic: An Essay in Interpretation. By John Grier Hibben. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. 12mo. Pp. 313.

Hegel made easy; Hegel brought to the level of the meanest capacity. It is really surprising how clear these things can be made, if they are disembarrassed of some tangles which are perhaps not so essential as they have been thought to be. The first pages delight one; but as one reads on, one begins to think that the effect is very much as if one were to explain to a child of five in the clearest terms, quite on the plane of its thought, all the facts and truths of life, domestic and social. That that child would understand life just as an adult understands it, is true in the same measure that Professor Hibben's reader will understand Hegel's philosophy as Hegel understood it. Those parts of Hegel's doctrine which set ordinary logic at defiance—that is to say, the woof and warp of his whole work—are treated as being merely a manner of phrasing. As we turn over the leaves, our eye lights often upon such expressions as "only an epigrammatic expression" (p. 86), "his epigrammatic manner" (p. 130), "striking epigram" (p. 37), "an enigmatical form" (p. 115), "the Hegelian figure" (p. 157), "should be taken in a figurative rather than a literal sense" (p. 113), "in his characteristically paradoxical manner" (p. 152), "a paradox, as thus expressed" (p. 151). Once only do we find any intimation that to Hegel himself these things were more than that; and even then it is passed by without one full sentence being given to it.

Whoever has dipped into Hegel ever so little, will ask in astonishment how it is possible to interpret him so. The explanation seems to be that the master's incessant overstraining of reason, without which his system could not have been put together, seems in this disciple, as in many another, to have had the effect of destroying all the tonicity of his thought and leaving it lax and flaccid. Here is a professor of logic who cannot even state the ordinary doctrines of his own discipline accurately. "The general standpoint . . . was that thought presents to us . . .

alternative judgments, one of which must be wholly true and its opposite wholly false." Who ever maintained such a position? The opposite of the wholly true is that which is *more or less* false. But, in accordance with this, Professor Hibben claims that "it is only when his [Hegel's] entire system is unfolded that we can have any basis for judging" it. Until a man's whole say is said, one will generally be unable to pronounce that it is wholly true; but he need sometimes go but very little way before betraying that it is more or less false, or even quite unscientific. "The traditional law of logic known as that of excluded middle [meaning the *principle* of excluded middle] is enunciated thus: 'that of two opposite predicates, one, and only one, can be assigned to one and the same subject.'" Now if a professor of logic deliberately teaches what he ought to know is false, how can we otherwise excuse him, or avoid one or another more serious accusation of him, than by saying that he is a loose thinker? The principle of excluded middle does not belong to the so-called "traditional" logic, since, although it occurs in Aristotle as a definition of the kind of opposition called contradiction, and in other passages in dissent from a statement of Plato's, yet it plays no important part in Aristotle's system, and was first made a fundamental principle by Wolf. The whole purpose of the name and of the enunciation of the principle is to render it clear that what Professor Hibben wrongly states as this principle involves two distinct principles: first, that an affirmative and its corresponding negative predicate—as "black" and "not-black"—cannot both be true of the same definite subject, in the same definite respect; and second (and *this* is the principle of excluded middle) that of two such predicates one or the other must be true of any *single individual*.

The author is equally unsuccessful in explaining the "principle of sufficient reason." He calls it "the fourth law of thought, which is associated with the name of Leibniz, and is known as the law of sufficient reason, viz.: 'Everything must have its sufficient ground,'" and he proceeds to expound it in two or three pages. This principle, for such it is usually called, not only is "associated with the name of Leibniz," but was originated by him in a more exclusive sense, perhaps, than that in which any other philosophical principle of equal renown can be attributed to any one author. Nothing bearing more than a faint resemblance to it has been found in Plato, Aristotle, the Stoics, Suarez, Descartes, Spinoza, or any other philosopher, not even in Yakob Thomasius. It is variously worded in German, but usually somewhat thus: "Alles Zufällige hat seinen zureichenden Grund." Here, the German word *Grund*, corresponding to *raison* in Leibniz's formula, should be translated "reason." Whatever Hegel meant by *Grund*, it is not the "reason" of this principle. Another inaccuracy in Prof. Hibben's statement of it, though usual enough, lies in the words "must *have*." Leibniz was far too nominalistic to think that existing things really *have* reasons. He may seem to say so, using the phrase "there is a reason"; but what he means and sometimes says is, that a "sufficient reason for the thing's being as it is *can be found* out by the intellect." One of the recent treatises on logic formulates the principle very correctly, at least on one side of it, as follows: "Jedes behauptende Urtheil is zureichend zu begründen." It is undoubtedly implied by Leibniz that a really sufficient reason must refer to some operative condition of the reality of the fact. But to assert, as Hibben and some other Hegelians have done, that Hegel's theory of reality ("Die Lehre von Wesen") is implied in the 'Monadologie,' is simply to put into a strong light the deleterious effect upon the brain of much reading of Hegel.

If we had the space to give to it, we could show that there are few, if any, statements in this book concerning the ordinary doctrines of logic or concerning the present state of logical discussion that are anything like accurate. Professor Hibben's own thought, in the few instances in which he has permitted himself anything like a free use of reason, is washy; and the maxims that he holds up for admiration—virtually, for example, that precise definitions, and precision generally, should be eschewed—are calculated to confuse discussion and to prevent its issuing in the test of experiment. Such, for instance, is the maxim "that every term which we employ in philosophical thinking should represent . . . an idea of universal and necessary significance, and that such a notion cannot have a one-sided, abstract, and rigid meaning." The proper maxim should be that ideas of universal and necessary significance and of a world of protean application may be taken one or two at a time as the *subject* of philosophical reflection; but that this reflection is of no use or meaning except so far as it is expressible in rules having reference to some conceivable practical upshot of all the thinking; so that it is the one-sided, abstract, and rigid conceptions that ought to be the philosopher's tools. Civilization, so far as physical science—including physiology and bacteriology—has had a hand in it, is the result of trying to find out what one-sided, abstract, and rigid formulæ express the way in which events will happen; and quite amazing is Professor Hibben's assertion that experientialists hold that "it is the function of thought to interpret experience, and not to anticipate it."

But, notwithstanding all we have said, it remains true that, if one does not care to trace and examine that movement of Hegel's thought which is supposed to be accurate, but wants only so much of his results and their relations to one another as is viewy and broad, then this book furnishes what one desires with greater success than any other we have seen. Of course, it is confined to the 'Encyklopädie,' and almost entirely to the 'Logik,' and that mostly as Hegel himself left it. It is a syllabus for lectures.

But all these Hegelians—Harris, Wallace, Hibben, Everett, etc.—who dog the steps of their master in almost textual comments, are profoundly unfaithful to the spirit of Hegel and of his philosophy. The 'Logik' was intended to be a mirror of the whole development of mind; and Hegel, with all that romanticism that was characteristic of his epoch, was far more essentially and determinedly a man who wished to be up to date in all his mental development. Now ninety years have paraded before us since the 'Logik' was written; and the result is that it now condemns itself. In the first place, the system, not in its deeper and truer spirit, but as it is worked out, and notwithstanding a sop tossed in one of the closing sections, is anti-evolutionary, anti-progressive, because it represents thought as attaining perfect fulfilment. There is no conceivable fulfilment of any rational life except progress towards further fulfilment. The 'Logik' is supposed to mirror the history of mind; and its first step is made to correspond to Thales, who ninety years ago seemed to stand at the threshold of thought. Thales, however, lived only twenty-five centuries ago; and we now know that men read and wrote fifty centuries before him, while the development of mind began countless eons before man became man. And it is evident enough that all Hegel's categories properly belong to his third grand division, the *Begriff*. What, for example, could be more monstrous than to call such a conception as that of Being a primitive one; or, indeed, what more absurd than to say that the *immediate* is *abstract*? We might instance a dozen such self-refutations. That the Hegelians should have allowed the obviously unsuccessful development of the doctrine of *Wesen* to stand all these years uncorrected, is a striking instance of the mental fossilization that results from their method of study. A powerful and original study of what the true Hegelian doctrine of *Wesen* should be, according to our present lights, might breathe some real life into a modified Hegelianism, if anything could have that effect.

RECENT FICTION.

The Untilled Field. By George Moore. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Darby O'Gill and the Good People. By Herminie Templeton. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Cap'n Simeon's Store. By George S. Wasson. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Middle-Aged Love Stories. By Josephine Daskam. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Adventures of Harry Revel. By A. T. Quiller-Couch. Charles Scribner's Sons.

It is common to account altogether for the sorrows of Ireland by her wrongs, and to suppose that if you give the Irish peasant the land, you will secure for that sick nation health and wealth. There are, however, intelligent Irishmen who probe deeper into the causes of national depression in Ireland, and of these Mr. George Moore is not the least outspoken. In a dozen short stories, or rather studies, he dwells on the lack of vitality among the peasants of Catholic Ireland, the lack of all romance in their lives, the utter joylessness that is not to be explained away by economic causes. "In the country districts Irish life is one of stagnant melancholy; the only aspiration that comes into their lives is a religious one. It will be said that the Irish are too poor to pay for pleasure, but they are not too poor to spend fifteen millions a year upon religion."

Mr. Moore's contention is, that unless something is done to stop the constant drain of the population into the priesthood and the conventual life, the Catholic laity will become extinct in a generation. There are only two ideas in Catholic Ireland: emigration and the priesthood. At the opening

of the last century there were one hundred nuns in Irish convents; there are now twenty thousand. "Ireland," says Mr. Moore, "is emptying before the priests. In other countries Religion has managed to come to terms with Life." But in Ireland the priests sternly repress courtship among the peasants, and arrange marriages on any basis rather than that of inclination. Social gatherings are discouraged, dancing is denounced from the altar, and all relaxation is treated as sinful.

"I turned to the driver and asked if there was no courting in the country. 'There used to be courting,' he said, 'but now it is not the custom of the country any longer.' 'How do you make up your marriages?' 'The marriages are made by the parents, and I've often seen it that the young couple did not see each other until the evening before the wedding—and sometimes not until the very morning of the wedding. Many a marriage I've seen broken off for half a sovereign.' "

Elsewhere Mr. Moore writes:

"The sexes mingle freely everywhere in Western Europe: only in Ireland and Turkey is there any attempt made to separate them."

The possibility of a Celtic Renaissance through a revival of the language is rejected by more than one character in these stories; for the priests, peasants, and reformers whose lives the writer paints with grim realism, are introduced to discuss Mr. Moore's theses, and the whole is frankly written with a purpose. Ireland sadly needs a Dickens, a humorist "with lights of tragedy in his laughter," to expose the social weaknesses with which no Land Bill can reckon. But Mr. Moore is hardly fitted for the part. He is Mr. Meredith's typical "agelast," and his pages reflect no ray of humor. They leave the reader oppressed with the hopelessness of a country in which a majority of the peasant proprietors believe that an offended priest can turn them into rabbits, while they are taught by an all-powerful church that "we are here, not to make life successful and triumphant, but to gain heaven" (p. 215).

The adventures of 'Darby O'Gill' are conceived in quite another vein. Here we have the traditional Irish fairy tale, in which even the banshee is pressed into the service of comedy, where every peasant is jovial, and every priest cracks jokes with his parishioners. These slight stories have no aim, and illustrate nothing but the amusing element in superstition; the seamy side is ignored, and the dialect is written with much spirit and correctness.

Mr. Wasson is advertised as "taking rank as one of the best writers of New England salt-water sketches," which reminds us of the man who prided himself on being the second authority in England on gray shirtings. His stories have appeared in the monthly magazines "in real dialect," and those who can read them doubtless find them amusing. The book is full of strange oaths, such as "Godfrey Mighty" and "gracious evers," and we confess to an inability to appreciate this sort of lingo: "'Twas a dod-blowed wonder the tar wa'n't every mite squat outen me, but someways this 'ere foot made out to take the heft on't, and ole Dr. Roundturn he turned to and trimmed them toes down slick's a whistle." There is a good deal of humor in these sketches, which reek of tar and brine and oilskins; but, for the ordinary reader, the effort of quarrying for it will probably prove too arduous.

The seasoned reader is suspicious of volumes of stories grouped round a central common feature. Like the book of 'Essays on Cats in Furnaces,' their "violent birth" too often ends in "poor validity." True, a collection of stories about middle-aged love affairs carries, at first glance, a prettily autumnal idea made up of sunsets and Indian summers and Michaelmas daisies. But reading only brings back distrust of the scheme. The stories are too palpably engineered into these boundaries. The course of true love may run smooth, it may run rough, but it runs, and the moment it is diked and ditched by the author's self-prescribed limitations, the effect on the reader who has small interest in seeing what may be done under hampering conditions, is stiff and stiffening. Yet the plan, if infelicitous, is not hopeless. It is in the carrying out as Miss Daskam has carried it out that the trouble lies. To counteract the autumnal ages of all the contracting parties, there is an averaging spring-lamb of sentiment that is mawkishly soft to the touch. The incidents are laboriously coaxed together in behalf of the middle-aged idea, and are not relieved by the frequent humorous passages, which in their turn seem foolishness in the twilight of belated romance. Having accepted the inevitable in the way of silver-flecked locks and the advantages of tiny wrinkles, the reader finds it disconcerting to come suddenly upon an epigram like "Better fifty years of poker than a cycle of croquet." The story which best holds the balance between matter and manner, humor and sentiment, is "Julia the Apostate." Leaning to humor's side, it becomes for that very reason the more effective romantically.

'Harry Revel' begins in a foundling hospital in Plymouth, and proceeds through chimney-sweep circles, via murder and innocence suspected, to smugglers' haunts on the Cornish coast, to military episodes in the Peninsular war, and thence northward to the place of beginning. It is a refreshingly told tale; not only a rattling one, but vocal with fuller harmonies than those of rattles. The hackneyed might so easily have prevailed, and it is never even present. The foundling's career is unrolled to the reader without rubbing the well-nigh raw spots of foundlings' lives as told in fiction. The eccentric folk who largely make Harry Revel's world fit into it without reducing it to absurdity. The salt roughness of Cornwall is no breeder of daintiness, and here and there manners run a trifle rude. But it is a good, snapping story in a vein of original saying and doing. As an instance stands the portrait of Miss Plinlimmon, the Matron, who did not maltreat the foundlings, whose heart was kind, whose aspirations to the poetic and literary life found vent in "occasional verses" sublimely true to would-be poetic achievement. We quote one among several gems:

> "Wounded here, you were shattered
> In the ankle—do not start!
> Much, much more it would have mattered
> In the neighborhood of the heart.
> The bullet sped comparatively wide,
> And he survives to be Old England's pride."

Les Héros de Roman. By Boileau. Edited with introduction and notes by Thomas Frederick Crane, Professor of the Romance Languages in Cornell University. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1902.

This dialogue is not by any means the best known, nor perhaps the best, of Boileau's writings. Critics give it merely a passing mention; some editions do not contain it, and this is the first time it has ever been published separately, even in French. 'Les Héros de Roman,' however, is far from being insignificant. Boileau declared it "the least frivolous" of his works. In fact, it is a parody and a "take-off" on the fiction of the day, written after the fashion of Lucian. The scene is laid in the nether world, and the dead heroes of Rome and Greece are the principal characters. That is what makes it an interesting and entertaining document of seventeenth-century literature. It is Boileau's protest against the absurdities of those long-drawn-out novels, in ten volumes, of D'Urfé, La Calprenède and Mlle. de Scudéry, which enjoyed such enormous vogue between 1620 and 1660. Boileau, like everybody else, had read them, and admired them, when he was in that early stage of dime-novel reading through which we all pass, and in which some always remain. But when he grew older, his rugged common sense began to be shocked by that artificial and childish literature in which shepherds were made to talk like *précieuses*, and captains of ancient times were shown indulging in sentimental and foolish *verbiage d'amour*, drawing maps of the "pays de Tendre," and busying themselves with the games of "questions" and "enigmas," that were the fashion of the drawing-rooms of the day. He then composed, in 1665, this dialogue, which he used to recite, with great success, to his friends, publishing it only after the death of Mlle. de Scudéry, and when many spurious editions had made it known to the public.

It may well be that 'Les Héros de Roman' does not possess the most delicate kind of wit, as M. Brunetière has it; but all will agree that it is an amusing, wholesome satire, which every student of that special side of French literature must and will enjoy. Accordingly, the edition that Professor Crane has brought out with such painstaking care and marked success is most welcome. Hardly any objections can be made to this excellent work, except, perhaps, that there is too much of it. The book is no longer an edition of Boileau with an introduction and notes. It is an exhaustive essay on Boileau, on French fiction and society in the seventeenth century, followed by a short appendix made up of Boileau's dialogue. The introduction covers 161 pages, while the dialogue occupies only 64. Moreover, there have been added to it some very important documents, such as the reproduction of one of the earlier versions of the dialogue, published in 1688, by friends who had heard Boileau recite it; some characteristic passages from the novels to which reference has been made; and, best of all, a facsimile of the famous *Carte de Tendre*.

The long introduction, full of interesting information and amusing quotations, makes excellent reading, and is as complete and up-to-date as the most exacting scholar would care to have it. Perhaps the author has spent too much time in conveying an idea of the plot of some of those novels

which to-day seem so dull that even a German writer, he tells us, gave one of them up in despair. As to the notes, which are all at the bottom of the page (one more precedent for which we must be grateful), they are very satisfactory as far as they go, but it seems to us that the editor has been too sparing of them. Some notes to guard students against obsolete expressions would not come amiss. Thus, in the following sentence: "Assurément ils n'ont pas osé lui toucher" (page 182), it was indispensable to note that the use of *lui* not merely is obsolete, but would now be ungrammatical. The same is true of "Je croyais que ce *fût* du bas-breton" (p. 218). The expression "faire voir du pays" (p. 192) cannot be explained by any of Littré's definitions, quoted in the note, but must be taken as a jocular reference to the love which Clélie will be able to display, thanks to her familiarity with the *Carte de Tendre*.

The book, in both type and form, is excellently got up. The publishers deserve their share of praise for having given such care to a work which lays no claim to a commercial success, but will, like the former works of the same author, remain a lasting credit to American scholarship.

Geschichte von Sul und Schumul, unbekannte Erzählung aus Tausend und eine Nacht. Nach dem Tübinger Unikum herausgegeben von Dr. C. F. Seybold. Leipzig: Spirgatis. 1902. Pp. xviii, 104.

This is probably the most important communication bearing on the 'Thousand and One Nights' since Zotenberg's edition of 'Aladdin' appeared. The MS. from which the present text is printed is one in a collection made by Wetzstein at Damascus, and bought from him for the Tübingen University in 1864. There it has lain unnoticed ever since, a proof, if any were needed, that the great European libraries contain treasures of which no one dreams. Further, according to Professor Seybold, this MS. is the oldest yet found, older even than that of Galland, and dates, at latest, from the fourteenth century. What precise grounds, other than palæographical, exist for this dating he does not explain. The MS. is singular, also, in the care with which it has been written. Although by no means in classical Arabic, it has been vowelled throughout with an elaboration given usually only to Qur'ans and poetry. The vowelling, too, though aping classicality, follows, in the page of facsmile at least, the colloquial consonantal spelling. Altogether, the problem presented even by the MS. is an interesting and complicated one.

As for the story, at the beginning a number of leaves have been lost, and we are plunged into the middle of the action. There are also some other gaps, but nothing which obscures the main outline. That is simplicity itself—the adventures of Sul in search of Shumul, who has been carried off by the Jinn on the eve of her marriage to him; but it involves some episodes of marked originality. Thus, it would be hard to parallel elsewhere in any collection of the 'Nights' Sul's adventures in the desert in connection with the stolen horse: they are purely Bedawi in type, and might have come from 'Antara' or the 'Bani Hilal.' Sul's intimate relationship with monks and the generally easy intercourse between Muslims and Christians is also strange to the 'Nights,' except, perhaps, in the very different story of Masrur and Zain al-mawasif. This is so marked as to furnish a possible dating-point. The conditions are that Egypt and Syria must have been under one government, and that this government must have been most tolerant, even to the point of permitting Muslims to embrace Christianity.

Again, there is here a bit of hypnotism not to be precisely paralleled in the 'Nights.' The passage is interesting, and may be translated thus:

"And when it was the second day, he [a certain king of enchanters] had Sul brought into his presence and said to him, 'I have determined now to make use of the magic mirror [*darb al-mandal;* Lane, 'Modern Egyptians,' chap. xii.], and thou shalt behold in it of marvels that in which the understandings are bewildered.' So he took Sul by the hand and brought him to a pool of water and made him sit beside the pool. Then the king had a censer of brass brought, on which were talismans and figures, and he had a rod of bamboo in his hand. . . Then he took the rod in his hand and threw frankincense into the censer, and murmured, and moved his lips and struck the pool with the rod. And the water began to boil and bubble and roar and rumble like rolling thunder, and Sul was confused and he fainted, and sleep seized him and he slept before the king. Then the king stretched out his hand and aroused him, and Sul looked on the place where he was, and lo! it was the abode of his father and his uncle and his folk and his people, and he looked upon his tent and upon the tent of Shumul, the daughter of his uncle, and upon their cattle pasturing, and he fell fainting."

The points of likeness with other stories are not so easy to trace. There is here, as in the story of Tuhfat al-qulub in the Breslau text, a good-natured, almost comic, Iblis. The general scheme of the supernatural reminds most closely of the stories of "Judar of Cairo" and "Ali and Zahir of Damascus" which Weil translated from the Gotha MS. The description of Damascus and the wanderings in Syria have points of contact with the story of Attaf, especially as it is given in the Cotheal MS. But the originality of this story in plot and in details is more striking than any resemblances.

The question remains as to its place in the structure of the 'Nights.' That it, for example, ever formed part of any extended collection is not clear. Only a certain number of Nights are indicated at the beginning, and these are not numbered. The formula runs only, "the next night"; otherwise the tale is in the mouth of a reciter, *qala-r-rawi*, "The rawi said." Was it, then, a custom to take a story which had never been incorporated in any recension of the 'Nights,' and which there was no intention of so incorporating, and give it a certain standing or suggest its nature by adding to it some of the characteristic formulas of that collection? This hypothesis appears possible, but it would have been well if Professor Seybold had entered in his preface upon the whole subject with greater detail. The text is admirably edited, but his introduction is much too fragmentary.

Hombres y Glorias de América. Por Enrique Piñeyro. Paris: Garnier Frères. 1903.

We have read every word of this little book, attracted not more by its contents than by the spirit of the author, which breathes from the grave, humane effigy that serves as frontispiece. The smaller half consists of a rapid portrayal of the conflict between freedom and slavery in the United States during the decade before the civil war. It is marked by resort to the best authorities, and by a clear personal adherence to the winning cause, with no apologies for the crime of slaveholding; yet also by independence and candor, as may be seen in Señor Piñeyro's treatment of Sumner and Lincoln and John Brown, of Buchanan and Taney. The point of view is the struggle for the control of the Senate, on which the pro-slavery ascendancy acquired under the Constitution depended. We have found scarcely anything to criticise, unless it be a certain failure to portray the evolution of Douglas and to make his later position with reference to slavery in the Territories plain. With the abolitionists proper we have here only incidentally to do. They are characterized (on p. 84) as "el grupo de fanáticos sublimes que consagran su vida, sin soñar en premio ni beneficio personal, á la realización de remotos elevados ideales." It is erroneously surmised on page 47 that few read 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' nowadays; quite the contrary is true, and no such reason was alleged for the recent decision to drop the work from the New York city school library lists. Moreover, the story has held the *stage* uninterruptedly for half a century.

The great controversy is considered anew in a subsequent very judicious review of Morse's 'Life of Lincoln.' Motley's Letters afford another leading topic. We get a glimpse of Theodore Parker and Mrs. Julia Ward Howe in Cuba in the loving and extended portrayal of the great Cuban educator, José de la Luz y Caballero, founder of the college El Salvador; and Ticknor is praised for his discernment and scholarship in the exposure of the fraudulent 'Centón Epistolario' of Don Antonio Vera y Zúñiga. Full of interest also are the critical chapters devoted to the Argentinian patriot, General José de San Martín; the Venezuelan codifier, grammarian, poet, translator of Victor Hugo, master of the Castilian tongue, who found the sphere of his greatest usefulness and honor in Chile, Andrés Bello; and to the Cuban Tyrtæus, Heredia, who is here vindicated against the disparagement of Menéndez y Pelayo. Finally, a review of Mariéjol's 'Pierre Martyr d'Anghera' offers an opportunity to delineate this "reporter" of things American in the sixteenth century.

The fame of not one of the worthies enumerated above as flourishing in the nineteenth century, can be said to have reached this continent except among students of history, and for this reason if for no other we could wish a wide circulation of these essays of Señor Piñeyro's among those who have command of the Spanish. It will be long, we fear, before our ignorant chauvinism (rekindled by imperialistic folly) can become aware of the greatness and purity of the "hombres de América" who have shaped the fortunes of the vast continent about to be severed from ours by the international waterway. Any one who knows what are the true glories of both Americas, will feel it a privilege to reflect upon them with the aid of so enlightened a guide as our author, accustomed (to use his own phrase applied in an-

other connection) "mirar las cosas con inalterable serenidad."

Down the Orinoco in a Canoe. By Perez Triana. With an introduction by R. B. Cunninghame Graham. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1903.

"Where in thunder is Bogoter?" asked an American Secretary of State, after conferring the appointment of Vice-Consul at Bogotá upon an American citizen whose ambition it was to represent his country at the capital of the South American Republic of Colombia. Mr. Cunninghame Graham, who stands as literary sponsor for Señor Triana's booklet, tells us, in a brightly written preface, that Bogotá to-day is "without doubt the greatest literary centre south of Panama"; and that "in Bogotá more serious literary work is done during a month than in the rest of the republics in a year." It is, he says, "in a way a kind of Chibcha Athens." So the literary lights of Lima, Caracas, Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Ayres, and Santiago—to say nothing of those of Georgetown, British Guiana—must pale their ineffectual fires before the brilliancy of the capital of a state which beats even Venezuela in the frequency of its bloody revolutions. In a fit of sweet reasonableness, Mr. Cunninghame Graham admits the soft impeachment of his generation, that he is himself eccentric, and, judging from the book before us, we cannot but think his affectation about Bogotá somewhat peculiar.

'Down the Orinoco in a Canoe' is an unsatisfying and disappointing performance. The title is altogether misleading, for there is very little about the Orinoco in these pages. In fact, in chapter xix., the writer candidly admits that he brings "no new or useful contribution from a scientific point of view." To make amends, he proceeds to give (p. 238) information about the Orinoco taken from a paper by Col. George Earl Church, which was published in the *Geographical Journal* for April, 1901. There is more about the Meta, a tributary of the Orinoco, than about the Orinoco; but all that was worth saying about both rivers might have been told in a short magazine article. Fleeing from one of the ever-recurring revolutions that afflict the republic of Colombia, Mr. Triana, who is son of a former President of that highly polished state, thought it would be safer for him to take flight by a sort of back door to his native land, instead of going to Panama or Colon. He hurried across country till he struck the River Tua, by which he reached the Meta in four days. After several days' journey on the Meta, he struck the Orinoco two days after leaving Santa Catalina. Some part of the journeying on this great river was done, not in a canoe, but in "a one-masted schooner," presumably a sloop. At Bolivar a steamer was taken as far as the British island of Trinidad. A few natives and some alligators were seen; but story there is none to tell. Mr. Triana is evidently an educated gentleman who is a bit of a philosopher, but his book is a mere pot-boiler that will hardly add to the literary fame of Bogotá.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Agnus, Orme. Sarah Tuldon. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Alice Freeman Palmer. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
An English Garner: (1) Social England Illustrated: A Collection of XVIIth Century Tracts, with an Introduction by Andrew Lang; (2) Critical Essays and Literary Fragments, with an Introduction by J. C. Collins. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Beach, H. P. A Geography and Atlas of Protestant Missions. 2 vols. and plates. Student Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions.
Beazley, C. R. Voyages and Travels, mainly during the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Berens, L. H. Toward the Light. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.
Blair, Emma H., Robertson, J. A., and Bourne, E. G. The Philippine Islands. Vol. III. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Breckinridge, S. P. Legal Tender. Chicago: University Press.
Bridgman, J. C. Happenings in Our Home. Boston: J. C. Bridgman; New York; E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
British Standard Sections. Issued by the Engineering Standards Committee. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.00.
Buck, Winifred. Boys' Self-Governing Clubs. Macmillan.
Byron, Lord. Works. Vol. VI. Edited by E. H. Coleridge. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Campion, Thomas. The Muses' Library: Songs and Masques. Edited by A. H. Bullen. London; A. H. Bullen; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Chapman, J. W. Present-Day Evangelism. Baker & Taylor Co. 60 cents.
Clay, Felix. Modern School Buildings, Elementary and Secondary. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $10.
Cornaro, Louis. The Art of Living Long. Milwaukee: W. F. Butler.
Curtis, W. E. The True Abraham Lincoln. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. $2.
Dant, C. H. Archbishop Temple. London: Walter Scott Publishing Company; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Davis, A. M. The Confiscation of John Chandler's Estate. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Dickens, Charles. Poems and Verses. Edited by F. G. Kitton. Harpers.
Dickens, C. (1) The Life and Adventures of Nicholas Nickleby; (2) American Notes; (3) The Old Curiosity Shop. The Fireside Dickens. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Henry Frowde.
Dillon, J. F. John Marshall: Life, Character, and Judicial Services. 3 vols. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. $9.
Dobell, Bertram. Sidelights on Charles Lamb. London: The Author; New York: Scribners. $2.
Dopp, Katharine E. The Place of Industries in Elementary Education. Chicago: University Press.
Dunn, Archibald. The Bridge Book: Practical Talks About Bridge. London: George Routledge & Sons; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Fink, W. W. Echoes from Erin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Friedman, I. K. The Autobiography of a Beggar. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Gayley, C. M. Representative English Comedies. Macmillan. $1.50.
Gilman, D. C., Peck, H. T., and Colby, F. M. The New International Encyclopædia. Vol. VII. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Going, Maud. With the Trees. Baker & Taylor Co.
Guy, A. E. Experiments on the Flexure of Beams. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.25.
Hall, A. D. The Soil: An Introduction to the Scientific Study of the Growth of Crops. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Hardy, A. S. His Daughter First. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Harte, Bret. Trent's Trust. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Henniker, Florence. Contrasts. John Lane.
Henshall, J. A. Bass, Pike, Perch, and Others. (The American Sportsman's Library.) Macmillan. $2.
Hodder, Alfred. A Fight for the City. Macmillan.
Hoffman, F. S. Psychology and Common Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.30.
Holls, F. W. Correspondence between Ralph Waldo Emerson and Herman Grimm. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Holroyd, Charles. Michael Angelo Buonarroti. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.
Huart, Clémente. Littérature Arabe. Paris: Armand Colin. 5 fr.
Hubbard, G. H. Spiritual Power at Work. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Hundert Meister der Gegenwart. Parts 5, 6, and 7. Leipzig: E. A. Seemann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 3 marks each.
Hunter, Martha T. A Memoir of Robert M. T. Hunter. Washington: Neale Pub. Co. $2.
Is it Shakespeare? By a Cambridge Graduate. E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
La Tour, Landry, Chevalier Geoffrey de. The Booke of Thesegnementes and Techynge that the Knight of the Towre Made to his Doughters. Newnes; New York: Scribners. $3.
Layard, Sir Henry A., G.C.B., D.C.L. Autobiography and Letters. Edited by W. N. Bruce and Arthur Otway. 2 vols. Scribners. $7.50.
Long, W. F. Wood Folk at School. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Melandri, Achille. La Fille Du Braconnier. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Merriam, Mansfield. Treatise on Hydraulics. New ed. John Wiley & Sons. $5.
Military Minutes of the Council of Appointment of the State of New York, 1783-1821. Edited by Hugh Hastings. 3 vols. and index. Albany: Published by the State of New York.
Newton, Emma M. The Veil of Solana. Frank F. Lovell Book Co. $1.25.
Strong, C. A. Why the Mind Has a Body. Macmillan. $2.50.
Swift, F. R. Florida Fancies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Webster, W. C. A General History of Commerce. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.40.
Worsford, W. B. The Principles of Criticism. New ed. London: George Allen; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $1.12.

"It is to be wished that the ruthless devourers of the novels that sell by the hundred thousand would turn aside for the moment to such a book as 'LORD LEONARD THE LUCKLESS,'* and make acquaintance to their intellectual profit with it," says *The Providence Journal*, in an editorial headed "The Two Norrisses."

*2d Impression. $1.50. HENRY HOLT & CO.

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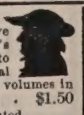

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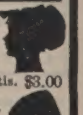

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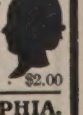

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 28, 1903.

The Week.

Senator Hanna's discomfiture over the question of endorsing President Roosevelt for renomination in the Ohio State Convention next month followed upon a pretty entanglement. He is against such endorsement, though Senator Foraker and apparently a majority of Ohio Republicans are for it. But does that mean that Mr. Hanna is himself a candidate? Oh, no; we have the word of one of his most active "lieutenants" that the Senator is not a candidate—though the frank man immediately added that "some of his friends think he is." Nor must any one rashly infer that Mr. Hanna is opposed to Roosevelt's renomination. He says that he expects it, and that there will be no opposition. Why, then, did the Ohio Senator speak of the attempt to get the State Convention to endorse as a "malicious" plan of his enemies? Ah, there you come upon a subtle principle of political ethics. Mr. Hanna is not only Senator, he is National Chairman. As such he—and *à fortiori* the State which he controls—must remain neutral. If his Convention were to declare for Roosevelt, "other candidates" would be "discouraged" and would accuse Chairman Hanna of partiality. "But, Senator, we thought there were no other candidates?" At this point appears the *deus ex machina* in the person of the President himself, saying that he desires the Convention's endorsement. "Why, then, of course," says Hanna.

A suspicious number of Senators and Representatives are hovering about the postal-frauds investigation in Washington. They are there to see that none of their creatures in the Department get hurt. They are there also to see that no retrenchment shall be allowed. Even the rural free-delivery service, the appropriation for which has been overdrawn by nearly a quarter of a milion, must proceed upon its present lavish and illegal basis, the Postmaster-General declares, and Congress be asked to make up the deficit. These are the pernicious influences that threaten to make the whole inquiry abortive. We do not complain at the investigation being so long drawn out; a prolonged examination is doubtless necessary in order to uncover all the facts. But what we do find wholly out of place is the deprecatory and nerveless attitude of Postmaster-General Payne. He neither acts nor talks like an aroused executive officer determined to root out the scandals and to turn out the rascals. The situation cries aloud for a vigorous chief who will give the investigation an unmistakable edge. Complacent interviewing of interested politicians is peculiarly ill-timed. We should be glad, indeed, to see Mr. Payne show for a few moments the spirit of Robert Lowe. That statesman once objected to shaking hands with a politician (as he took him to be), whereupon the latter protested, "But, Mr. Lowe, you know me quite well." "Yes, indeed, I know you far too well, and I don't want to have anything more to do with you."

We are daily getting light upon the influence of war on national life. Mr. Heath and Mr. Tulloch have enabled us to see what happens in a great department of the Government when hostilities have begun and the usual safeguards and restrictions are done away with. Now comes the Commissioner of Pensions with the startling announcement that more than 22 per cent. of the "veterans" of the war with Spain have already applied for aid from the Government. He has not only had 65,000 applications, but they are pouring in upon him by the hundred, although it is but just five years and one month since the war began. Only about 15,000 troops, it will be remembered, were under fire at Santiago, and probably not more than 6,000 seamen and marines saw active service. Of the 65,000 applications, 57,046 come from invalids, and 8,390 from widows and dependents. At the close of 1872, seven years after the end of the civil war, only about 6 per cent. of the Union soldiers had applied for Government aid, although that war lasted five years instead of a few months. As the soldiers of the Spanish war were all carefully examined by surgeons before enlistment, it would seem that there has been a marked deterioration in the physique of our young Americans in the last forty years. Whether this be so or not, there has plainly been a marked falling off in their manhood, and a shocking increase in their readiness to apply for Government aid.

Gov. Yates of Illinois has signed the Mueller bill, granting to the cities of that State the right to own their own street railway lines and to lease them for twenty-year terms, or operate them, if they choose to do so. The Governor hesitated long, and finally acted with great reluctance, but did not care to fly in the face of public sentiment in Chicago and elsewhere, even in order to please the Chicago boss, who, after the manner of his kind, was making frantic efforts to secure undue privileges for favorite corporations. The enactment of the Mueller bill, which will forever prevent the granting or renewal of long-time street-railway franchises in Chicago, as well as in other cities of Illinois, is the work of public opinion, aroused and directed toward the accomplishment of practical, affirmative results. For years the street railway companies of Chicago have been struggling to obtain long-term renewals of their expiring franchises. Once they succeeded in securing a bill from the Legislature permitting the renewals, but the city authorities dared not act in the face of public protests. Organized bodies of citizens took the matter in hand, and as a result the next Legislature was forced to repeal the law. The Council was purged largely as a result of a public demand for the protection of the franchise rights belonging to the people.

It is a singular fact that the impulse toward municipal betterment felt strongly during the last decade in all cities has taken, in Chicago, almost to the exclusion of everything else, the form of this demand for the safeguarding of franchise rights. Thus the Administration of Mayor Harrison, vulnerable in so many other respects, has been able to maintain its power for many years because it has succeeded in associating itself in the public mind with this principle. The fight between the corporations and the citizens of Chicago has been long and bitter, but the Mueller bill, passed by a reluctant Legislature and approved by a hesitating, unwilling Governor, has easily given the victory to the people. The bill possesses many of the features of the Elsberg Rapid Transit bill, introduced in our own Legislature for the purpose of giving the city control of the subways, but defeated in the closing hours of the session. Like that measure, it provides for short-time leases of lines owned by the city, and permits municipal operation in case proper terms cannot be secured from the leasing companies. It is unlikely that the city will undertake municipal operation, though the fact that it possesses the right to do so, at its option, is expected to give it the upper hand in negotiations with applicants for leases.

Gov. Odell's account of the State finances, given in his memorandum approving the 13-100 of one mill direct tax, is satisfactory. The appropriations of the Legislature of 1903, which also received the Governor's approval, amount to a total of $23,497,442. This is $1,500,537 more than a year ago, but this sum is more than accounted for by items of extraordinary expense, so that the regular cost of administering the State

government is not heightened. A single item carries $1,300,000 of the actual increase. This amount is to be expended in providing quarters for the growing population of the insane hospitals, and is an expenditure fully justified. The additional receipts for the State resulting from the increase of the excise tax are estimated by the Governor at $5,005,750, slightly more than was expected. The surplus, instead of being depleted, will thus be enlarged during the coming year, and the suspension of the direct tax for at least two years longer is practically assured, except, of course, for the small canal-debt tax, which must still be direct under the Constitution.

Everybody will sympathize with the troubles of Lieut.-Gov. Higgins. The poor man went to Syracuse to attend the meeting of the State Fair Commission, fondly presuming that, as the second officer of the State and an American citizen, he could select what hotel he pleased. But no sooner had he got fairly settled in the hostelry of his choice than he was informed that the Barbers' Union was in trouble with the management thereof, and that he would have to leave. This was mortifying to the Lieutenant-Governor, but, of course, he had no alternative. Labor had exercised its *liberum veto*, and a mere elected official had to yield. He meekly transferred himself and the headquarters of the Fair Commission to another hotel, not under the ban of the barbers. Our chief cause of regret is that the Union was not considerate enough to tell Mr. Higgins in advance just what he had to do. It is awkward to assume the air of being your own master, and then be cruelly reminded that you are not. The next time our brave Lieutenant-Governor leaves home, the Union should provide him with full travelling directions, telling him just what railways and trolleys are not "scab," and just what inns are unionized. Then he can at least keep up the appearance of being a free man, though in reality a slave.

The spirit in which New York commemorates, this week, the story of her birth and growth, will be a good test of the character of her citizens. Celebration of a wonderful past may induce either a noble pride or a foolish vainglory. It is like going into a gallery where the portraits of our ancestors hang. They are ours, and yet not ours—ours if we cherish their example and practise their virtues; not ours if the unworthy life of the descendants casts its shame backwards upon the progenitors. So, to-day, in re-reading the marvellous annals of our great city, in going back to her remote beginnings—as the New World reckons age—in counting her towers and marking her bulwarks, we shall fail utterly of the due effect of this festal week unless we attain something better in the way of civic feeling. A large part of the city's public life has, after all, to be written in our municipal government; and how to keep that honest and worthy of no mean city should be the question asked by all of us this week. We may well felicitate ourselves that the vulgar bandit, Croker, is not here to-day to represent the city as he did at the time of the Dewey celebration. That we have at this time of celebration a Mayor who can act and speak as a gentleman, is cause, not only for rejoicing, but for high resolve. We must not allow the barbarians to overwhelm us again. We must see to it that the "great humanity which beats along the stony streets" of New York shall find its expression and safety in a government made up of our best citizenship.

Five Councilmen in a Pennsylvania town have determined to put the new libel law to the test. A local newspaper, it appears, charged them with having brought pressure to bear on a railroad company with the object of securing passes. This charge caused the Councilmen to suffer great mental pain and anguish, for which they are to demand compensatory damages. Having read Gov. Pennypacker's memorandum in approval of the libel law, they naturally think that damages should be heavy. It is not likely, however, that either town Councilmen or Governors in Pennsylvania will long be content with this sort of legal relief. Having once made a start in defence of pure patriots in office, too often sadly misunderstood, the only logical next step is to increase the penalty. The inefficiency of the new law has already been demonstrated, though it has been little more than a fortnight in operation. It is powerless to aid Gov. Pennypacker to defend himself against the storm of ridicule which has followed his approval of the bill. To bring civil suits for damages would only increase the absurdity of his position. We think that the Governor, in order to save himself, will have to secure the reënactment of the law he alluded to so feelingly, whereby he may draw and quarter cartoonists, Bishops, and others who lampoon him.

The first extensive and sweeping settlement of the labor troubles now or lately afflicting the country comes from Denver, a locality in which we should hardly have expected to find a precious example of moderation and good sense. That city, like many others, has been lately divided into opposing camps of capital and labor, and the organizations have been so complete that they have seemed to reproduce the old fable of the belly and the members. But just as the starving process was about to begin, a committee of the Chamber of Commerce and of a local labor union came together, and made a settlement which was ratified on both sides, and all strikes, lockouts, and boycotts were declared off. The dispatches say that the victory seems to be with the laboring men. It would be ungracious to deny them praise for the conciliatory mood which they have displayed, but we observe that while the agreement forbids employers to discharge workmen because of their affiliations with unions, it also permits them to employ non-union men. The other terms of settlement are equally honorable to both sides, embracing a plan of arbitration for all existing disputes in all trades whatsoever. Such an agreement is well worth studying by other cities similarly perturbed.

The collapse of the strike on the Government railways in Australia was due, as Mr. Irvine, the Premier, stated in an interview, to the overwhelming force of public opinion and the determination of the people that the Government should be supreme. Although the strikers were Government employees, they had allied themselves with a trade union which bound them to obey the orders of that organization rather than those of their employer, the State. This action was in conflict with the regulations under which they were serving. The Government, accordingly, ordered them to sever their connection with this outside society. They refused to do so, and a general strike of engine drivers and firemen followed. Parliament was summoned in extra session, and the Premier introduced a bill making participation in the strike punishable by fine and imprisonment. In his speech he said that this was not a movement for higher wages or better conditions of labor, but a deliberate and long meditated revolt against established authority, and that all other business must be suspended until the revolt was put down.

The bill provided that any employee who left work without due notice, and any person interfering in any way with employees at work, or distributing strike funds, or encouraging the strike, should be subject to the penalties of the bill. The police were empowered to enter strike meetings and disperse the people attending them. This measure was introduced on the 15th of May, and the Premier declared that he would accept no communication from the strikers but unconditional surrender. Two days later the surrender came. Before this, however, the men had begun to desert the union singly or in small groups, so that fifty trains were running before the strike was formally declared off. Of course, this strike differed entirely from an ordinary one, since its success would have been a subversion of the Government. This fact

was realized by the entire legislative body, including the special representatives of labor in the Parliament, who admitted in the debates that the position of the strikers was untenable.

The *Financial Chronicle* prints figures showing that the circulating medium has increased $114,000,000 during the past twelve months; that is, from May 1, 1902, to May 1, 1903. Reference to the details given in the Treasury reports shows that $78,000,000 of this increase consists of gold certificates, for each dollar of which a gold dollar is deposited in the Treasury. Notwithstanding this increase in the quantity of the metallic currency, there is a perceptible tremor in the stock market every time that a small shipment of gold is made to Europe or to South America. Against the increase of $78,000,000 for a single year in our stock on hand, the greater part of which has come from our own mines, the outflow, with the present movement, has been only $3,605,000 —an amount quite insignificant when measured by our total holdings or our annual increase.

There is no more refreshing reading nowadays than the debate going on between Count Reventlow and Rear-Admiral Melville as to the merits of the German battleships. The courtly and gallant Chief Engineer of the United States navy is bent on wiping out the insult to the Emperor's fleet which came from the mouth of our indiscreet hero, Dewey—or which was, at least, attributed to him. Melville chivalrously insists that the Emperor's ships are the better; Reventlow, with his lowest bow, is equally positive that they are quite inferior. "After you, Count," exclaims to-day our own polite Chief Engineer; "your ships have my pet triple screw feature, are free from luxurious fittings, and are faster." We have no idea that the worthy Count will allow himself to be put down in this way. He is, it must be confessed, a sly dog, and fears the Greeks bearing gifts. Melville, he explains, is not talking as he does to compliment Germany, but to get more and better ships at home. True enough, but if there is any other reason for Reventlow's running down his country's fleet we should like to know it. This is the real aim of all naval controversies and revelations—to show the taxpayer how necessary it is for him to put his hand into his pocket again. But if it comes to a choice between the calling of names and the friendly rivalry of Melville and Reventlow, we are quite willing to have these doughty disputants keep up their contest in compliments all summer.

M. Rouvier, the French Minister of Finance, is confronted by a deficit of nearly $25,000,000. Next year's budget threatens even increased expenditures. A vast extension of schools will be necessary, through the dispersal of the teaching orders, but it is certain other items which are causing widespread uneasiness. The "projet de loi Bertaux," containing sweeping innovations in regard to the personnel of the French railway systems and the retiring pensions of railway employees, has twice passed the Chamber of Deputies, and now waits only the action of the Senate. This alone would involve an increase in annual expenditure reckoned at about $20,000,000. Then, too, the question of State purchase of some of the principal lines has again come to the fore. To meet these prospective outlays M. Rouvier has been driven to some unusual tax proposals. France has already a cumbrous door and window tax. She has also an excessively elaborate "contribution de patente"— tax not upon total incomes, but upon trade profits so far as they can be estimated from external indications. This tax falls into three parts —a fixed duty determined by the nature of the business; a rate varying with the rent of the premises; and a sort of license duty for the specific business carried on. M. Rouvier would abolish the archaic door and window tax, and extend the "contribution de patente" to incomes in general. But an income tax based on the declaration of the individual may not, and sometimes does not, work equitably. Also, governmental assessment on the basis of purely external criteria may prove thoroughly fallacious and easily unjust. Given a government in straits for money, the appraising of personal income may exhibit an imaginative power that is fairly startling to the "contribuable." The Italian recognizes this diabolic ingenuity on the part of his Government, and makes the avoidance of it part of the education of his children. However, the latest dispatches indicate that the French Cabinet has become impressed with the virtue of retrenchment, and will in the end prefer a heroic cutting down of expenditure to either borrowing or devising yet more elaborate and searching schemes of taxation.

If the world were waiting to see automobiling of a certain sort expire of its own reckless folly, the ghastly result of the Paris-Madrid race would seem to supply the last-needed touch of horror. The dead, dying, and maimed are reckoned up as after a battle or tornado. From such disaster the State of New York has sought to protect its citizens by statutes governing the use of automobiles. The law was considerably amended at the last session of the Legislature, and now establishes three speed rates for varying conditions, as follows: in closely built sections of cities, not more than eight miles per hour; in streets where houses are one hundred feet apart, not more than fifteen miles per hour; in country highways, not more than twenty miles per hour. There are other more detailed restrictions. Within half a mile of a post-office, or when passing a person driving a horse or other domestic animal, or when passing a pedestrian, or when crossing a main highway, speed must be reduced to eight miles an hour. Not more than ten miles an hour is permitted when passing a schoolhouse between 8 A. M. and 4 P. M. For a second offence in violation of any of these provisions, an automobilist may be imprisoned for a term not exceeding thirty days and he may also be heavily fined. For a first offence a fine only is imposed. Some of these provisions have been objected to as practically impossible of observance, but as long as any owners of automobiles give evidence of such recklessness as led to the slaughter on the French highway, they must expect the most persistent efforts to hold them in check by legislation.

The idea that Oxford University may become bankrupt through the kindness of the late Cecil Rhodes will startle many people; and yet such a possibility is suggested in a recent letter to the London *Times* by H. H. Turner, Savilian professor of astronomy. Pointing to the recurring annual deficits in running expenses, he declares that either the University must increase its charges to undergraduates, or else some benefactor must come to the rescue. "Otherwise," he writes, "the advent of the Rhodes scholars will probably make Oxford bankrupt, for, of course, in an endowed university, every new student is a new expense." Although Professor Turner is doubtless guilty of some rhetorical exaggeration, the fact remains that more than one American college is struggling with a similar problem. The college spends on each student from one to two hundred dollars more than he returns in tuition fees; consequently, a large growth in numbers, without a corresponding growth in endowment, means a deficit. The establishment of scholarships, a popular form of philanthropy, adds nothing to the general resources of the college; for every student thus attracted is an additional drain upon the common fund. A new building is an impressive monument to a liberal patron, but—unless it be a dormitory—it may involve the college in considerable expense for maintenance. If, say, $2,000 is necessary for insurance, repairs, heat, light, and janitor's attendance for a recitation hall costing $100,000, the building must be endowed with $50,000 to keep it from mortgaging the income of an equal amount of the common fund. Unrestricted gifts are the greatest present need of most of our colleges.

PARTY "DISLOYALTY."

A dinner was given on Thursday evening in honor of a State Senator who has dared at Albany to bring his legislative problems to the bar of his own individual judgment and conscience; and when he declared that with his two colleagues he intended to continue this course until the end of his legislative career, he was cheered to the echo, for it seemed an amazing display of courage. A telegram from the Governor expressing, not altogether unguardedly, his friendly sentiments toward this same Senator, called for black headlines in the morning papers, and gave rise to ominous predictions of party discord and disunion. Yet the three Senators have not declared war on any principle to which their party is devoted. They are not wicked free-traders, or treasonable critics of Duty and Destiny in foreign parts. They have merely announced as their rule of public conduct two very definite propositions: first, that the will of the party is the will of a majority of the members of it, not the dictum of one man, although he be known as the boss; second, that there are many legislative measures which have no bearing upon party principles or even upon party policy, and that such bills should be dealt with on their merits, even though the private concerns of some party leader may be involved.

This does not sound like a startling or revolutionary programme. The fact that there has been so much stir about it, simply reveals the state into which we have fallen under the influence of the boss system. Senator Brown said at the dinner given to him that, as a result of this system, the legislative limb of the government had become practically paralyzed. He was quite right. Most of the members of the Legislature were mere dummies, attached to strings which were pulled from a distance. The dummies were necessary as recording machines, but they possessed no other function. The whole atmosphere at Albany was confusing, stultifying. The strings were pulled, not only by the boss, but also by a half-dozen intimates of the boss, who traded on his name and power. If they were employed by a railroad company to push a "deal" through the Legislature, they rushed to Albany and declared that the bill was "a party measure." Nobody was consulted about it, its merits were not considered, there was no conference of leaders on it, no caucus even. How it came to be a party measure, nobody condescended to explain or could explain. But the dummies obediently bobbed their heads to make the record. No bill was too local or too insignificant to become a "party measure" if properly introduced, and to vote against it was to be guilty of party disloyalty, and to read one's self out of the party organization.

The paralyzing effect of the system was not confined, of course, to the Legislature. The supremacy of the boss in the party organization depended on keeping really strong men out of it, and they were accordingly eliminated as rapidly as they developed independence or power. Voting strength on election day became a minor consideration as compared with controlling strength in the primaries. The Republican organization in New York County, for instance, by a process of elimination, has developed great efficiency in the nominating conventions, but the fact that this has been attended by a corresponding weakness at the polls has been regarded with indifference.

It was under such circumstances as these that the determined action of the three Senators became an astonishing "revolt" to the bosses, but an object of inspiration and hope to sincere party men who objected to the use of their party's name as a cloak for selfishness and bad schemes of government and administration. It represented the first entering of the wedge, and a great creaking and splitting followed. Some timid souls feared that it was making chaos of legislation, but the statutes of 1903 must have reassured them. Few legislatures in recent years have threatened so much and done so little which was vicious. And above all, a spirit of decent independence has been awakened, which is spreading from day to day. A new idea of party loyalty has been proposed and seems likely to become established. Under it, devotion to party principles constitutes the test, not services rendered in aid of the selfish schemes of the boss. Under it, also, matters and measures having no partisan bearing are left to the individual judgment and conscience.

The movement as it stands is distinctly hopeful. It is not confined to New York city, or even to New York State. There are indications elsewhere of a growing realization of the absurdity of purely partisan action on matters having no relation to party principles. Partisanship in the conduct of municipal affairs has already been abandoned by a majority of thinking people. Partisanship in matters pertaining to State government is now the subject of keen criticism. In its annual report, the Legislative Voters' League of Chicago declares that the control of the Legislature by the forces of evil in Illinois would be impossible but for the fact that the Legislature is organized on party lines. What, asks the League, have parties to do with the chief subjects which State Legislatures must act upon, such as crimes, civil and criminal procedure, regulation of corporations, regulation of railroads, city charters, charities, taxation, and the like? Shall legislatures be for ever limited in this way because twice in each six years there are United States Senators to elect? The discussion is suggestive and significant. We shall see what we shall see; but, in the meantime, we may rejoice over the destruction, which is going on before our eyes in our own State, of a false and vicious notion of obligation to party.

EMERSON THE CITIZEN.

In the course of the Emerson centenary celebrations, now full upon us, we shall hear much of the "voice oracular" which sounded in the ears of Matthew Arnold in Oxford, as well as of Moncure Conway in Virginia, and which, we would fain hope, still comes with trumpet call to eager youth. We shall be told of the skilled rhetorician, with that sure eye for the right word of which Dr. Holmes gave his amusing account, and with readiness to exalt at one time "Fate," at another "Power," in the certainty that the reader would receive, from the very antithesis and exaggeration, the due impression intended. Emerson the Philosopher will be discoursed on, and just why he narrowly failed of being a poet among the greatest will be explained. We may be pardoned if we dwell for a moment on the humbler theme of Emerson the Citizen.

His theory and practice of "the republican at home" seem to us to be peculiarly opportune. They have a pertinence to present problems. We are passing through a period when the right and duty of free, full, independent criticism of governmental and national policy and action are challenged. On the one hand, we have seen the opposition of many right-thinking men muffled because they feel that it will be of no use. On the other, we have protest hissed at as disloyalty. But all this was abhorrent to Emerson's soul. "If the motto on all palace gates is 'Hush,' the honorable ensign to our town halls should be, 'Proclaim.'" "Just now the supreme public duty of all thinking men is to assert freedom. Go where it is threatened and say, 'I am for it, and do not wish to live in the world a moment longer than it exists.'" And Emerson's civic conduct was of a piece with his teachings. He sent a strong letter of protest to President Van Buren, at the time of the unlawful and violent expulsion of the Cherokees from their own land—a letter which it is probable, as Emerson's biographer says, that the "sleek patriot" in the White House never read. No matter; the good citizen had done his duty and freed his mind. He had lived up to his own precept, as he did again at the time of the Fugitive Slave Act: "Let us not lie nor steal, nor help to steal, and let us not call stealing by any fine names, such as Union or patriotism." New England is to-day building the tomb of that prophet of the civic conscience. His successors it is stoning, as a former generation stoned Emerson.

By breeding and intellect an aristocrat, Emerson's political convictions

carried him into the party of reform and progress. Though, like Mark Pattison, he confessed his preference for living with the Whigs, he also acknowledged his desire, on principle, always to vote with the Democrats. One solemn Whig who heard Emerson lecture, in 1839, said that he could account for his enthusiasm in defence of the rights of man only on the supposition that he was angling for a place in the Custom House! It was, of course, in the irrepressible conflict with slavery that Emerson's democracy had its sharpest and most triumphant test. Beginning with a kind of philosophic and detached weighing of the terrible problem—such as Orville Dewey kept up until the very outbreak of the civil war, in sheer agony of inability to choose his side—he pressed on with such increasing definiteness and ardor of conviction that he finally espoused the cause of John Brown, saying (we quote from Col. Higginson):

"All gentlemen are on his side. I do not mean by gentlemen people of scented hair and perfumed handkerchiefs, but men of gentle blood and generosity, 'fulfilled with all nobleness,' who, like the Cid, give the outcast leper a share of their bed; like the dying Sidney, pass the cup of cold water to the soldier that needs it more."

Emerson's attitude on the question of the negro's capacity is surely worth a paragraph to-day. At first, his feet were taken in the snare which is again catching good men. "The degradation of that black race . . . is inevitable to the men they are." "The negro is created on a lower plane than the white." But that practical atheism was soon outgrown. By 1844 Emerson maintained the negro's capability, and in 1845 he described as follows the current doctrine of race inferiority:

"It is that the Creator of the negro has given him up to stand as a victim, a caricature, of the white man beside him; to stoop under his pack, to bleed under his whip. If that be the doctrine, then I say, if He has given up his cause, He has also given up mine who feel his wrong. But it is not so; the universe is not bankrupt; still stands the old heart firm in its seat, and knows that, come what will, the right is and shall be; justice is forever and ever."

It was, then, Emerson the patriotic Citizen who would not sit silent when base deeds were being done in the name of country. He stood for free speech and free men. No partisan, he yet was ready to sacrifice himself when the cause was good. It was a part of his religion to see that the land was well governed. Far from approving or practising the fastidious indifferentism of too many highly educated men of his time and ours, Emerson believed that a care for politics is as great an interest as a rational being can have. His fine example of civic duty is no small part of his contribution to the strength and greatness of this nation.

CHAMBERLAIN'S REACTIONARY PROTECTIONISM.

The later utterances of Mr. Chamberlain place him squarely on the protectionist platform. In a speech on Thursday he told the working classes that preferential tariffs would mean three or four times their present wages; and in the House of Commons on Friday night he said that the proposed tariff would furnish means for old-age pensions. Mr. Chaplin and the agricultural societies expect that the tariffs will raise the price of cereals, and that, too, is a part of Mr. Chamberlain's expectation. So Mr. John Bull is to pay higher wages for labor and higher prices for food, and his net profits are to be so increased by the operation that he can pension all needy people who are above sixty years of age. But, it may be asked, is not Mr. Chamberlain's policy sanctioned by experience on this side of the water? Why cannot John Bull do what Brother Jonathan has been doing with such conspicuous success these many years? The first reason is that J. B. is not exploiting a new country whose resources are so great that waste and bad economy may, for a long time, go hand in hand with great prosperity. Another difference between the two countries which is not sufficiently observed is, that we have a larger and more compact free-trade area than Great Britain has or can have. The exchange of products between any two sections of the United States (not counting colonies) can be effected within a few days at slight cost of transportation and without customs duties. Such economical advantages were never before seen in the world. They overbalance the waste of protectionism which would severely pinch any country that has to import the larger part of its raw materials and food supplies, as England does and must increasingly continue to do.

In the mutations of English politics that would accompany any deviations from the principles of free trade, Lord Rosebery has been reckoned as one of the Liberal chiefs (perhaps the only one) who might possibly side with Mr. Chamberlain. He took occasion on Monday, however, to define his position and to place himself in accord with the views expressed by the Prime Minister, rather than with those of the Colonial Secretary. In a speech at Burnley, he said that, while he did not consider free trade as a part of the "Sermon on the Mount," he would not favor a change without long and deep consideration. "We must consider," he said, "whether it would be judicious to quarrel with customers who give us two-thirds, or possibly three-quarters, of our trade in order to oblige customers who give us a quarter or a third of it." He thought that, before the tariffs were changed, the colonies ought to be represented in the government of the country. This idea is contrary to Mr. Chamberlain's scheme as presented at the Colonial Conference in London last year. In that programme, the plan of preferential trade came first, and was presented as a means of cementing the Empire in a political sense. The Colonial Premiers agreed to recommend to their legislatures certain changes in their tariffs favorable to the mother country in the event that the latter should adopt tariffs discriminating in their favor.

The one thing wanting in Mr. Chamberlain's plans is a detailed scheme for carrying them into effect. Imperial Federation is a sounding phrase. It can be made attractive to a mixed audience by a speaker of Mr. Chamberlain's versatility, who deals with it only in general terms. An effective picture can always be drawn of Britannia and her children assembled together at a Christmas dinner; and if anybody, at such a time, should ask who pays for the dinner, he would be considered a sordid wretch or an unfeeling monster. But the Christmas dinner which Imperial Federation stands for is a continuous feast (or famine), and the question who pays for it is the principal, if not the sole, point to be determined by the participants. Sir Robert Giffen directed attention to this phase of Imperial Federation while the Conference was sitting last year. He noted the fact that no details of preferential trade had been laid before the conferring Premiers; and since the success of the project depended upon a satisfactory adjustment of separate items, he presented a partial list with a clear view of the difficulties to be faced. Sir Robert is by no means a Little Englander. He is a hard-headed Scotchman, who believes that no scheme of preferential trade will work unless it can be reconciled with the facts of daily life, and that Little England with pounds, shillings, and pence to the good is better than Imperial Federation with those factors on the wrong side of the ledger. We have never seen any attempt at a reply to Sir Robert's argument.

After the Conference had adjourned, Professor Bastable, the eminent writer on finance, took up the discussion on somewhat broader lines. He showed, in the first place, that a Zollverein for Great Britain and the colonies was impossible for geographical reasons. The only unions of this kind that had ever been carried into successful practice had been those of adjacent territory, around which the barrier of a common tariff could be drawn. Replying to the suggestion that, although an Imperial Zollverein could not be adopted in the form given to it by the independent states of Germany, it might still be adopted in substance, he showed that the differences of products are as great as those of geographical situation. Diversities so marked as those of India, South Africa, Australia, Canada, and the United King-

dom never could be made amenable to a common tariff. Therefore, the idea of a Zollverein, either in form or in substance, must be abandoned. Nor can anything in the way of preferential trade be found to take its place unless England squarely turns her back on her past and present conceptions of trade, and adopts a new one, the central idea of which is that the exchange of goods with British subjects is better than exchange with foreigners. Replying to Mr. Chamberlain's argument that the British Empire is so wide and its products so various that it might be self-sustaining, Professor Bastable pointed out that the main question was not that of self-sufficiency, but of cost. It is aside from the question to say, for example, that British colonies can produce all the cotton that England needs, unless it is shown that they can and will supply it as cheaply as the United States does.

If Great Britain is to adopt preferential duties in favor of her colonies, there is no reason why she should not adopt the same policy towards favored nations which are not united to her by political ties. Whenever she begins to discriminate among nations, she will have to discriminate also among producers at home. The agricultural interests represented by Mr. Chaplin will be as much opposed to free imports from Canada as from the United States, and, as Lord Rosebery pointed out in his speech at Burnley, there could be no such thing as a finality in tariffs, because the colonies would be constantly insisting on changes. In short, Mr. Chamberlain's scheme is so beset with difficulties in the United Kingdom itself that foreigners need give themselves little concern about its realization in practice.

THE GERMAN MERCHANT MARINE.

In a recent number of the *Fortnightly Review*, there appeared an article upon the growth of the German merchant marine. It is well worth the attention of all who are concerned with the development of our own mercantile fleet, since in the means taken to increase the number of ships flying the German flag there are several lessons which our American shipowners could study with profit.

Primarily, Germany has not hampered her commercial navy by any restrictive laws forbidding the purchase of vessels abroad, as is the case in the United States. Writing upon this point in *Nauticus*, several years ago, a German authority cited this country as being the last nation to stick to that antiquated policy, and rightly attributed to it, in a large degree, the failure of the American shipowners to regain their old position after the losses of the civil-war period. In Germany to-day, as with us, all materials intended for shipbuilding purposes are admitted duty free. There is not even the restriction prescribed by our own laws, namely, that the exemption from duties shall not apply when the vessels constructed of imported materials shall engage in the coast trade for a period of more than two months in any one year.

Except for some liberal postal subsidies, the German shipowners "in the main stand upon their own feet, and the support given us by the Government is repaid by us through the efforts we make to promote trade and traffic," to use the words of the head of the North German Lloyd, at the launching of the *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*, which has just arrived in this city for the second time. The subventions paid by the Empire to the North German Lloyd, the Hamburg-American Line, and the German East Africa Line, aggregate 7,500,000 marks, or, roughly, $1,800,000 annually. In return the several companies pledge themselves to maintain certain lines, to prepare their steamers for use in war time as auxiliary cruisers, and to carry the mails. There are plenty of Germans who do not believe in this policy of establishing steamer communication with out-of the-way places in advance of a commercial need, though they favor the very appreciable preferential rates given by the German Government railways to all articles used in shipbuilding. It must be said, however, that from the very beginning the attitude of the German shipowners has been far more self-respecting and independent than that of our Griscoms and Cramps. Certainly such open lobbying and such unblushing demands for enormous bounties on both tonnage and speed as we have witnessed in this country, have not been known in Germany.

The real secret of the success of the great German steamship companies is to be found in the words of the first chairman of the North German Lloyd Company. He declared in June, 1858: "We cannot count on assistance from the State; we must rely upon our own energy, work and judgment, coupled with suitable economy." This self-reliance is as marked a characteristic of German shipowners as is the thoroughness with which they, and the Government behind them, go about everything. While the companies have built better and better ships, and have extended their lines with remarkable enterprise, the Empire and the subordinate governments have improved harbors and docks, deepened the mouths of rivers, built canals, improved the lighthouse service, passed properly drawn laws in regard to the treatment of sailors, their food, the qualifying of officers, and the inspection of vessels. Under the personal direction of the Emperor, whose love for the water and whose interest in yachts and yacht racing have done so much to arouse popular interest in the merchant and military fleets, the Government has met shipowners and shipbuilders halfway in every case where it was possible. As a result, the pride of the nation in its marine power is great and deeply rooted. This is in itself a tribute to the foresight of the Government.

There is good reason for Germany's pride in her merchant marine. In 1870 Hamburg possessed only 37 steamers, with a tonnage of 191,000, while Bremen had but 27 of 171,500 tons. In 1898 these same harbors respectively sent out 377 and 259 steamers of 715,450, and 487,230 tons. In 1873 there were but 217 steamers flying the German flag; in 1899 there were 1,223, of more than a million tons. Whereas, in 1873, steamers of any size had to be purchased abroad, the German yards turn out to-day the fastest ships of the largest size—at least one of which, the *Deutschland*, is constructed entirely of German steel. In 1899, 69.6 per cent. of the imports and 66.3 per cent. of the exports of Germany were carried in German bottoms. From 1894 to 1899 the total shipping business increased more than 44 per cent. The recent bad times have, of course, had a depressing effect upon it, as they have upon other industries. But the prospects of the present year are again encouraging.

Among the largest companies, in addition to the Hamburg-American and North German Lloyd Lines, may be mentioned the German fleet of the Standard Oil Company, the German-Australian Company, the Woermann, the Hamburg-South American, the Kosmos, the Hansa, the Neptune, the Rickmers, the Argo, the Triton and Visurgis lines, whose ships visit every quarter of the globe. In the Mediterranean, as in the Orient, the competition of the German vessels is making itself keenly felt in English shipping circles, in which the purchase by Germans of three Chinese lines owned by Englishmen caused a feeling closely akin to consternation. Taken altogether, this brief summary of thirty years' surprising progress shows clearly that no nation can hope to maintain or to acquire the supremacy of the ocean without reckoning with the Germans of the North Sea.

THE FÊTES AT DELPHI.

ATHENS, May 3, 1903.

The termination of the ten-years' excavations upon the site of Delphi, by the French Archæological School at Athens, and the ceremony of the official handing over of the site to the Greek Government and of the inauguration of the new Museum there, were the occasion of a brilliant fête at the famous sanctuary yesterday. The occasion was indeed one which merited a fitting celebration. The renown in antiquity of the great Delphic sanctuary of Apollo, the interest with which, for the last ten years, the whole civilized world has been following the labors of the French excavators, the brilliant discoveries which have crown-

ed their efforts, the large sums of money expended in this truly disinterested work by the French Government, the assembly of scholars and notable personages from many lands to witness the final celebration —all served to render the occasion an impressive one, while the stupendous scenery of Delphi and perfect weather lent enchantment to the dramatic scene for which Delphi is well fitted. Strabo's comparison of it to a theatre has often been quoted, yet his phrase, though accurate, gives no conception of the real setting, the tremendous twin-cliffs which tower over the sacred precinct, the majestic snow-topped mass of Parnassus rising behind them more than 8,000 feet into the cloudless air, the deep glen of the Pleistos beneath, through which the torrent rushes, the precipitous rocky slopes of Mt. Kirphis opposite, the broad Crisæan plain spread out far below with its olive groves and bounded on the south by the blue waters of the Gulf of Corinth and the long mountain ranges of the Peloponnesus with their snowy peaks. It is a picture which no one would attempt to describe, but without a reference to which no account of Delphi, however slight, would be possible, for it was this extraordinary combination of natural features, striking awe and wonder to the beholder's mind, which caused it of old to be regarded as in very truth the seat of a Deity.

A brief review of its history may not be amiss here. Tradition connects the name of Delphi (from δελφίς, a dolphin, according to one etymology) with the legend of Apollo transformed into a dolphin, accompanying and guiding the ship which brought Cretan settlers to this shore; and the abundant traces of Mycenæan remains found in the course of the excavations seem to confirm this early connection with Crete. Homer calls it Pytho, and this name connects it with a still earlier time, when the first deities of the place were dispossessed by Apollo, who slew the guardian dragon Python. But, from the ninth century B. C., the fame of the Oracle of Delphic Apollo was fully established, and continued until its abolition by Theodosius, *circa* 385 A. D., though its influence had greatly declined some centuries before. Its rich treasures always exposed Delphi to the attacks of enemies. Thus, Xerxes attempted to invade it in 480 B. C., but was repulsed, as Herodotus tells us, by the god himself, who manifested himself in thunder, while at the same time enormous boulders from the cliff came crashing down upon the pass, routing the Persians utterly. The same thing happened again two centuries later, when, in 279 B. C., Brennus and his Gauls attempted to enter Delphi by the same road. In the early sixth century B. C., the great Temple of Apollo was destroyed by an earthquake, and was rebuilt by the Alcmæonidæ of Athens. It was destroyed again in the fourth century B. C., and rebuilt by a general subscription from all the states of Greece. This was the temple seen by Pausanias, the foundations of which are still standing. It was plundered several times, by the Phocians in 356 B. C., by Sulla in 86 B. C., and again by Nero, in a fit of rage at the Oracle's disapproval of his matricide. Constantine the Great carried off several of its treasures to Byzantium, and the bronze pedestal of the Platæan trophy may be seen in Constantinople today.

Thus the work of the French excavators was one of faith, not knowing to what extent their great outlay of money, time, and labor would be repaid by the results, or how much of the famous sanctuary would still be found to exist. The excavations have, however, amply rewarded them. The wealth of inscriptions, monuments, and sculptures brought to light has proved beyond their highest expectations. To describe in detail even the more important finds would exceed the limits and scope of this article; suffice it to say that they comprise offerings to the Oracle from every part of the ancient world, from Phrygia and the Scythian steppes to the Gates of Hercules and the shores of Africa, and from private individuals as well as states all over Greece; magnificent buildings, statues, columns, and altars, erected by great princes and states, side by side with the thousands of rude votive images and inscriptions dedicated by the poorest and the humblest; an exhaustive epitome of the life of antiquity, with its ambitions, its quarrels, its hopes and fears, through more than fifteen centuries. From the earliest mythical times down to the days of Julian the Apostate, humanity sought enlightenment, consolation, and help from the lips of the Pythian prophetess of Apollo; and throughout this long period her commands were obeyed and her priests wielded a political power similar to that exercised by the Church of Rome over Catholic Europe in the Middle Ages.

The results of the excavations are briefly as follows: The sacred precinct has been laid bare, a large irregular quadrangle lying upon the steep hillside, with gates at intervals in its walls, the main entrance being at the southeast corner, opposite the Castalian Spring. From this gate a Sacred Way, paved and lined on either side by votive buildings, statues, etc., leads up in winding curves to the great Temple of Apollo, of which only the substructions now remain, revealing the adyton, or subterranean chamber where the oracles were delivered. Before the temple stood the great Altar of the Chians, dedicated in the fifth century B. C., but the excavations around it proved that it had been a place of sacrifice from a remote age, the soil being composed of regular layers of Mycenæan, geometric, proto-Corinthian, Corinthian, and later pottery, in fragments, mixed with the ashes of animals and votive offerings in bronze. Above the Temple stood the Theatre, one of the best preserved in Greece; the Lesche, a building mentioned by Pausanias as containing two celebrated series of paintings by Polygnotus; and at the very top of the precinct the Stadium, commanding a fine view, and in fairly good preservation. The most important of these buildings, from the artistic point of view, are the Treasuries, in the form of little temples *in antis*, erected by various cities for depositing their offerings, and richly painted and decorated with sculptures. All are now in ruins, but so many of their fragments have been recovered that it has been decided to rebuild one of them, the Treasury of the Athenians, a trophy of the Battle of Marathon, which occupies a prominent position upon the Sacred Way, and will be, when finished, as beautiful a feature of the Delphic sanctuary as the exquisite little temple of Wingless Victory at Athens, restored in a similar way, is of the Acropolis. Just beyond this Treasury stand the Rock of the Sibyl and the Stoa of the Athenians, whose wall is covered with hundreds of inscriptions recording the emancipation of slaves, under the form of a sale to the Pythian god.

In the Museum the bas-reliefs and other sculptures belonging to the Treasuries of the Cnidians, the Sikyonians, and the Athenians are among the chief ornaments, others being the tall votive column of the Naxians, surmounted by a sphinx; the richly carved Omphalos, or stone which was supposed to mark the centre of the earth;* the famous hymn to Apollo inscribed upon a marble slab with musical notation; the charming Acanthus Column, surmounted by a group of three life-size dancing figures, a work of the fifth century B. C.; the votive statues of various kings and heroes; and, finally, the gem of the collection, which of itself would justify the entire excavation, the bronze statue of a charioteer of the greatest artistic beauty, dedicated by Polyzelos, brother of the tyrant of Syracuse, and probably set up between the years 478-472 B. C. No idea can be given, in this cursory and incomplete notice, of the treasures either in the Museum itself, or *in situ* in the precinct; but the large work upon Delphi soon to be published by M. Homolle and his collaborators will fully supplement our still imperfect knowledge of the finds.

In view of the part taken by the French Government in the excavations at Delphi, the presence of the French Minister of Education and Fine Arts was indispensable at the ceremony of making over the site with its finds to the Greek Government. Accordingly, the Minister, accompanied by several other officials, arrived in Athens some days ago, as the guest of the French School. On April 30 a garden party in his honor was given in the grounds of the school, at which his Majesty and several other members of the royal family of Greece were present. The famous Hymn to Apollo discovered at Delphi some years ago was given by the orchestra and three ladies concealed by a screen of foliage, while in the foreground meanwhile a tableau was enacted, reproducing from an ancient vase-painting Apollo Musagetes striking his lyre and surrounded by his choir of nymphs. An ode to Greece was also recited, and an ode in honor of M. Homolle, the distinguished director of the French School, to whom the excavations at Delphi are chiefly due.

The French Minister's stay in Athens was marked by a series of dinner parties and dances given in his honor by the members of the Greek Government, ending with a state dinner at the palace, after which the same evening the French party left for Delphi by the French man-of-war *Condor*, accompanied by a Greek gunboat. The yacht *Assos* had in the meanwhile set out with a large number of invited guests on board. They arrived at Itea the next morning, May 2, reaching Delphi at 10:30 A.M., when the ceremony of inaugurating the Museum began in the Hall of the Cnidians, where a beautiful facsimile of that Treasury has been erected. Speeches were made, first by M. Mavromichalis, Minister of Education and Fine Arts, representing his Majesty and the Greek Government, in whose names he thanked the representative of France for the great service it had rendered the cause of

*This, of course, is not the real Omphalos, which stood in the temple, but merely a votive offering in the precinct.

archæology and the Greek nation in supporting this important undertaking, and extolled the enlightened liberality of the French Government in everything that concerned science and art. He was followed by M. Homolle, who gave a rapid résumé of the excavations of the last ten years at Delphi, as well as of former labors upon this site. He stated the expense to have been 500,000 francs, and referred with gratitude to M. Bourgeois, the French Minister under whom the work was begun. He then thanked with his customary grace the representatives of his Majesty and of the Crown Prince as President of the Archæological Society of Greece, the Greek Government, and the archæological authorities, for the moral support they had extended to the undertaking, and the interest they showed in being present at the final ceremony. He expressed his thanks also to the French Minister of Education, the French Ambassadors at Athens and Constantinople, the directors of the various foreign Schools of Archæology, and the representatives of other learned bodies, speaking of their presence as a world-wide recognition of the importance of the Delphic excavations. He made special mention by name of two of the workmen, to whose devotion and skill the excavations owed much, and paid a tribute to the generous giver of the Museum, the late M. Syngros. He next referred to the decision of the City Council of Athens to defray the cost of reërecting the beautiful Treasury of the Athenians on its original site, regarding it as a kind of ancestral obligation and privilege. He then formally gave over the site, saying:

"I hand over to the Greek Government the legacy entrusted to me for the past ten years. The work began in April, 1893, and ended in April, 1903. I trust the time has proved fruitful. This hour is a memorable one to me. I resemble a father about to give his daughter in marriage, and experience similar feelings with regard to a site where we have worked for ten years and have experienced the deepest and purest emotions of discovery and scientific research, and you will therefore not misunderstand me when I recommend Delphi to your protection. She will always be for us a witness to the ancient glory of this land, a monument to the scientific devotion of the French School of Athens and of its gratitude to this hospitable country, an indissoluble bond uniting France and Hellas."

M. Cavvadias, General Ephor of Antiquities, then replied in the name of his Royal Highness the Crown Prince and of the Greek Archæological Society, whose congratulations and thanks to the French Government and to the French School of Athens he transmitted. He paid a warm tribute to the distinguished director of the school, to whose eminent achievements as a savant and executive ability, devotion, and enthusiasm the long and arduous work at Delphi with its brilliant results was due. He spoke of France, her recognition of Hellenic ideals, her generous readiness to respond in the cause of art and letters. He spoke of the Greek Archæological Society, founded in 1837, its recognition of its high mission and of the part taken therein by the sister schools of archæology at Athens, as attested by the long list of their labors and triumphs, which had reflected credit and glory upon their respective countries and opened a distinguished career to many of their young countrymen.

The French Minister of Education next spoke briefly, referring to the ethical teachings of the occasion, inspired by the traditions of the place. He was followed by M. Carapanos, Minister of Marine, in his capacity as Member of the French Institute and as a lover of antiquity—titles to which he has earned the right by his own important excavations upon the site of Dodona, the valuable results of which excavations he presented last year to the nation, and which now fill an entire hall in the National Museum at Athens. Speeches were then made by the representative of the French Academy of Fine Arts, by the Director of Higher Education in France, by the directors of the various foreign schools of archæology at Athens—Prof. R. B. Richardson in behalf of the American School and of the British School, Dr. Schrader in the name of the German Institute in the absence of Professor Dörpfeld, Dr. Adolf Wilhelm as director of the Imperial Austrian Institute at Athens.

The new Museum, with its various treasures, was then inspected by the visitors, after which the party assembled in the theatre, where a collation was served and toasts were drunk, while groups of picturesque peasant girls and youths danced to the music of the pipes. The scene was one of the greatest enthusiasm. After lunching, the party repaired to the Stadium, where foot races were run and prizes distributed, after which they returned to the Museum, where M. Mavromichalis, standing upon the steps, thanked the inhabitants of Delphi for the order, hospitable zeal, and enthusiasm which they had shown, the peasants replying with hearty cheers. The whole party then drove down to Itea, and embarked for Athens and Constantinople.

Thus ended one of the most memorable days in the annals of the French School of Athens, a day which, as Professor Richardson said in his speech, was one of mutual gain and rejoicing to the sister schools at Athens, as well as to the world. France has set an example, in this great work and throughout the past, which may well be emulated by other countries, and has been emulated notably by Germany at Olympia and in many minor instances. The treasures of Greece are far from being exhausted. Every day new proof is given of the riches lying beneath her soil and only awaiting the spade of the excavator. American ability has already won recognition in this field, the only hindrance to its labors being the want of funds by which it is constantly hampered. Its School alone of the foreign schools at Athens has not the support, direct or indirect, of its home Government; and in spite of many generous gifts from private individuals, it still awaits its Mæcenas who will enable it to undertake a work upon the scale of Olympia and Delphi. When one reflects that the American School had virtually the refusal of Delphi for nearly a year, during which it was found impossible to raise the necessary funds, one feels that it ought to be spared such a loss in future. As regards the French school, it is not resting upon its laurels. M. Homolle recently announced that a gift of 30,000 francs from the Duc de Luynes, with the promise of more later, would enable the School to go on with the important excavations at Delos, interrupted for many years for lack of funds, but now assured of completion. He is to be congratulated upon this realization of one of his most cherished schemes—a fitting tribute, as all will acknowledge, to the perseverance, energy, and ability of which he has given such proof in the accomplishment of the work at Delphi.

DEMETRIUS KALOPOTHAKES.

NAPOLEON'S BROTHERS.—II.

PARIS, May 6, 1903.

The Kingdom of Westphalia was an artificial creation of the Emperor Napoleon. It was, so to speak, a gift to his younger brother, Jerome. A life of Jerome has just been written by M. Joseph Turquan, who continues his already long series on the members of the Bonaparte family and the great ladies of the time of the Empire. I would not for a moment compare his work with that of M. Frédéric Masson; and it was by accident that I read his volume on King Jerome (which is a pamphlet and a running satire) while reading the historical studies of M. Masson.

Jerome's quarrels with his brother Napoleon are well known; the history of his marriage in America, of Napoleon's opposition, of the marriage with a Bavarian Princess, and of the reconciliation with the Emperor is familiar to everybody. M. Masson takes Jerome in the year 1809, when he had entered fully into Napoleon's views. Jerome, as long as the war with England lasted, was to furnish the support of 12,000 French soldiers. He had besides to keep an army of 12,000 men of his own. He was allowed to institute an order of his own, so as to have all the apparent prerogatives of sovereignty. In January, 1810, Jerome and his wife Catherine returned to their States. He asked his brother to add Hanover to his kingdom, but Hanover seemed to Napoleon too big a piece; he half promised it, but regretted his promise, and contented himself with giving his brother a little more territory with 796,000 more inhabitants. The weak point of the artificial kingdom of Westphalia was the financial question. Jerome accepted all the heavy charges with which Napoleon encumbered the new kingdom; he was personally very extravagant, and maintained his court with as much pomp as if he were the sovereign of the richest country in the world. In reality, the kingdom was poor and had suffered much from the war. The new kingdom was divided into eight departments, bearing names now well forgotten. The King made a solemn entry into Cassel, a very sleepy and quiet little town, which had been promoted to the dignity of a capital. He chose ministers: among them was Beugnot, who was charged with the finances (Beugnot's memoirs are a very valuable document for the times of the Revolution and the Empire); M. Siméon had the Department of Justice and of the Interior; Gen. Lagrange the War Office. He gave to his Secretary Lecamus the title of Count of Fürstentein, with the estate of that name, which was worth 40,000 francs a year. Napoleon wrote to him on this subject:

"I see that you intend to give the estate of Fürstentein and a revenue of 40,000 francs to Sieur Lecamus. I know nothing more insane than this conduct, alike contrary to your interests and detrimental to the State and to yourself. This man has rendered no service to the State, only to yourself. . . . Since I began to reign, I have never con-

ceived so arbitrary an act. There are more than ten men who have saved my life, and to them I give pensions of only six hundred francs. I have marshals who have gained ten battles, who are covered with wounds, and who have not the reward which you give to this Lecamus. . . . What shall I give to Marshals Berthier, Lannes, Bernadotte and to more than twenty persons who have bought with all sorts of wounds the throne on which you sit? I have ministers who might have gained ten millions and who have not a sou. What finances will you have with your sort of conduct? You spend three millions in Paris in two months; you will spend thirty in less time without rhyme or reason."

This language did not make the slightest impression on Jerome; he was as extravagant as his brother was strict and correct in money matters. Ever since the time of the Directory, Napoleon had had a genuine horror of speculators and army contractors; his love of order and regularity in the finances is one of the remarkable traits of his character. Jerome's ministers were in a difficult position; they knew well what Napoleon expected from his brother, with whom they accordingly remonstrated, but they were his subordinates. It was the same with the honest but timid Reinhard, who was the representative of France at Jerome's court. The memoirs of Madame Reinhard, lately published, give us some light on the life led at Cassel. Reinhard's official dispatches to Napoleon, though couched in a guarded, diplomatic style, are very well worth perusing.

Favoritism, financial extravagance, excessive prodigality characterize King Jerome's short rule in Westphalia. They ought not, however, to hinder us from recognizing the progress which was made in this new State.

"Thanks," says M. Masson, "to M. Siméon and to the good assistants he brought with him, the principles of the Revolution were so largely applied in the kingdom that this aggregation of States, the most backward in Europe, the most brutally treated by their masters, those in which the barbarism of the middle ages had remained almost intact, received in the course of two years the institutions of the most civilized country. The Code Napoléon was definitively introduced; estates became freehold; serfdom was abolished; tithes were bought in; feudal rights were suppressed; the code of legal procedure was established; the correctional police was administered through juries; the mortgage system was instituted; the fees of the tribunals were fixed; freedom of worship was recognized; the taxes were administered as they were in France; the prefectoral and municipal administrations were copied after the French model, and were rendered more liberal. Into countries where feudal despotism disposed of the lives and property of all, passed the great current of modern ideas, the ideas of equity, equality, responsibility, individual liberty."

M. Masson justly adds that this work, accomplished by French lawyers, will make history more indulgent towards Jerome, even though he cared nothing, perhaps, for the judgment of history, and was completely given over to pleasure and vanity. When he paid visits to his brother there were sometimes terrible scenes, showing the latter's discontent. Once, at Compiègne, the Master of the Horse of Westphalia, Minister of War, Captain of the Guards, named Morio de Lisle, joined Jerome. Morio de Lisle had left Cassel to command the Westphalian troops in Spain; falling ill, he had been transported to Perpignan, and from there to Montpellier, whence he went straight to Compiègne. He appeared before Napoleon, covered with orders and in perfect health. The Emperor stopped before him: "What are you doing here?" "I accompanied the King." "Who are you?" "The *Grand Écuyer*." "*Grand Écuyer!* minister, general! Who gave you those stars? Where did you earn them? You dishonor the epaulette. Leave off those epaulettes. You are a coward." This scene took place at the time of the marriage of Napoleon with Marie Louise.

On his return to Westphalia, Jerome made a visit to the provinces which had been added to his kingdom. Establishing himself at Herrenhausen, which is at a short distance from Hanover, he received the homage of his new subjects, held reviews, visited cities. He wrote to his brother that he had everywhere been received with enthusiasm; he developed great plans for a canal between the Elbe and the Weser, and asked at the same time that the burdens of war should be made lighter in his kingdom. Napoleon took very little notice of this last request, and wrote to him in answer:

"I have just ordered that my troops shall occupy all the country from Holstein to Holland, and this measure comprises the country between Bremen and Wilhelmsburg; I beg you to withdraw your troops from it. The mouths of the Elbe, the Weser, the Jade are just now the subject of my most important meditations; a division of my Dutch ships is going to visit that coast; it is necessary that the country should be in the hands of the French generals."

Jerome evidently wished to have the coasts of the German Sea; he saw them in the hands of Davout, his enemy, the sternest executor of Napoleon's orders. Davout established his headquarters in Hanover, and made himself completely independent of Jerome and his agents. Jerome could do nothing but submit; he wrote to his brother: "If it suits your Majesty to take back not only Hanover, but a part of the other States which you gave me, though it would be very painful, you may be assured that I shall be happy to make this sacrifice to your Majesty." M. Masson enters into minute details on the complicated questions which arose from the changes made by Napoleon in the boundaries of the new kingdom. Everything, in fact, in the immense empire of Napoleon was subjected to the fortune of war. When Napoleon resolved to invade Russia, he put Jerome at the head of three divisions, forming an army of 60,000 men. The King of Westphalia took his place in the "Grande Armée," and was sent to Poland; Napoleon had for a moment the idea of placing on his head the crown of Poland, and of effacing the Kingdom of Westphalia.

When the war began, Jerome disobeyed some instructions. He did not think his dignity allowed him to obey Davout, a simple marshal; and his inaction permitted Bagration's corps to escape total destruction. The Emperor's irritation was intense. "'My operations are stopped by the want of news. Your chief of staff does not write. Prince Poniatowski does not write. It is impossible to make war. You are occupied only with trifles. . . . You compromise the entire success of the campaign of my right." Jerome was obliged to leave the army, and returned to Cassel. When Napoleon returned in haste to Paris, after the terrible Russian campaign, Jerome saw him for a moment en route at Mayence. The Emperor told him that nothing was left of the Westphalian troops which had joined the *Grande Armée*, and ordered him to raise new levies for the next campaign. They met again in Dresden during the preparations for this new campaign, which ended in the retreat of the French armies. After the disastrous battles around Leipzig Jerome felt that all was lost, and got ready to abandon his kingdom. When the allies approached Cassel, he retired with a handful of French troops.

The establishment and the downfall of the Westphalian kingdom form but an episode in the great Napoleonic drama. We will leave Jerome here. He had been not a bad sailor in his youth; he proved himself to be a very indifferent soldier; and it is somewhat remarkable that none of Napoleon's brothers seem to have had the least share of his wonderful military genius. The philosophy, if I may use the word, of M. Masson's new volumes lies in the fact that Napoleon, after having tried for some years to make of his brothers, whom he had crowned, as well as of Prince Eugene and of Murat, confederates and satellites, changed his mind when he married Marie Louise and had hopes of being the head of a new dynasty. He took all the reins into his own hand, and tried to merge all the kingdoms of his own erection into a new and vast empire larger than that of Charles V. It remains for M. Masson to show us how this gigantic project was defeated. "La Roche Tarpéïenne est près du Capitole."

Correspondence.

A NEW SCHEME OF COLOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the May number of the *Atlantic Monthly* there is an article, by Mr. Alfred Holt Stone of Greenville, Miss., on "The Mulatto Factor in the Race Problem." The editor introduces Mr. Stone as having made a special study of the subject as it is presented in Yazoo, Miss. My knowledge of it is limited to the Atlantic Coast, but some of the conditions must be identical wherever negroes, in their variations, and the white men who formerly owned them live on the same ground.

Mr. Stone repeats certain general statements which have often been made, and which are admitted by most people who have even a superficial acquaintance with the negro. These are not less true because they are not new; and when admitted truths are used in argument with entire novelty of application, they gain force. Mr. Stone regrets that in the Twelfth Census no distinction was made between the full-blooded negro and the mulatto, as denoting colored people with any admixture of white blood. "Any consideration which fails to reckon the mulatto element as an independent factor ignores what is possibly the most important feature of the problem. . . . I know of no surer means of reaching a working agreement than by the frank acknowledgment of the mulatto factor in the race problem."

After following Mr. Stone along familiar lines in expectation of meeting a new view we reach none, to the end of his article, unless it be a suggestion of different legislation for the full-blooded negro and the

cross-breed. If this be it, on what distinction will the new legislation rest? As the infusion of white blood produces the dangerous element, is exclusion or restriction to begin with that, while the black man pure and simple is to be exempted from disqualifications? Or are there to be three codes, one for whites, one for blacks, one for hybrids? In this case (which would hardly reduce or simplify our race problem) will the color test be absolute, or what degree of admixture will constitute a mulatto? The sixteenth part negro? It is asserted at the South that one-hundredth part is sufficient to perpetuate the type and to reproduce it, complete, after many unsuspecting generations. Then the descendants of a man who is ninety-nine parts white and one negro is to be subject to mulatto limitations *in sæcula sæculorum.* Or shall the negro descendant of one white great-grandparent whose veins have been five times flushed with undiluted African blood, carry the sins of his fathers even beyond the fourth generation? These are points not to be overlooked in considering Mr. Stone's view.

Mr. Stone makes a good remark, if not an original one, when he says (the italics are my own): "The real negro, the negro of the masses, . . . presents few, if any, serious problems, and none which he may not himself work out, if let alone and given time. *But it will be an individual rather than a race solution. . . . Those capable of higher things will find for themselves a field; . . . the vicious and shiftless will be as are the vicious and shiftless of other races.*" In short, blood, like water, finds its own level. Unfortunately, when Southerners speak of "letting the negro alone," it means only that Northerners shall let him alone. Except for his hurt, the Southerner is too ready to let him alone. The many Southerners with whom I have discussed the subject express but two opinions of the race—either that the black man has no good qualities and requires the pressure of slavery to keep his bad ones in check, or that, although there are some moral characteristics for which he is remarkable, they can exist solely in slavery. The more liberal Southerner misses the point—it was not slavery, but contact with a superior race in kindly relations, which brought out these qualities. The negro possesses inherent powers of affection, disinterestedness, patience, fidelity, to a degree of which the Anglo-Saxon is incapable; his singleness of heart is like that of the dog. The relations of master and slave, even when not at its best, developed these with preterhuman intensity; it was like the devotion of Bill Sykes's bulldog. But this was due to intercourse, not ownership; those qualities were and are still to be found where the white man was employer, not master, the black servant a free man. They are here still waiting for the white man to call them forth. If friendliness, confidence, interest on the part of the superior are wholly lacking; if, as far as possible, he shuns intercourse with the black, no wonder that the response of love, trust, and trustiness is wanting. The Southern negro prefers the Southern white of the old slaveholding class to any Northerner, because the old tradition of familiarity is not lost. The Southern white of the "master" class, notwithstanding his denial of merit to the blacks except as slaves, understands and gets on with them better than we do. Recognition and active exercise of this advantage by the Southern white man for the good of both races would bring us a long step nearer the solution of our problem.

S. B. W.

Philadelphia, May 19, 1903.

RUSSIA AND CHINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The excellent article of my friend Prof. G. Frederick Wright on "Russian Rights in Mantchuria" needs a note on chronology so as to show who, in the Blagovestchensk affair, was the aggressor. Russia joined the allied Powers (except the United States) in making unprovoked war on China, by bombarding the Taku forts on June 17, 1900, when the Peking Government was embarrassed with the Boxer uprising, and before a Chinese regular soldier had fired a hostile shot. When Russia thus, with Great Britain, France, Japan, Germany, etc., had openly and wantonly declared war on China, what were the Chinese to do but attack and kill the Russians and their other hostile enemies wherever they could find them?

It is no wonder that the idea of "China against the world," instead of "the world against China," is the popular impression that obtains currency even among educated men. Let us look at the facts. Our American admiral, Lewis Kempff, who, on June 17, 1900, following our traditional policy from Washington's time, refused to make "entangling alliances" in joining with the allies in bombarding the forts at Taku, thus waging war with a nation with whom we were at peace, has thus far received not one word of official approval of his action, and this, notwithstanding that our successful diplomacy in China, since that eventful day of June 17, has been based on the thoroughly American action of the admiral then in charge of our naval forces in China.—Very truly yours,

Wm. Elliot Griffis.

Ithaca, May 21, 1903.

THE CANADIAN TARIFF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I must beg leave to correct an error in the review of Mr. Willison's 'Life of Sir Wilfrid Laurier.' The preference in favor of British goods in the Canadian tariff has not been cancelled in the revision of the tariff as I had been led to suppose.

Your Reviewer.

May 23, 1903.

THE DESTRUCTION OF WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the letter of Prof. Lyon G. Tyler, in the *Nation* of November 20, 1902, he says, "This carries us to the war between the States in 1862, when the college was destroyed by the Federal troops."

The origin of the fire which destroyed William and Mary College is not clearly established. The main college building was burned September 9, 1862. In the early morning of that date the Fifth Pennsylvania Cavalry, which was then encamped about a mile east of Williamsburg as an outlying post of Yorktown, was surprised by a small Confederate force and driven in confusion towards Yorktown. The Southern troops returned towards Richmond about ten o'clock in the morning. Gen. E. D. Keyes was then in command at Yorktown. About noon of that date the writer, then a lieutenant of the Sixth New York Cavalry, was ordered by Gen. Keyes to pick up stragglers from the Fifth Pennsylvania, take them to their own regiment, ascertain the state of affairs in Williamsburg, and report to the General in Yorktown the same day. I arrived in Williamsburg while it was yet day. The main college building was then in ruins, and its appearance indicated that the fire had occurred a number of hours before. From all that I learned at that time, the origin of the fire was unknown. In 1894 Congress made an appropriation of $64,000 for the rebuilding of the college.

The affidavit of two ladies of Williamsburg before the Congressional Committee as to the origin of the fire would not be sufficient, before an ordinary jury, to convict the Federal troops of having fired the building. These witnesses, in the fierce excitement and passion of the time, would naturally confirm in their own minds the belief that the college was fired by Federal troops. As the college building had been previously used for a hospital, it is quite possible that the Southern force, or part of it, which made the attack on the Fifth Pennsylvania, was concealed there on the night of September 8, and the fire may have been the result of an accident.

The statement that the second oldest college in America was wantonly destroyed by Federal troops during the civil war, should not go into history unchallenged.

Yours respectfully, E. P. McKinney.

Binghamton, N. Y., May 18, 1903.

POOR BOOKMAKING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With reference to the general condemnation of Wolfson's 'Essentials in Ancient History' in yours of May 7, let attention be invited to one point, his "vicious" style, as illustrated in the two paragraphs beginning near the bottom of page 13. To any one rusty in Asiatic geography, it will be a triumph to succeed in forming a clear image out of the author's jumble of expressions. And yet this book is the outcome of the most formal effort that historical students in this country have put forth for the advance of their branch. It is the result of the recommendations of a committee of the American Historical Association, though of course they are not responsible for the imperfections of the work. Still, it is an evidence, added to many others, of the unsatisfactory pedagogic standing of the study. Is the firm that issues it the one that lately sent out a brave prospectus of a coöperative history of this country? If so, we know what to expect.

"B. C."

May 19, 1903.

BLIZZARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To aid Mr. Matthews in his researches into the use of the word *blizzard,*

I will say that I went as a student in 1840 to Illinois College, Jacksonville, the oldest college in the State, and the first to graduate a class. I then found in use on the ball ground the word *blizzard* for any very forceful stroke of the bat. "He hit it a blizzard," we would say. The word was not in use at the same institution when I was there for a few months in 1836, nor was it used at Shurtleff College, Upper Alton, when I joined in the sports there in 1839. Transferred from Boston to southern Illinois in 1831, I had been from my childhood observant of dialect; but it did not occur to me to ask how the new word had been introduced at Illinois College in the interval.

SAMUEL WILLARD.

865 JACKSON BOULEVARD, CHICAGO,
May 23, 1903.

Notes.

A luxurious limited edition of Matthew Arnold's Complete Works in fifteen volumes will begin to be issued in June by Macmillan Co., and thereafter at monthly intervals. An exhaustive bibliography will form part of the last volume.

Dodd, Mead & Co., in autumnal anticipation, announce an American edition of Lang's 'History of Scotland'; biographies of Philip Schuyler, Milan (King of Servia), Cowper, and Thackeray, and a new volume of essays by G. K. Chesterton.

A library edition of Charles Kingsley's Works will be issued at the rate of two volumes per month by J. F. Taylor & Co. of this city. The editor is Kingsley's oldest son, Maurice, who supplies the introductions and other matter.

A full index to the entire Works of Emerson now in course of publication in an annotated centenary edition is promised by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The volumes of this edition, by the way, are to be had separately.

A new edition of Du Cange's Glossary ('Glossarium ad Scriptores mediæ et infimæ Græcitatis'), reproduced in facsimile after the original Paris edition of 1688, is being issued by subscription by Gustav Fock, Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner).

A plan is on foot in England to reorganize the Pipe Roll Society on somewhat different lines from the old society, and with every prospect of a permanent success. The original society suspended in 1900, from declining support, after a useful existence of sixteen years, having printed the rolls from the fifth to the twenty-first year of Henry II. It is proposed now to go on with the publication of these important financial documents to the second year of John, twenty-five in all. The use of "record type" in printing will be given up, and abbreviations will be extended, but in such a way as to indicate plainly all uncertain extensions. It is hoped that American scholars who are interested in the history of the period will give the plan their support. Names for membership should be sent to W. Farrer, Esq., Leyburn, R. S. O., Yorkshire.

The reprints of English classics have gone on during the week with three more volumes in the "Fireside Dickens" (H. Frowde), viz., 'Nicholas Nickleby,' 'The Old Curiosity Shop,' and 'American Notes,' containing the original illustrations; Lever's 'Harry Lorrequer' and Lord Lytton's 'Night and Morning' (London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners), delightful little volumes in flexible green and gilt covers, with engraved title-pages and frontispieces, together with one, more oblong, in blue, 'Poe's Tales,' whose frontispiece is a very successful dusky Poe composing beneath the bust of Pallas; and, in the well-known Dent-Macmillan "Temple Classics," Fanny Burney's 'Evelina,' in two volumes. With these we may couple two more issues in the Temple Bible (London: Dent; Philadelphia: Lippincott), Maccabees, edited by W. Fairweather, and Ecclesiasticus, edited by N. Schmidt, with the customary introduction and notes.

The latest addition to the "Muses' Library" is 'Thomas Campion: Songs and Masques, with Observations in the Art of English Poesy,' edited and published in London by A. H. Bullen (New York: Scribners). Mr. Bullen did so much to reclaim Campion from neglect by including him in his Elizabethan anthology of 1887, and by editing his collected works in 1889, that now, he says, this poet "runs the risk of becoming the subject of uncritical adulation." Meanwhile Mr. Bullen has had an opportunity of examining the only perfect copy known of the first edition of the Latin Poems ('Thomae Campiani Poemata,' 1595), which he reports upon, but the present collection omits these poems except in citations for the introduction. The editor challenges the descent of Campion as conjectured in the Dictionary of National Biography.

'Social England Illustrated' and 'Critical Essays and Literary Fragments' (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.) are reprints of selected tracts from Arber's well-known "English Garner," throwing light on the social conditions of the 16th, 17th, and early 18th centuries. Messrs. Andrew Lang and J. Churton Collins prefix very readable introductions. The former volume has no index, an unpardonable omission in a book of this kind. Why Professor Arber thought it necessary to "modernize" the spelling and grammatical forms of 17th-century texts is a question that still awaits an answer.

In 'Side-lights on Charles Lamb' (Charles Scribner's Sons) Mr. Bertram Dobell gives us the results of researches in the *London Magazine* and other contemporary sources for unrecognized contributions of Lamb. A number of these he thinks he has identified; and with respect to two, the "Appeal from the Shades" and "Delamore's Confessions," he seems to have made out a plausible case. Anecdotes of Lamb and of his literary friends are given, and a chapter is devoted to that strange Jekyll-and-Hyde personage, Thomas Griffiths Wainewright, whom Lamb knew only as a gay converser, sparkling essayist, and harmless coxcomb. The book is pleasant reading, for Lamb is so endearing a personality that we are thankful for even fitful side-lights upon him.

Mr. William E. Curtis's title, 'The True Abraham Lincoln' (Lippincott), stands confessed a pure catchword. The author assures us on his first page that Lincoln has been written out ("the subject of more literary composition than any man of modern times"—Napoleon, for example!), that he was a man without mysteries, whose conduct morals, and motives have engendered no controversies, as his purposes no doubts, and whose reputation is firmly and clearly established as none other more so "in American history, or in the history of the human family"! Then why the "true" Lincoln at this late date, as if other biographers had falsified? The book cannot be said to be called for. On the other hand it is "true" as far as it goes, but there is neither much merit nor completeness in the representation. The real question of "truth" is likely to be raised over Lincoln's actual appearance. The portraits of him are numerous, and range from common or vulgar almost to beautiful. Let any one compare those facing pages 60, 100, and 168, and try to imagine them the same man. The text is not free from errors and carelessness, and the index is lamentably poor.

'Wood Folk at School,' by William J. Long (Ginn & Co.), is, practically, the author's recent book, 'School of the Woods,' with the theoretical essays omitted and the stories presented in the guise of a school reader. Its main theme is the development, by instinct, training, and experience, of the habits of self-preservation in animals. The sketches include biological chapters from the life histories of the osprey, the great blue heron, the ruffed grouse, the porcupine, the deer, the moose, and the black bear. Such interesting and significant meetings with wild animals as Mr. Long describes could not easily be matched in the combined experiences of a dozen woodsmen or naturalists. The stories are well told (if not always in language easily comprehensible by the young) and finely illustrated.

'True Bird Stories,' by Olive Thorne Miller (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is a book of short stories about the habits of certain caged birds and birds in the field. The statement in the preface that all the stories are strictly true, leads one to suspect that in some cases the author is either ambiguous in expression or mistaken in the interpretation of some of her pets' habits. For instance, she tells of a robin that felt disgraced because it had a worn and shabby feather, and of a parrot that, having vanquished a sparrow, crowed over her victory with the sound "Cr-r-r-cr-r-r." One must be well versed in avian psychology to generalize thus about a robin's mental sensations, and one would perhaps find, if one studied parrots closely, that the sound "Cr-r-r-cr-r-r" is a note not of victory but of alarm. Though the book will interest children, for whom Mrs. Miller intends it, its scientifically valuable observations are few in proportion to the large amount of material that passed under the author's eye, and it lacks the charm of style that belongs to some other popular books of this kind. The most interesting chapters are devoted to the English sparrow. One of these gives an account of a bird that sings a canary song. Some time ago Mr. Ernest Thompson Seton told of a similar case. The book is beautifully illustrated by Mr. Louis Agassiz Fuertes.

'The Water-Fowl Family,' by Leonard C. Sanford and others (Macmillan), is the third volume of the "American Sportsman's Library." It deals with ducks, geese, rail, snipe, and their allies, and includes a scientific description of each species and the methods of shooting each game bird. The numerous fine illustrations are by Mr. Fuertes. In general manner of treatment the book is similar to Mr. Grinnell's ad-

mirable 'Duck-Shooting in America'; that is to say, it is essentially a sportsman's manual, which tells the story of the hunt so vividly that one almost hears the whistle of wings, smells powder, and feels the thud of the bird brought to earth close at hand. The directions for shooting ducks in rice fields, for pass shooting, and for shooting from a sink-box, as well as for various other forms of sport, will be valuable to the novice. Decoys, both artificial and living, are particularly well treated. Mr. Sanford has shot game birds in New England, on the Chesapeake, on Currituck Sound, N. C., on the prairies of the Central States, and in Mexico. The book is concluded with the discussion of the water fowl of the Pacific Coast by the well-known sportsman-author, Mr. T. S. Van Dyke.

'Irrigation Institutions,' by Elwood Mead, is the latest addition to "The Citizen's Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology" (Macmillan). The author, in a small volume of some 400 pages, discusses the economic and legal questions created by the growth of irrigated agriculture in the West, and throws a great deal of light on questions which have received renewed importance through the recent legislation on the subject at Washington. The author is an expert, and his twenty years' experience has given him a complete command of the subject, which he discusses in a very lucid and instructive manner. As engineer, chief of a Government bureau, lecturer and professor, he has had to deal with irrigation from every side, and his book should prove of great value, though of course it cannot be said to be for general reading. For lawyers it possesses much interest. The chapter on "The Doctrine of Appropriation" seems to show that, in the case of irrigation rights in the West, we have a clear instance of the growth of what Blackstone would have called "title by occupation."

Mr. E. T. Whittaker's 'A Course of Modern Analysis,' while not forming a complete and rounded whole, will greatly interest the genuine student of pure mathematics; and even those who are pretty well up in the subjects with which it deals will be very glad to refresh their ideas with this compact book, especially on account of the recent results that it contains, as well as for its giving some developments that cannot be called recent, but which have as yet hardly made their way into text-books. We do not consider its standard of logicality or of accuracy of statement to be the very highest; but this is perhaps an advantage, as it keeps the reader's mind on the *qui vive*. After eight chapters concerning series, residues, and connected topics, it proceeds to give an excellent chapter each to the Gamma Function, Legendre Functions, Hypergeometric Functions, Bessel Functions, and Laplace's Equation, and three chapters to Elliptic Functions—that is, to Weierstrass's forms, to Jacobi's forms, and to General Theorems, respectively.

The memorial service in Harvard's chapel in memory of the late Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, one of the most remarkable educators of her generation, former President of Wellesley College, has been fittingly recorded in a thin volume issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Five portraits, from childhood to middle life, afford a highly interesting study of physical and spiritual development.

Various are the devices for replacing and supplementing the record pages of the obsolescent Family Bible. Such is the blank book, 'Happenings in Our Home,' published by Joseph Clark Bridgman, Boston, with some pictorial embellishment, pertinent quotations, gilt edges, and tasteful leather cover.

The new edition of James and Molé's 'Dictionary of the French and English Languages' (Macmillan) may conveniently be compared with the 1898 edition of Gasc. It is smaller in size, a plump 16mo, clearly printed, its bold-face rubrics being perhaps a little too light as those in Gasc are a shade heavy for contrast and prompt legibility. The vocabulary is apparently less full, and omits geographical adjectives, *e. g.*, *Ligurien*, *Garonnais*, such as Gasc conveniently gives, yet contains words and definitions not in Gasc. A very brief comparison will show that the works usefully supplement and need not exclude each other. In neither is the English-French portion completely correlated with the French-English. Thus, the later work, which defines *lignard* 'penny-a-liner,' omits penny-a-liner from the English vocabulary. Sewing-machine, on the other hand, will be sought in vain under *machine* or under *coudre*, as type-writer under *machine* or under *écrire*. For the rest, there are the usual lexicographical differences of practice, as when Gasc places the phrase *dents longues* under *dents*, James and Molé under *long*. The latter work alone indicates the pronunciation in both languages. The former is more profuse in slang and colloquialisms. Both are welcome and handy tools.

Of the numerous histories of German literature from the earliest times to the present day written by Germans during the last sixty years and combining conciseness with comprehensiveness in the treatment of the subject, those of Vilmar and Wilhelm Scherer have probably held the most prominent place and enjoyed the greatest popularity, especially as manuals of instruction, although the former is too strongly colored by the author's theological views in the criticism of modern literature, and the latter is not wholly free from æsthetic defects. These works are evidently destined and indeed already beginning to be superseded by Adolf Bartel's volumes, 'Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur' and 'Die deutsche Dichtung der Gegenwart: Die Alten und die Jungen' (Leipzig: Eduard Avenarius), which possess all the good qualities of Vilmar and Scherer. The two volumes containing a general history of German literature are divided into eight "books" or sections, of which the first gives a condensed but careful study of old German literature from its origin to the end of the fifteenth century, and the second an account of the literary productivity of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; two books are devoted to the eighteenth, and four (constituting the entire second volume) to the nineteenth century. Each book begins with a general survey of the period under consideration, followed by a characterization of the individual authors belonging to it and a special criticism of their writings. The skilful application of this method of treatment results in a singularly attractive sketch of the evolution of German literature, supplemented by details of personal information usually found only in biographical dictionaries, without detriment to the artistic unity of the work as a whole. The same system is successfully applied to the second work, on German poetry of to-day, which is the most satisfactory compendium of the history of German poetry and fiction during the latter half of the nineteenth century hitherto published. It is difficult for one who is standing in the midst of any intellectual movement to form a correct estimate of its character and compass. This is why it is quite impossible for even the most impartial and keen-sighted critic to pass a full and final judgment on contemporary literature. Many of the elements which enter into the formation of such a judgment are necessarily wanting. With this inevitable qualification, the work, of which five editions have already been issued, is an admirable supplement to the general history of German literature.

A piece of information of pathetic interest is concealed in a little footnote on page 412 of the just published sixth part of Bugge's edition of Norwegian Old-Rune Inscriptions. It reads as follows: "Sophus Bugge, who, up to the present time has been the sole editor, has hitherto read squeezes of several of the inscriptions hereinafter published, but now, when the inscriptions are to be published, he can, from infirmity of sight, neither read nor write. Magnus Olsen, therefore, from now on, will be co-editor." If this disability is to be permanent, it will to a certain extent mark the end of a singularly distinguished scientific activity. At the beginning of the present year, Bugge celebrated his seventieth birthday, on which occasion his pupils and friends among Norwegian philologists presented him with a fund, for the furtherance of some scientific purpose selected by him. He decided to use it for the establishment of scholarships for Norwegian students to study at other Scandinavian universities, in order thus to promote mutual familiarity and consequent good feeling among the Scandinavian peoples. Simultaneously with the news of Bugge's affliction comes the information that his son, a worthy offspring, has been awarded, as the first recipient, the Nansen prize for a treatise dealing with the influence exerted by Western, especially Irish, civilization on the Scandinavians, and particularly the Norwegians of the Viking period.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 3, contains some interesting facts about the inhabitants of Yap, the westernmost of the Caroline Islands. They are decreasing in number largely because of their immoderate use of bad alcohol. Not infrequently the people of a whole district will be drunk for a week at a time. They have, nevertheless, some unusually good qualities, as generosity and fine feeling, of which instances are adduced. Their food, ornaments, industries, amusements (including twelve different games), family life, and government are described at some length. A peculiar custom is that of boring a hole through the cartilage separating the nostrils after death, if it has not been done before, in order, they say, that the man "may find the right house in heaven." There is also the description of a new way by which Russia plans to enter Persia—along the trans-Caucasian frontier to Tabriz and Kazvin, eighty-six miles north of Teheran. A concession to build a road along this

route has just been granted to a Russian bank, and work will be commenced at once.

The first annual report of the Schoolhouse Department of Boston is a public document, unique, if we are not mistaken, and of unusual value and importance. The Board, consisting of three Commissioners—Mr. R. Clipston Sturgis (a well-known architect) being Chairman—was appointed two years ago by the Mayor to exercise "all powers and authority with regard to taking of land, construction, and furnishing of new school buildings, and the repairs and alterations of old school buildings." This review of their work shows that they first solved the problem of insufficient school accommodation by building eighty-one one-story portable schools capable of containing fifty children each. Then they did all their appropriation permitted to improve the sanitary condition of the old buildings and to decrease the fire risks. In an appendix, five typical examples of "new sanitation" are described, with numerous illustrations. Some ten pages are devoted to instructions to architects and general information regarding internal arrangements, the planning and furnishing of the rooms in particular. There is a guarded reference to the efforts of the labor unions for recognition, and their criticisms of work executed by the Commissioners. In order to prepare themselves for their duties, the Board visited nine of our principal cities and examined their school buildings. Among other things, they found that "Boston was doing more in the way of gymnasia and bath facilities than any other city, with the possible exception of New York." Much information is given in respect to the authorized expenditures of the Board, and there is a "descriptive schedule of permanent school buildings." Frederic J. Cotton, M.D., contributes a report, with diagrams, on school desks and chairs.

—It is pleasant to notice a steady improvement in the volumes of the 'New International Encyclopædia' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) as they appear. Editors and contributors are evidently taking their task much more seriously, and the last three volumes, vii.—ix. ('Ethics—Infant Phenomenon), are a marked advance on their predecessors. When the earlier volumes have been carefully revised, as we understand is being done, this work will make a fair approximation to fulfilling the claim of its title-page and prospectus. The departments which we have already noticed as good, continue in their path of virtue; some, indeed, as the classical rubrics, steadily improve. The Aryan and Iranian East continues to claim, if anything, disproportionate space, but the Semitic contributors fail to demand their fair proportion or to make good use of what they get. There is here, it is true, an improvement, but it should be carried much further, and the printing errors in these rubrics are still too numerous. The hackwork articles and the proofreading are in general, however, much better; such blunders as Emphorian for Euphorion (ix., 260) are comparatively rare. The case of the department of literature is still so curiously diverse as to be worth a word of comment. The articles of weight both for English and, perhaps still more, for foreign literature are of general fulness and accuracy. So insufficient a treatment as the third of a column given to Herrick (ix., 364) is, in these later volumes, creditably infrequent. There are even some distinctly brilliant biographies. But the general fulness is not nearly so great as that devoted to the drama and, more particularly, the stage. On this side, however, that exuberance in notice of actors and actresses which characterized the earlier volumes has now, happily, been somewhat restrained.

—The same, unfortunately, cannot be said of the articles on literary references and names generally in imaginative literature. The subject, it must be admitted, is one exceedingly difficult to handle, but that cannot excuse the inadequacy, the waste of space, the ineptitude, the incompleteness and therewithal wordiness which characterize these rubrics at present. Examples of all these defects are to be found, *e. g.*, in the articles Galahad, Galaor, Galapas, on two following pages of volume viii. Similarly, the article on Grim, where the romance of Havelok the Dane is said to belong to Arthurian legend. This interesting information is evidently derived from the 'Century Cyclopædia of Names.' Equally irritating and puerile are the articles on Excalibur and Excelsior; in the space, it would have been quite possible to convey a fair amount of information instead of simply using words. Disproportionate length is what ails such articles as those on Father Tom, Froment Jeune, Poe's 'Fall of the House of Usher,' and many others. The crude treatment of the 'House of Usher' alone will give shivers to any lover of Poe. Inexplicable omissions are easy to find. Gibbie, Goose (so entered), of 'Old Mortality' has his immortality doubly secured here, but not the Sir Gibbie of George Macdonald. So, too, are missing Euphorion—both as the son of Achilles in the shades and of Goethe's 'Faust'—Fitzgerald's 'Euphranor,' and many beside. An attempt to catalogue all the names in English literature must manifestly fail, but the selection might be better hit than here. We could easily do without the giant Galapas in exchange for Euphorion; and Guse Gibbie will be hard to seek under Gibbie, Goose, and not highly important when found. Evidently these little notices emanate from another source than that which furnishes the longer and infinitely more scholarly articles on literature.

—'The American Republic and its Government' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is the title of a new work on American politics by Prof. James Albert Woodburn. It is "an analysis of the Government of the United States, with a consideration of its fundamental principles and of its relations to the States and Territories." It is designed for the field of study intermediate between "elementary text-books in civics" and that occupied by books (so far as there are any) like Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' The volume is divided into eight chapters, which deal with the "Principles of the Fathers," the Federal Nation, the Presidency, the Senate, the House, the Judiciary, the States, and the Territories—a convenient system of treatment. Of course the whole subject is well worn, and it is difficult to say anything new about it. But historically the work is brought down to date, for it includes a discussion of the Insular cases. It also contains—what most text-books of the sort, according to our observation, omit—an attempt to enumerate the provisions of what Mr. Woodburn calls our "unwritten Constitution," *i. e.*, the political usages which, having no legal sanction, have grown to have the force of law. These, as he gives them, are six in number, and four of them may be regarded as practically established, though as to one of these his form of statement seems to us objectionable. Presidential Electors must vote for the party nominee; a President cannot be elected for a third term; a member of Congress must reside in the district from which he is chosen; and the Senate never rejects Cabinet appointments. We should be willing to admit that custom forbids a third consecutive term, but know of no principle on which the anti-third-term usage is founded which could possibly apply to disconnected terms. The remaining two—the committee system in Congress, and the obligation of the caucus—do not appear to us to involve Constitutional points; one is a matter of parliamentary custom, the other a pure party custom, really binding on no one, and indeed, if admitted to be binding, fatal to free government itself.

—Among recent law books is a valuable collection of 'Cases on International Law' (English and American), edited by James Brown Scott, with a syllabus and annotations (The Boston Book Co.). It is based on Dr. Freeman Snow's well-known 'Cases and Opinions,' but the changes made are many and radical, and the result is an independent work. An important point to notice is that Mr. Scott's underlying idea is, as he says himself, that international law is part of the English common law; that the American colonies inherited it as such; that on their admission to the family of nations they recognized it, and that it is to-day part of the municipal law of the whole English-speaking world—English and American courts of justice have been enforcing it for two centuries. On "the vexed question whether it is law in the abstract," the author expresses no opinion, but he need not have been so non-committal, for the best proof of the existence of law that we can have is exactly this often overlooked fact, that it is enforced by courts of justice all over the world. A prize court, for instance, is a court of international law, though it is established in a particular country; and a belligerent who brings a prize into it must abide by its decision, though it involve the release of his prize. The fact that there is a large portion of international law that is not enforced by judicial decision and rests on custom does not seem any ground, therefore, for denying the existence of international law, as law. Austin objected that there was no superior power to enforce it—no "sanction." This volume contains nine hundred cases to the contrary.

—Since the year 1895, when Professor Goodyear announced his discovery of horizontal curves in the Maison Carrée at Nîmes, the publication of the results of his examinations of buildings classical, mediæval, and Renaissance for their optical refinements has proceeded so rapidly that the list of titles now reaches twenty. In these papers Professor Goodyear has established, too fully to permit of contradiction, the proposition that many of the singular and otherwise inexplicable irregu-

larities in mediæval buildings were due to a desire on the part of their builders to relieve the structure from the deadly precision from which modern work suffers. That a large proportion of such irregularities were in reality optical refinements of a certain sort, due neither to the negligence of the builder nor to settlement of the structure, must be acknowledged by every candid person who has read with care such papers as "Optical Refinements in Mediæval Architecture" or "Perspective Illusions in Italian Churches." It is, however, in his latest work, 'The Architectural Refinements of St. Mark's at Venice' (volume i., No. 2, of Memoirs of Art and Archæology of the Brooklyn Institute; New York:Macmillan), that Professor Goodyear puts forth his most convincing array of facts. Singular irregularities in the lines of St. Mark's are obvious to all but the most casual observer, and indeed to these irregularities is due no small part of the church's peculiar charm. It seems to have been taken for granted that these deviations from the normal were chiefly to be ascribed to faulty foundations and consequent settlements, but Professor Goodyear has, by careful surveys and by clear reasoning based upon them, demonstrated that such irregularities (or at least the more important of them) must have existed from the time of the original construction of the fabric.

—Briefly summing up a few of these results, we find that the inner face of the outer walls of the church leans outward some three to six inches in a height of sixteen feet; that the nave piers lean outward slightly in sympathy with the walls; that the nave wall-face from pier caps to gallery leans still more perceptibly; and that the nave wall-faces above the gallery to the springing of the great arches over the nave fall away from each other so rapidly as to cause the liveliest surprise when their actual inclination is known. The amount of this widening is so great that a line stretched across the nave at the springing of the main vault is nearly three feet longer than if stretched upon the pavement. That a spreading of three feet in the abutments of the arches which span the nave might have taken place without a total destruction of those arches and of the dome which they carry, is unthinkable. No adequate expression can here be given to the value of the work thus done at St. Mark's. Bearing in mind, however, the fact that the surveying of St. Mark's is but a small part of a great series of observations which he has made, we urge upon Professor Goodyear the importance of collecting the results of his labor into a work in which they will lose the transitory character of magazine articles and pamphlets, and where they may be presented in a more orderly and adequate manner than has been possible in their original form—a work which, in brief, should as worthily portray the optical refinements of mediæval architecture as does the monumental volume of Penrose those of Athenian architecture.

—The Istituto Italiano d'Arti Grafichi of Bergamo has begun to issue a series of illustrated monographs under the general title, "Italia Artistica." Their purpose is to give a summary account of the most interesting Italian cities, laying special stress on architecture, sculpture, and painting. The latest of these monographs, 'Venezia,' by Pompeo Molmenti, is a model of what such works should be. In the course of perhaps 25,000 words, he describes the evolution of the city of Venice from the earliest times down to the present, showing not only what transformations time has wrought in the various schools of architecture and painting, but what monuments still remain of each period and master, and blending all with a brief narrative of the historical and social career of the Venetians. In spite of the laudable compactness, the account is written with so much fervor that it is unfailingly charming. It is as if the man best qualified in all the world took the reader through Venice, visiting the churches, galleries, and palaces, and exploring the remotest canals and *calli*, and told how each work originated, and how far it represents the age to which it belongs, or the master who created it. Sig. Molmenti is easily first among living authorities on the history and art of Venice, and he is one of the few really able writers of Italian. Whoever has studied this field will admire the sanity of his judgments on art not less than his clear grasp of Venetian history. The little quarto volume is illustrated by 132 excellent half-tones, and its cheapness (3.60 lire) should give it wide popularity. Other cities already announced in this series are Ravenna; Ferrara; Girgenti, Segesta, and Selinunto; Urbino; San Marino; and Prato—with more to follow. The volumes, if they approach Sig. Molmenti's model, will be indispensable to travellers, students and the average intelligent reader.

A LEIPZIG PUBLISHER.

The Life and Times of Georg Joachim Goschen, Publisher and Printer of Leipzig, 1752-1828. By his Grandson, Viscount Goschen. London: John Murray; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1903.

Probably most readers of this bulky memoir will lay it down with a feeling that there is too much of it, although the subject is undeniably an interesting figure. Beginning almost without capital, in the year 1785, and facing the most discouraging conditions on account of the lack of effective copyright laws in the German states, Göschen rapidly built up a good business. His personal qualities endeared him to Schiller, with whom he continued in intimate relations until about 1793, when the rising star of Cotta caused a temporary estrangement. He also published the first collective edition of Goethe, won for himself the sobriquet of "the German Elzevir" with a monumental edition of Wieland, and delighted the classical scholars of his day with the superb Greek types of Wolf's Iliad. And many other notable men were among his clients. He had a large capacity for friendship, and combined in a remarkable way the qualities of a romantic sentimentalist with those of a level-headed and sagacious business man. Such a personage, standing in such relations, was clearly worthy of a biographic memoir, even after the lapse of more than a century. That Viscount Goschen's tribute to him has expanded into two thick volumes is due to the partiality of a grandson.

But any criticism directed at the undeniable diffuseness of the work is in a measure disarmed by the author's engagingly modest preface, in which he states that he has written rather for the general public than for savants or literary experts, and that he has been trammelled from the first by the difficulty of deciding to what class of readers he should attempt to appeal. He says of himself:

"I wish that I had been more competent to travel in his [the grandsire's] company through the vast field of literary topics involved in the life of a publisher whose activity ranged over forty-three years. A busy political career has left me unable to explore sufficiently the mass of Goethe and Schiller literature which a century of devoted study and eager criticism has developed to an impenetrable bulk."

And again:

"Having been a reader, not a writer, of books all my life, I have sometimes felt a shade of resentment against the assumption on the part of an author that I was acquainted with a number of facts and dates of which I had the misfortune to be ignorant. . . . Accordingly, finding myself continually compelled to allude to the effects of wars, congresses, treaties, and political catastrophes on the personal destinies of my grandfather and his group of clients, I have not shrunk from giving in briefest outline, and, where possible, in chronological order, such European events as bore upon my narrative. I have done this at the risk of recounting what 'every schoolboy should know,' but what, as a matter of fact, many educated people know but imperfectly."

The Viscount's willingness to accommodate himself to the limitations of the unlearned British public is shown at the outset by his changing his grandfather's name from Göschen to Goschen, experience having shown him "from his schoolboy days at Rugby that the unfamiliar modified vowel is a source of perplexity and of diversity of pronunciation in this country." For our own part, we prefer not to follow his example, but to write the name as its owner wrote it, and as it has been familiar to students of German literature for a hundred years and more.

The narrative is devoted mainly to the history of Göschen's publishing business—his negotiations with authors, his financial perplexities, his warfare with the pirates, his successes and failures. At the same time the human side of him—love, marriage, friendships, personal traits, etc.—is not neglected. And along with all that, we get numerous historical retrospects and digressions *de omnibus rebus et quibusdam aliis*. Thus, a chapter, and an interesting one, is devoted to a history of the Leipzig book trade. Another gives an account of different efforts on the part of authors to escape from their bondage to the publishers by founding coöperative societies or by publishing on subscription. As we read along, our memoir gives us a sketch of the life of each new writer who is gathered in by Göschen's enterprise. Thus, we get a somewhat extended account of Schiller, Körner, Wieland, Klopstock, Iffland, and others. Here the author relies mainly on familiar sources, but is able to contribute some new matter in the way of unpublished letters from Göschen that have been preserved in the family achives or acquired for this memoir.

On the whole, while the well-informed student of the German classics will find in the work much that he can safely omit, and while he will not be greatly profited by its literary appreciations, he will get from it a very good picture of the German literary industry in the Revolutionary and

Napoleonic periods. One sees how contracts were made, what prices were paid, and how, even in those golden days, publisher and author sometimes conspired to prepare the way for cooked reviews. Interesting side-lights are thrown upon literary history. For example, it is well known that the new works which Goethe sent home from Italy in 1787-8 were received rather coldly. This little fact is brought out vividly by the following extract from a letter written by Göschen, September 2, 1787:

"I am annoyed to see that only a hasty critique of Goethe has appeared. Publishers who have taken copies as a speculation want to return them. *Iphigenia* is not understood, the *Brother and Sister* is tiresome, the *Triumph of Sensibility* is out of date and comes too late, and the *Birds* is too obscure. The devil alone knows what these people may want. The public must be taken by the nose and led up to it. Then I shall have no fear. Do your utmost to insure a clever critique of it soon."

After such an experience it is not strange that Göschen lost faith in Goethe and fixed his hopes on the more popular Wieland, whom he admired idolatrously. When the 'Metamorphosis of the Plant' was offered him in 1790, he declined it with thanks, and in so doing made the mistake of his life. An eager acceptance at any price would have been, just at that stage of the game, a good stroke of business. As it was, Goethe drifted with Schiller into the hands of Cotta, who was no less enterprising than his Leipzig rival, and had a surer instinct for literary merit. Göschen was left to his monumental edition of Wieland, which taxed his resources and his energies for years. This was his greatest professional achievement. It brought him only moderate returns in money, but great renown as a typographer.

The character of Göschen, as it emerges from the totality of the memoir, is that of an amiable, quick-tempered man, of tireless energy, and of strict probity in business relations. He hated the pirates and lost no opportunity to denounce them. To circumvent them he resorted occasionally to the expedient of "pirating" his own publications, that is, of issuing them anonymously in a cheap edition, having the appearance of stolen fruit. Yet, notwithstanding a certain fiery pugnacity, he could on occasion sentimentalize with the best of them. He writes to his wife from Switzerland in 1792—several years after their marriage—addressing her as "My heavenly Jette," and gushing thus about the Lake of Zürich:

"It was a lovely evening. The sun set in indescribable beauty behind the mountains, and then the moon shone over the lake; anon I saw her over a church, anon she cast broken rays athwart high trees upon the water, anon she gleamed on the sails of ships or silvered the waves. The houses, too, which form an uninterrupted line on each side twenty-four miles in length, were lit up. My breast expanded perforce. Involuntarily I sang songs, and tears of joy gushed from my eyes. Enjoyment was so strong that my heart needed an utterance."

The Napoleonic incubus brought bitter and peculiar trials to Göschen. After the battle of Jena, business came to a standstill, and he was near to insolvency. He recovered in a measure, but had no longer the capital or the spirit to undertake fine enterprises for honor's sake. When the final struggle against the Corsican came, his home at Grimma was on the highway of vast contending armies, and suffered terribly. He himself was mildly a German patriot, and two of his sons were in the patriot army. At the same time he was a loyal Saxon, and his king was in alliance with Napoleon. The French censorship of the press was galling, but there was no help save in the triumph of the Prussian "enemy." In these desperate circumstances Göschen bore himself with religious fortitude. After Waterloo his business went on, but was no longer of great importance. He died in 1828, worthy, certainly, of a better epitaph than that which he once lightly suggested for himself: "The poor devil meant well, but he had no luck."

The memoir is handsomely and very accurately printed, and supplied with numerous excellent illustrations in the way of portraits, facsimiles of handwriting and of title-pages, and specimens of Göschen's best work as a printer.

THE CARLYLES.

New Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle. Annotated by Thomas Carlyle and edited by Alexander Carlyle. With an Introduction by Sir James Crichton-Browne. With sixteen illustrations. 2 vols. John Lane. 1903.

The letters contained in these volumes are, as Sir James Crichton-Browne says in his introduction, "residual in character"—that is, they are those which Mr. Froude "multilated or put aside," he having, "of course, selected from Mrs. Carlyle's writings whatever was of most literary merit or popular interest." Still, they are "intrinsically worthy of publication," while "adscititiously" they deserve attention "because they clear up some obscure points in a complicated controversy, and help towards a just judgment of two prominent figures in our English Pantheon."

Of the letters themselves he says that, like those published in 1883, they are open to the criticism that "they are overloaded with domestic details about spring-cleanings and other housewiferies, trivial incidents of travel, intricate itinerary arrangements, and complaints of postal "irregularities"; but as Froude had already introduced "such superfluities," while omitting "much that was essential to the understanding of her story," elisions in the letters that are intended to refute his story were to be avoided. Had Mrs. Carlyle's correspondence as a whole to be edited *de novo*, "a very different method of dealing with it from that adopted would have been followed." Besides all this, the letters "sparkle with wit; they afford delightful glimpses of the meagre fireside in Cheyne Row, around which the great ones of the greatest epoch of a great age were glad to gather; they throw illuminative side-lights on memorable events, and, above all, smooth out the dents and brush away the stains and blurs with which negligent usage and venomous breathings have blemished and tarnished the most massive and shining literary reputation of the last century."

The introduction proceeds in nearly a hundred pages to re-analyze the Carlyle story, to reëxpose Froude, and to give what Sir James Crichton-Browne believes to be the true view of the characters and marital relations of Carlyle and his wife. Froude's great mistake, it seems, was that "it was deeply rooted in his mind that Carlyle had, throughout their whole union, behaved badly to his wife," and had "deputed him, as a sort of literary undertaker, to superintend a posthumous penance in the publication of his confessions." As all preconceived ideas have their starting-point, the origin of this misconception lay in a misunderstanding of Carlyle's use of the word "remorse." Carlyle's nature was noble and generous, and hence of "a peculiarly self-accusatory type. He was fond of strong language, and uses exactly the same word—the strongest he can think of—whether he is speaking of his feelings of regret for idleness when he had been resting; after an imaginary failure in the delivery of a lecture; and over his wife's grave. The writer of the introduction makes the very just observation that it is

"characteristic of men of fine intellect that, when nipt by the autumnal frosts, they manifest excessive testiness on the one hand, and excessive self-reproach on the other; and that when bereaved they arraign themselves, without a jot of justification, of high crimes and misdemeanors against the lost one. I have seen an eminent but aged man of science in a fever of distress until he had written a letter of apology to a servant maid, to whom he had, not without warrant, said a sharp word; and I have had to listen to an exemplary husband vaguely, but piteously, recounting imaginary atrocities to his departed spouse."

His wife noticed Carlyle's love of self-accusation and tried to laugh him out of it. Froude was misled by it into thinking that Carlyle had been a great sinner against his wife. It is a characteristic trait, and, we may add, throws light on Carlyle's writing as well as on his domestic life. It is this violence of language, this exaggeration of expression, which tends to deprive his later style of light and shade, and makes him so strong in his vocabulary of objurgation. All this part of the introduction is original and clear. It is when the writer comes to discuss Mrs. Carlyle that we feel more doubt.

According to Froude, it was an ill-assorted match, and the faults were on Carlyle's side; according to Sir James Crichton-Browne, it was a natural enough marriage, and if everything did not go smoothly, the faults were greatly on Mrs. Carlyle's side. As to their difference in station, he does not think it amounted to much; at any rate, it is ridiculous to impute this as a fault to Carlyle, whom she married from "ambition." As to his barbarity in taking his wife to Craigenputtock (of which Froude gives such an unlovely description), it was no "desert," though she called it one (she, too, acquired a taste for exaggeration), but a "wildly beautiful place," and, moreover, "a perfect sanatorium for a case like hers"—*i. e.*, for a nervous subject. If she took part in household drudgery, it was unnecessary, for they had a servant; if she milked the cows, she need not have done so, as there were plenty of milkmaids within call; she herself expressed perfect content with her life there.

Having thus disposed of the Froudian Craigenputtock legend, the story carries us to London, where the "Ashburton Episode" is discussed. A widespread impression has been created that Carlyle at this

time gave his wife grave ground for jealousy. This idea seems to have for its chief support the evidence of Miss Geraldine Jewsbury, a not very weighty witness; but jealousy there undoubtedly was, and "as jealousy is a malignant and metastatic growth, we need not be surprised to find her soon giving way to more unworthy suspicions, and to bitterness and despondency."

All this is very fair and the introduction is thus far convincing, but we think it goes too far in undertaking an analysis and explanation of Mrs. Carlyle's frame of mind which relieves Carlyle of Froude's imputations only by casting a melancholy shade over his wife. In plain English, she suffered at this time from "mental disturbance," which would be technically called "on its psychical side climacteric melancholia, and on its physical side neurasthenia." For several years pain and sleeplessness had led her to take morphia, and "it is a secondary action" of this drug "to induce unfounded suspicions and even delusions of persecution in those who habitually indulge in it." She also was addicted to "excessive tea-bibbing," and smoked cigarettes. Hence a nervous breakdown at a critical period of life was to have been expected. This nervous breakdown, accompanied by "delusional beliefs," was coincident with the appearance of Lady Ashburton on the scene. There were also, but, as we understand it, at a later period, "suicidal promptings" as the "only escape from insanity."

This medical autopsy on poor Mrs. Carlyle's mind does not produce exactly the impression intended. A doubt will intrude itself, how much real relevancy has all this to the question at hand? Of course, it has a bearing on the value of what Mrs. Carlyle herself says, but it does not at all disprove the fact, if it is a fact, that Carlyle was excessively fascinated by Lady Ashburton. This ought to be disproved, if it is to be disproved, by some independent testimony. The evidence adduced here is unsatisfactory and inconclusive. The controversy over these graves illustrates the difficulty of all attempts to reconstitute the intimacy of conjugal life for the benefit of the public. When we read Mrs. Carlyle's lively letters, as when we read the journal of her husband, we are almost satisfied to leave it all as we find it. Short of the judgment-seat, such an inquiry as Sir James Crichton-Browne has proposed to himself will not be absolutely final. Nor can the reader help reflecting that nine-tenths of the differences which arose between Carlyle and his wife are much like nine-tenths of the differences which arise in a thousand households, and which really mean far less between closely united husbands and wives than they would between human beings less bound to one another.

We have spoken at length of the introduction, because it furnishes a framework for the letters, and is a sort of brief, for which they supply the documentary evidence. Mrs. Carlyle was a born letter-writer, and no one can take up these volumes without finding in them something amusing, witty, gay and original. With all their strength, they are thoroughly feminine. In her notebook she jots down among her memorabilia that "letters are of the neuter gender," but she spent her life in disproving it. A great number of them possess no particular interest; but this, as the introduction explains, was to be expected.

HIGGINSON'S WHITTIER.

John Greenleaf Whittier. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. (English Men of Letters.) The Macmillan Co. 1902.

The writer of this book can have had no thought of its superseding Mr. Pickard's admirable life of Whittier, a model of biographical sincerity. There is cordial recognition of the importance of Pickard's volumes, and many apt resorts to them for illustrative material. It is conceivable that Mr. Higginson might have had his English readers more in mind, the book appearing in an English series, and been more careful to instruct their ignorance. Actually, he makes his appeal preëminently to American readers, and, modestly anxious lest he should tell them what they know already, he is more sparing of detail than was to have been expected in a book that takes its place in a series which, while aiming at brevity, aims also at completeness. The fact that he was for several years a preacher in Newburyport and hence Whittier's neighbor, not to speak of many subsequent visits, preserves his account of Whittier's local environment from being a mere matter of hearsay. In his familiarity with Whittier's anti-slavery connection he has a more than compensating advantage for his lack of that which gave the 'Longfellow' its local charm. Indeed, the principal interest of his book is concentrated in the three chapters which cover Whittier's anti-slavery career, "Enlistment for Life," "The School of Mobs," and "A Division in the Ranks." Preceding these we have chapters on childhood and school days, and "Whittier as a Politician."

Mr. Higginson makes no attempt to soften the harshness of the "surprising revelation" of the Pickard book concerning Whittier's early political doings and affiliations, though his briefer exposition tends to minimize the effect of that revelation. One finds it difficult to keep the poet's anti-slavery service from being infected with a taint of unreality by those doings and affiliations. Mr. Higginson is silent about Whittier's withdrawal from professional politics in 1843, when a Congressional election was fairly within reach, but the state of his health issued an interdict that could not be reversed—whence it would seem that his ill health quite as much as his anti-slavery spirit was his good providence, for had he, in 1843, entered on a successful political career, it is hardly possible that we should have had that part of his message which has most endeared him to the world. Mr. Higginson invites us to see that the gift of political management, "which at first seemed to threaten him with danger, became, in its gradual development a real service to the cause of freedom." The support of this view is slight enough, while it is quite certain that, had he remained "inside politics," he would have become subdued to what he worked in to a lamentable and ruinous degree, for all his stout adhesion to the anti-slavery side.

Turning to the chapters which reflect this most vividly, we find at the outset some confusion of dates, that of the publication of Whittier's poem "To William Lloyd Garrison" being given as 1831 (p. 48), and on the next page his letter to Garrison, replying to an invitation to attend the American Anti-Slavery Convention, being also dated 1831, for 1832, 1833 respectively. Whittier's own account of that convention serves Mr. Higginson as an excellent *mémoire*, and, with a subsequent page of Whittier's on the persecution of the Quakers, gives a better impression of the poet's prose than Mr. Higginson's critical comment on its general character. The fact appears to be that his prose style was best when he was thinking least how he could make it fine. Whittier's experience of pro-slavery mobs is detailed in a very interesting chapter. His biographer was less called to veil with anonymity "one of the most eminent of Boston philanthropists" who not many years since called George Thompson "a foreign carpet-bagger," in view of Dr. Hale's recent reversion to that note in his 'Recollections of a Hundred Years.' To find two of Webster's nieces, daughters of Ezekiel, at one of Whittier's most mob-distinguished New Hampshire meetings, is a conjunction of extreme felicity. The chapter treating of the division in the anti-slavery ranks attempts to hold a just balance for the weighing of the merits of the controversy whose ashes are still warm. Hardly would one infer that Mr. Higginson's sympathy with Garrison's disunionism was as pronounced as possible. He gives us momentary pause when he writes that Whittier was "more strictly executive than Garrison," but his book contains no page of greater interest than that describing the relations of the Garrisonians and Liberty Party men and their different qualities. He says:

> "It must be owned, in viewing the attitude of these two dividing factions, that the Disunionists were in general the more interesting class personally and more eloquent in speech than their voting brethren, precisely because they could speak without the slightest reference to policy or organization; and that the very leaders of the latter, such as Whittier and Samuel E. Sewall, happened to have no gift of platform eloquence, though much faculty of organizing and conciliating; that the very fact of the entanglement of voting abolitionists with party leaders who never thoroughly belonged with them, such as Clay and Van Buren, was an embarrassment and a hindrance; and, finally, that the immense and unflinching weight of the women as non-voters was thrown on the side of Garrison and his party."

The comparison of Whittier with Garrison is continued in the chapter on Whittier's personal qualities. "Step by step, Whittier saw his own political opinions established; while Garrison lived to be content with seeing his specific counsels set aside, and his aims accomplished by other methods than his own." The comparison is more rhetorical than real. The methods of war were as little Whittier's as Garrison's. The method of disunion was Garrison's, not Whittier's, and it was the method by which slavery was destroyed. And why should not Garrison "join in the chorus of triumph over the reëstablishment of the Union," when it was a Union without slavery, while the political party with which Whittier finally allied himself withdrew, not only from the abolitionist attack on slavery in the States, but also from the Liberty Party attack on slavery in the District of Columbia, and fell silent in its platforms of 1856 and 1860 with regard to the Fugitive Slave Law?

"Whittier at Home" affords a pleasant

chapter. We read of his liking for Rossetti's "Sister Helen," and of its enhancement by his recollection of his mother's burning the waxen image of a clergyman in the hope of compassing his death and sending him to hell. His religious conservatism, which prevented his attending the marriage of a Friend who married "out of the Society," was paralleled by Emerson's injunction upon Fredrika Bremer, when she proposed to give a sample of Swedish music: "No, Miss Bremer, it is Sunday evening; I would rather not." Whittier's general religious attitude and his particular relation to the Society of Friends are made sufficiently clear. The whole of "My Birthday" is given as the final illustration (the first stanza marred by misprints in the third and fourth lines). "Early Loves and Love Poetry" is a chapter-title that covers abundant witness to Whittier's sensibility to the loveliness of woman, with some discussion of the mooted points in his heart's history.

A single chapter on "Whittier the Poet" may seem scanty treatment of what is most important, but it is not as if this chapter had not much support from several of those preceding it. Mr. Higginson remarks our ignorance of the origin and shaping of Whittier's poems, and his "gain in all ways from the strong tonic of the anti-slavery agitation," which trained him in simplicity and directness, and made him permanently high-minded. There appears to be much more self-disclosure in his verse than there was in his conversation. He had no knowledge of music, and could be induced by his "fool friends" to change his most musical lines for those less so, as,

"Pulse o' the midnight beating slow"

to

"Like the night's pulse, beating slow."

As compiler with Samuel Longfellow of 'Thalatta,' we expect, and not in vain, Mr. Higginson's pleasure in the salt breath of the sea which blows through Whittier's verse. How he differed here from other poets is well exhibited; his defects of execution are allowed; his sure feeling for the value of proper names is emphasized; and other traits get their due word. As to Whittier's vogue as hymn-writer, it might have been said that he owes it mainly to Samuel Longfellow's extraction of hymns from his longer poems, and that not one of Whittier's intentional hymns is ever sung. For Whittier's general relation to New England, Mr. Higginson goes to Mr. Stedman. What he brings away is admirable, but nowhere would we more willingly have heard him speaking in his own voice than here.

CONGO STATE HORRORS.

Civilization in Congoland: A Story of International Wrong-doing. By H. R. Fox Bourne. London: P. S. King & Son. 1902. Map. 8vo. pp. xvi. 311.

This history of the Independent State of the Congo is told from a single point of view. The two main objects for which the State was founded by the Powers at the Berlin International Conference of 1884-'85 were to secure freedom of trade and to protect the natives in the Congo Basin. The aim of Mr. Fox Bourne is to show that these ends have been completely lost sight of in the attempt to make the enterprise a financial success. With copious extracts from official documents, accounts of travellers, missionaries and agents, he traces the successive steps by which free trade has been abandoned and the State has become a huge monopoly—its sovereign being "the biggest ivory and rubber merchant in the world." Foreign traders have been practically driven out, and the whole territory has been divided for exploitation between the State and half-a-dozen Belgian companies. In carrying out this purely commercial policy the natives have been ruthlessly deprived of their natural rights. They are no longer permitted to gather "any products of the forests and the plains, which are the common property of their tribes, and in which their forefathers from all time have enjoyed every freedom, have hunted unhindered, and have gathered the juice of the palm tree, the sap of the rubber vine, and any and all other products which abound in the country." Not only are they deprived of their natural rights in the land outside of their villages, but they are practically enslaved through the exaction of a tribute in rubber. The collection of this tribute in some districts is the duty of the *force publique*, a body of State troops composed largely of ferocious cannibals. The accounts of the atrocities of these savages (under the command of white officers) committed in the discharge of this duty, would be absolutely unbelievable were they not vouched for by the unimpeachable evidence of numerous trustworthy white eyewitnesses. Similar evidence is given to show that the much-vaunted anti-slavery crusades against the Arabs degenerated into mere filibustering expeditions, having for their sole object the extension of the authority of the State. The condition of the natives of these regions in many instances (not in all, as the testimony of Sir Harry Johnston recently quoted by us shows) is far worse under their new rulers than it had been under their slaveholding lords. The Arabs introduced a measure of civilization which the Belgian troops destroyed and did not replace. To meet the expenses of these expeditions, the Government legalized a system of *prestations* or levies, apparently chiefly of forced labor, which, with the rubber tribute, became the rule and authority for every sort of oppression and extortion.

The present condition, then, as regards the fundamental reasons for the existence of the State, is this: Absolute free trade has been abandoned, with the consent of the Powers, on the plea that import duties were indispensable for administrative needs. But there has been little or no development of the vast agricultural resources of the country. On the contrary, there are unmistakable signs of a decrease of all native industries save the collection of rubber and ivory. For instance, the exports of coffee have declined from a value of over $200,000 in 1889 to $12,000 in 1901, though in the same period the forced rubber tribute has risen from $400,000 to nearly nine millions. In regard to the protection of the natives, it is enough to say that the fear of the Belgians is driving them from their old homes on the natural highways of their country, the rivers, into the impenetrable forests. A comparatively recent traveller on the Congo writes that he did not see a single purely native village on its banks between Stanley Pool and Stanley Falls, a distance of a thousand miles. A similar statement has been made within a few weeks respecting its great southern tributary, the Kasai, by an American missionary, the Rev. William Morrison, who has just finished a term of six years' service in that region. His homeward voyage of eight hundred miles on this stream was through a country formerly thickly dotted with villages, but now containing less than a dozen. Even more terrible is the fact, of which there can be little doubt, that, through the employment of cannibals, cannibalism is on the increase, notwithstanding its prohibition by decree. The natives have learned, to use the words of a former Belgian official, "that human flesh is useful as an article of food." But the evils of this commercial policy are not confined to the Congo State. The enormous dividends of the privileged companies—those of the Abir, in which King Leopold's shares were valued in 1902 at over five million dollars, in 1899 and the two following years were 270, 470, and 245 per cent. respectively—have led the French to institute the same system in their Congo territory. They have parcelled out more than half of it within the last three years into huge concessions among upwards of forty companies. "It is significant that these companies, albeit French in name, have been mainly instigated and encouraged by Colonel Thys and other Belgian promoters." Then a grave menace to the life of the State itself is the training a great body of savages in the methods of civilized warfare, and providing them with the necessary arms. In addition, according to the testimony of the acting head of the American Presbyterian mission on the Kasai, the State "habitually arms, whenever it deems necessary, thousands of auxiliaries, cannibals for choice!"

The unprejudiced reader of this volume cannot escape the conviction that Mr. Fox Bourne has proved his case. It is true that he has made some mistakes. We have detected a few unimportant errors in his figures on page 251, and on page 33 he gives a wrong date for Mr. Stanley's second Congo expedition. He has at times relied on untrustworthy testimony. If it be objected that he draws too dark a picture and makes little or no reference to the progress of some districts near the coast, it should be remembered that he is not writing a general history of the State, but is simply striving to show that it is not even attempting to accomplish the ends for which it was established. The subject is not a new one to him, but his book is the culmination of a series of efforts in the past few years, as the secretary of the Aborigines Protection Society, to arouse his countrymen, by appeals to Parliament and public meetings, to a sense of the wrongs of the Congo native.

The line of defence against these charges is perhaps sufficiently indicated by quoting the words of King Leopold last January, in response to an address by a committee of the British Baptist Missionary Society. After asserting that, "of course, we pay and treat well the working natives," he goes on to say: "You know that there is no perfection on earth. I know, too, that, although much remains to be done, great progress has been made in the Congo under my rule, and we cannot expect to reclaim at once a

race from centuries of barbarism. It is impossible to bring about a state of perfect civilization in a few years." In other words, the numberless crimes against humanity committed by his agents are but the regrettable incidents which inevitably accompany every attempt to reclaim a barbarous race. But the word "international" in his title shows that Mr. Fox Bourne places the ultimate responsibility for this "wrong-doing," not on the King, but on the nations whose representatives gave him absolute power over a territory 900,000 square miles in extent, with a population of thirty millions. And the nation upon whom the chief responsibility rests is the United States. This country was the first "to recognize the flag of the International African Association as the flag of a friendly Government." By this action it practically put an end to the attempt of Great Britain to secure absolute freedom in the navigation of the Congo, as well as the suppression of every form of slavery, through a treaty with Portugal, the only Power then interested. Some time after this our representative, Mr. Kasson, at the second meeting of the Berlin Conference, said in reference to this recognition that the President sanctioned it because he believed that through the Association "the enormity of the slave traffic will be suppressed, that the blacks will learn from it that the civilization and the dominion of the white man mean for them peace and freedom, and the development of useful commerce, free to all the world." This Government, then, should take the lead in an effort to secure the reassembling of representatives of the Powers who formed the Berlin and Brussels Conferences for the purpose of considering radical measures by which these ends may be reached.

A Book of the Country and the Garden. By H. M. Batson. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

The unpleasant pictures of the swine on pages 21 and 216 of this book, and the more unpleasant illustration of "agricultural depression" on page 259, certainly prejudice the reader. These engravings and a number of others scattered through the volume are decidedly unattractive, and lead one to think that a vein of coarseness must run through the text. The exact contrary is the case. The account of the Garden and of the Country Around, beginning in March and closing with the end of February, is refined and truthful in touch, and fascinating in style. The author has come with her brother to live in a cottage near the manor house and estate which should have been his, but which, by the will of a capricious testator, has fallen into other hands. Around this cottage a garden is slowly formed, and its mode of growth is interestingly described. The author appears to be thoroughly acquainted with numerous books on garden-planning and garden-keeping, and also knows well the class of garden books of which we may take 'Elisabeth and her German Garden' and Alfred Austin's 'Garden That I Love' as conspicuous examples. In the author's garden, planned to suit herself and to provide quiet walks for her brother, a student of philosophy, the resources of the gardener's art are somewhat severely taxed, and with good results. The twelve months go by with their changing outdoor cares and pleasures. The calendar is instructive, especially for its independence. A good many amateur gardeners can take timely hints from the story of the successes and the failures. The account is given with frankness and in good taste, and is encouraging rather than disheartening.

Now on this somewhat tangled thread of the story of a garden the author twists most gracefully the slender threads of two or three pleasant love stories. Two of these have been elsewhere given by her, but they were too pretty to be lost in the pages of old magazines. In one of these stories she brings the owner of the manor house (which should have been her brother's) to make a birthday call, on her coming of age.

"Magdalen stepped up the straight path and demanded to see Jim and me.

" 'I am of age to-day,' she said. 'I am eighteen and I may do as I like. I want you to let me know you: I want to be friends. I am of age and my own mistress, and I have been longing for it just that I might come to you. You won't send me away?'

"There was a suspicious break in the fresh young voice, and I kissed her, and I am sure that Jim would have liked to kiss her, too. The feud was at an end from that moment, and even the intolerable mother, when we went home that morning with Magdalen, tried to pretend that it had never existed. . . . Hardly a day passes that she does not come to us or we to her, and I have known her secret long ago, though she had never told it. But Jim, being a man, is stupid at seeing, or, if he sees, he keeps his counsel well."

The counsel is well kept until the closing paragraph of the book. Another story, that of Meschach's treasure, is charmingly told. We can give only its ending.

" 'I think you might find it just here.'

" 'But I have looked just there. I've dug it all up. I don't believe there isn't no treasure. Is there, Nancy?'

" 'Not if you think there isn't, Meschach.'

" 'He said it was under that apple tree.'

" 'Well?'

" 'And there's nothing under the apple tree.'

" 'Nothing, Meschach, except me.'

"Meschach looked at her stupidly for the space of a minute, and then a great light spread over his honest countenance. He caught naughty Nancy in his arms. 'My pretty dear,' he cried."

Petunia's story is almost as good as these. Other digressions—for instance, the account of the old and the new vicar, the shudders caused by two terrible children, and the recital of the attempted revival of old-time country customs and Christmas mummers' play—add much interest to this volume.

The American Vignola: Part I., The Five Orders. By William R. Ware, Professor of Architecture in Columbia University. Boston: The American Architect and Building News Co. 1902. Thin quarto, pp. vii, 46, eighteen plates.

Professor Ware supplies an interesting preface made up in part of his personal reminiscences. He gives also the names of some of his assistants and his authorities, and the reasons for his decision to call his book after the famous sixteenth-century architect and critic. He holds that there are readier ways of laying out classical and neo-classical orders than by constant reference to 'Modules and Minutes,' and quotes his own master, Richard Hunt, in that connection. The forty-six pages of text, pretty well crowded with illustrations, to which a very wide margin is given up in a sensible fashion, begin with a brief analytic explanation of why a building is what it is, and how its principal details come into being and take shape. We note here the assumption that all buildings are classical buildings. But for this impression, common in the architectural schools of the day, we should not have the "beam that spans the space between two piers or columns and the like," called an architrave or epistyle. The word lintel is ignored, and the constructional member is merged in the architectural member which often, though not always, even in classical work, becomes identified with it. So we should not have the top member of a cornice called the corona, a term which is exclusively classical in the architectural sense; but these and other failures to be precise come from the strong and over-mastering desire to be concise. The statement that a cornice comes of projecting the wall at the top to support the overhang of the roof is true about half the time only, and this and other such failures in logic are also to be charged up to the general discredit of brevity in composition.

As Plate One deals with mouldings, so the first division of the text, after the introduction, is devoted to that subject. The mouldings illustrated and described are all Greco-Roman or modern classic, with the exception of a single figure in the text. The second division of the text is devoted to "The Orders," with text illustrations, and to this succeeds immediately the description of Plate Two, which has to do with Vignola's comparison of the orders, five of them plus the Greek-Doric. The plates from Three to Fifteen are devoted to the different orders, and have each a brief text. There follow two plates of details and one of "Superposition and Intercolumniation," and the book closes thus with its eighteen plates.

It will be seen at once that the small treatise is intended for the students of our modern architectural schools. There is a world apart which these schools represent—a world of paper architecture in which designs are made flat, and in which exultation over a clever drawing is quite equal to that which the practising man feels in a working structure of merit. Professor Ware is not to blame for this state of things; and it is quite within the scope of his right and duty to produce one more manual for the students who fill his own and other classes—the men who are studying architecture as a profession.

The Economic Interpretation of History. By Edwin R. A. Seligman. Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. ix., 166.

Nothing is more significant in recent economic and historical work than the keen interest aroused by the phrase "the economic interpretation of history." The agitation of the "pure" historians has its counterpart among those economists who are desirous of saving us from "historical materialism." Those who have followed the controversy are beginning to realize the force of Mark Pattison's assertion that it is not "as a question of literature, but as the first condition of practical wisdom, that the

interpretation of history presses upon the attention." We are obtaining a body of undeniable generalizations of social facts, and the philosophical historian is no longer under the imputation of employing an hypothesis as the basis of his reasonings. Professor Seligman's book is notable reflection of the progress of scientific interest in this direction, and his work is an indication that the question is no longer one of mere theory, but an eminently practical speculation from which we are to obtain a real enlightenment of the practical judgment.

But it is not easy to discover just how fruitful Professor Seligman finds this particular explanation. He takes pains to impress us with the fact that "an" should be substituted for "the," and that we have but a relative, not an absolute, explanation of the "niceties of human development." At one moment we are impressed with the author's admiration of Marx's analysis of industrial society and his economic interpretation of history; then, from a desire to save "the spiritual factors of history," we get some queer reflections that relegate this interpretation to the archæologists; and finally, with a confusing interchange of the phrases "historical materialism" and "economic interpretation of history," we have a sketchy chapter on "exaggerations of the theory," that fails to give a clear conception of that doctrine "in a sublimated form" which "contains so large an element of truth and which has done so much for the progress of science."

Nothing is more inexcusable than the linking together of Brooks Adams and Professor Patten as copartners in "invalid applications of the theory." Neither of these writers has anything in common with the Marxian view, nor can they be dismissed as simply fanatics or over-enthusiastic advocates. Furthermore, Adams, with his solar-energy theory, has a radically different point of view from Patten, who insists that, although economic conditions are the primary source from which all elements of national character arise, it is a mistake to think that the national character is nothing more than the ruling motives of the economic world. Adams is frankly physical-economic, while Patten argues for the play of the psychical in economic development.

Professor Seligman also attributes a belief in "historical materialism" to Belfort Bax, and insists that his efforts have not met the great objection "that the theory of economic interpretation neglects the ethical and spiritual forces in history." Mr. Bax's views are clearly revealed in "The Materialistic Doctrine of History" in 'Outspoken Essays,' where he says:

"I maintain that no sort of demonstration has been given of the possibility of resolving any single epoch-making speculative, moral, or æsthetic conception into being the product of *mere* economic circumstance. This may enter into it and modify it in its realization, but it has never been shown that it can explain it more than partially. The same remark applies to any historical period or event. This, too, has never been *exhaustively* explained as a product of past or present conditions, although in certain cases I admit it may be sufficiently so for practical purposes. Just as society has a distinct economical development, so it has also a distinct psychological development; the interaction of these two lines of causation giving us social evolution in the concrete" (p. 50).

If Bax is an "historical materialist," what then does the phrase mean?

In his overestimation of Marx, Professor Seligman has failed to make clear the meaning of the literature of the economic interpretation of history. Whatever historical materialism may have been in the hands of the scientific Socialists, it has nothing in common with what is now called economic interpretation, which emphasizes a radically opposite group of factors, and holds to a rational anti-catastrophic conception of economic change—all of which Professor Seligman regards as an exaggerated application of Marx's theory. Such books as this only prolong the reign of inane language and crude thought that comes from such reflections as those of Mr. Kidd over "the meaning of the causes" for which our "civilization has wrought and suffered for a thousand years."

The Household of Faith: Portraits and Essays. By George W. E. Russell. New York: Edwin S. Gorham. 1902.

In an earlier work which had some circulation in this country, 'Collections and Recollections,' Mr. Russell gave his readers a series of amusing reminiscences such as would naturally be at the command of one who has spent his life in close intimacy with the best English political society of the last century. One of the essays in that volume, the paper on Cardinal Manning, has been reprinted in the present collection, to which it is better suited. Mr. Russell's title is Lightfoot's translation of St. Paul's phrase, τοὺς οἰκείους τῆς πίστεως, and in it he includes laymen as well as church dignitaries who have led religious thought in England along the lines laid down by the Tractarians in the thirties. All the essays have been printed before, partly in the *Nineteenth Century*, partly in the *Pilot*. To one who reads them consecutively in their present form, they are impressive as a singular testimony to the religious life of England during the past sixty years. To the student of theological history they are a valuable summary of the problems of doctrine and of discipline that have shaken the Church of England since her convalescence from the "Roman fever" of early Victorian days.

About half the essays are biographical notices of great Churchmen such as Archbishop Benson and Bishop King of Lincoln, or of certain saintly and distinguished laymen like Mr. Gladstone and Theodore Talbot, those two "young men of great possessions" whose ruling passion was the Church and the *haute politique* of the Church. That is the chain which binds together all these men, of whom Mr. Russell writes with enthusiasm and eloquence. He has well earned the derisive title of "Prolocutor of the Catholic Revival" bestowed on him by Sir William Harcourt in 1899, and we imagine that the republication of these studies in a form that will appeal to a wider public is a sort of challenge called forth by the recent Kensit agitation. Ritualism had been allowed to develop in peace, and had quietly superseded evangelicalism, when the late Mr. Kensit rose in his wrath and recalled the persecutions of a generation ago. The Lambeth judgment of Archbishop Temple against incense was a severe blow to Mr. Russell and his friends, and in one of the final essays, "A Mockery, a Delusion, and a Snare," he bitterly contrasts the Temple of 'Essays and Reviews' with Temple the Primate. He considers that the late Archbishop created a crisis by yielding to the "bogus agitation" of Kensit and his followers, and awoke in the High Church party that old hankering after Disestablishment which had been allowed to sleep, at any rate since the famous trial of the Bishop of Lincoln. There is no doubt that the successors of the Tractarians welcomed every movement that severed Church and State and made for Disestablishment. In his essay, "Ritualism and Disestablishment," Mr. Russell quotes Mr. Gladstone as writing in 1874 that the negation by authority of the doctrine of the Real Presence would lead to the disruption of the Church. One of the main objects of the Oxford Movement of 1833 was to shake off state control of the Church.

"The Oxford Movement was, in one of its most important aspects, an attempt to recall men's minds to the conception of the Church of England as a spiritual society holding its essential constitution direct from Christ, and only accidentally allied with the secular state." . . . "Some of the more ardent spirits of the Movement—such as Hurrell Froude—felt the galling fetters of Establishment with special keenness; and, generally speaking, the attitude of the Oxford writers and those who sympathized with them was that of

" 'Watching, not dreading, the despoiler's hand' " (p. 381).

The Ritualists of the sixties and seventies were in favor of Irish Disestablishment, and were even eager to extend the process to England. The Public Worship Regulation Act of 1874 was, as Beaconsfield said, "a bill to put down Ritualism." Once more a loud cry in favor of Disestablishment arose from within the Church.

Mr. Russell's essay on the religious development of Mr. Gladstone is one of the most interesting. One remembers how Cardinal Manning wrote of Gladstone in his old age: "He was nearer to being a clergyman than I was. He was, I believe, as fit for it as I was unfit." Mr. Russell records the fact that though Gladstone gave up his desire to enter holy orders at the bidding of his father, who was bent on his becoming a politician, "he used to denounce, even with vehemence, that overweening exercise of the *patria potestas* which diverts a young man from the course on which his heart is set." Few people, probably, think of Gladstone as the possessor of an essentially artistic temperament, but it is thus that Mr. Russell accounts for his natural taste for ceremonial and his sympathy with the Ritualists. Mr. Russell was present at his deathbed, from which Gladstone sent his farewell message to Oxford: "There is no expression of Christian sympathy which I value more than that of the God-fearing and God-sustaining University of Oxford. I served her, perhaps mistakenly, but to the best of my ability. My most earnest prayers are hers, to the uttermost and to the last."

Next to Mr. Gladstone, Edward King, Bishop of Lincoln, is Mr. Russell's hero and model of saintliness; the essay which describes his career as a Churchman is headed "The Angel of the Church of Lincoln." He tells a good story of young King at Oriel, under the provostship of the formidable Dr. Hawkins. "At the end of King's first term, the Provost called him up to the high table in the College Hall, and, after inspecting the Chapel Register, said, 'It

would appear, Mr. King, that you have attended Divine service in the college chapel twice a day every day since the commencement of the term.' King modestly admitted that it was so, and probably expected a word of praise. But he did not know the Provost, who promptly said, 'Beware, Mr. King, of letting your religion degenerate into a routine. You can go.'"

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Borsdorf, A. T. W. On the Literary Theories of Taine and Herbert Spencer. London: David Nutt.
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Coubertin, Pierre de. La Chronique de France. Paris: Pierre de Coubertin.
Crandall, F. M. How to Keep Well. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Curtiss, C. C. The American Standard Bookkeeping. American Book Co.
Edwards, Louise B. The Tu-Tze's Tower. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates.
Fairweather, W. The First and Second Book of the Maccabees. (The Temple Bible.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Ford, P. L. Janice Meredith. (Players' Edition.) Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Funk, I. K. The Next Step in Evolution. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 50 cents.
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James, William. Puerto Rican and Other Impressions: Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Jewish Encyclopædia. Vol. IV. Edited by Isidore Singer. Funk & Wagnalls.
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Lawrence, William. Phillips Brooks: A Study. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 4, 1903.

The Week.

Senator Hanna has now a perfectly good excuse for urging the Ohio State Convention to endorse President Roosevelt's renomination. He had said that such action was never taken except in the case of a "favorite son." Well, Mr. Roosevelt has shown that he is Ohio's favorite son. So he is, apparently, of every other State in the West and Northwest, excepting possibly Indiana. At any rate, his renomination is as certain as any future event can be. The disappearance of prosperity might defeat his reelection, but not even that could now prevent his renomination. With this strong assurance his to-day, President Roosevelt should from now on take an even firmer stand as the representative and champion of the people against political schemers. He has no longer any need of stooping to conquer. No further compromise with politicians, no subsequent paltering with principle, can be excused on the ground that it is necessary in order to "keep the party in power"—the party, in that phrase, always meaning the party of the first part, namely, the President himself. One of the greatest perils of our system of party government has long been the temptation of a President to do things of which he was in his heart ashamed, for the sake of renomination. That snare is now removed from before Mr. Roosevelt's feet. The result ought to be to make the remaining months of his Administration reach the highest possible level of fearless devotion to duty, as it is given to the President to see it.

The Cincinnati *Enquirer* publishes what purports to be an interview with the wife of a member of President Roosevelt's Cabinet. The greater part of it consists of Washington gossip too trivial to be noticed, but it offers one political phase which may prove interesting to Gov. Cummins. According to the story, the Governor got a severe rebuke from President Roosevelt, Secretary Root, and Secretary Shaw when he (Gov. Cummins) made his speech in favor of tariff revision. This trio let the Governor know that the so-called "Iowa idea" was un-Republican. If the Governor has since brought about harmony in the party (quoth the interviewed) he must have done so by changing the "idea." This conception of the Administration's position in reference to the tariff coincides with that which persons not in the inner circle had pretty generally formed, but it is not to be inferred that "the Iowa idea" has undergone any change, or that Gov. Cummins has retracted one jot or tittle of his own previous sayings. Nor can such changes take place while the tariff burdens resting upon Western industry continue to weigh upon it. Petitions from makers of agricultural implements calling for relief from the duties on iron and steel and a great variety of articles which have been monopolized by Trusts are now in circulation. They will be presented to Theodore Roosevelt and to the Congress of the United States as soon as the latter comes together in regular or special session. They embody the Iowa idea, and they will disturb the harmony of the party in many places before the delegates are elected to the next national convention.

Mr. Bourke Cockran has been interviewed at Berlin on the subject of Mr. Cleveland's nomination for the Presidency. He is reported as saying that if there is a popular demand for Mr. Cleveland's return to the Presidency strong enough to force his nomination upon the Democratic Convention, that same demand will insure his election, because the opposition to him is strongest in his own party. Mr. Cockran ought to be an authority on the subject of Cleveland's forcing powers, for he went to the Chicago Convention in 1892 as the anti-Cleveland orator of Tammany Hall, and there made a speech, in the name of the solid New York delegation, in which he predicted the loss of the State and the country if Cleveland should be nominated. The same popular demand, however, which forced Cleveland's nomination upon the Convention was strong enough to insure his carrying New York and the country and, if we are not mistaken, the support of the Tammany orator himself. Therefore, Mr. Cockran's sayings on this subject must be considered little less than oracular.

Mr. Cleveland was never more courageous, or more absolutely sound, than when he cautioned the Carnegie Hall meeting last week against a rash arraignment of the Russian Government as responsible for the Kishenev massacre, and reminded his hearers that, in such matters, this stone-throwing country lives in a glass house. His pointing to the wholesale slaughter of Chinamen in Wyoming recalls a shameful event of his first Presidency. Perhaps he had in mind the humiliating reference to it which he was compelled to make in his message to Congress in 1885. He may even have freshly gone over the correspondence of that period between the Chinese Minister and Secretary Bayard. It would do us all good to read it at this juncture. We might take it in place of one of the penitential psalms. The Chinese Minister massed the evidence going to show that the massacre of the subjects of a friendly Power residing in this country was as unprovoked as it was brutal; that the Governor and Prosecuting Attorney of the Territory openly declared that no man could be punished for the crime, though the murderers "attempted no concealment"; and that all the pretended judicial proceedings were a "burlesque." All this Mr. Bayard had to admit, speaking with shame of "the wretched travesty of the forms of justice," of his "indignation at the bloody outrages and shocking wrongs inflicted upon a body of your countrymen," and of his poignant mortification that "such a blot should have been cast upon the record of our Government." Such confession is good for the soul—never more so than when we are about to denounce another Government.

Neither the temporary appearances nor disappearances of bosses are conclusive of anything in particular, and we therefore advise against attaching too much importance to the retirement of Senator Quay from the State Chairmanship of his party in Pennsylvania. This is not necessarily an evidence that he is wearying of the cares of office and leadership. There are times when such men come out into the open, and times when they burrow, and this may be one of the latter. As for the State Convention at Harrisburg last week, it was of the usual Quay sort. As the Philadelphia *Press*, which clearly desires to praise, says: "It was all smooth, easy, decorous—and dull." There was a long platform, but it would have been more interesting if it had been shorter and said more. No mention was made of the press-gag law, which shows that the ridiculousness of Pennypacker has impressed those other eminent statesmen who desired the measure as strongly as he did, but who have not been so unfortunate as to be, like Pennypacker, among its first victims. A State Senator who voted for the gag law was nominated for State Treasurer. This may make the libel statute a feature of the State campaign. It certainly ought to be an issue.

A bill has been introduced in the Michigan Legislature substantially on the lines of the new libel law in Pennsylvania. Like that, it seeks to establish a more drastic rule regarding negligence on the part of newspaper publishers, and provides that the damages to be awarded shall be increased if the libellous matter has been printed with any especial prominence, extra heavy headlines, or cartoons. The bill has not yet

advanced far in the Legislature, but is said to have the favor of certain Michigan leaders who have been lampooned in the newspapers. We have our doubts as to the probable effectiveness of such a law in Michigan. As was pointed out in the case of the Pennsylvania statute, it really goes very little beyond existing law. The peculiar importance of the enactment in the Keystone State was that there they had a Pennypacker to expound and interpret it. As a result, the whole State broke out into a broad smile which has not even yet wholly relaxed. In Michigan, so far as we know, they have no Pennypacker. We fear that their law will fall flat.

The Mayor of Erie, Pa., furnishes a good example of the way to treat a police force determined to run itself, rather than be run by the responsible authorities. It is true that the force at Erie is not large, but it seems to have been imbued with about the same spirit which caused our own guardians of public safety to band together and contribute money in order to install a particular platoon system over the head of their Commissioner. The Erie policemen formed a union and demanded an increase in pay, under threat of resigning in a body. The Mayor promptly took them at their word and let them resign. When they tried to beg off and withdraw their resignations, he declined to permit it, basing his refusal on the ground that their action was incompatible with good discipline. He accordingly appointed new men in the places of the recalcitrants. For the moment, Erie's reorganized police force is not exactly the "finest"—without uniforms and without training—but with such a Mayor it is certain speedily to reach a high grade of efficiency.

The celebration of the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of New York city, to which the past week was devoted, was not by any means a failure, but it was not a great popular success. There were some dignified ceremonies at the City Hall, some tasteful decorations some useful special exercises in the public schools. Whatever was officially pertinent to the occasion was officially done, and done rather well. But the general body of citizens went back and forth to their business pretty much as if nothing was happening. Probably it would not have been quite like this in any other city. Abroad there would have been stately and ponderous functions, with plume and helmet, procession and review. If the metropolis of the Central West of our own country could have celebrated such an anniversary, there would have been vast excitement over it, accompanied by a general suspension of business. We may congratulate ourselves, perhaps, that we have avoided vain show and hysteria. But have we not missed something, too, of the elements which go to make up a united community, with a local pride, not vainglorious merely, but really worthy in its nature? How are citizens to be induced to turn even temporarily from their individual absorbing interests to engage in the upbuilding of such a spirit? This is a question which we still have to answer.

Some Southerners profess their readiness to submit to a reduction of Southern representation in Congress in return for the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment. In a recent address on the occasion of the decoration of the Confederate graves at Port Gibson, in that State, Congressman B. G. Humphreys of Mississippi pronounced the Fifteenth Amendment an incubus put upon the South by the North "in its anger." It is "sapping the liberties" of the South, and the price of a reduced representation in Washington is a cheap one to pay for the abolition of the abhorrent amendment. Mr. Humphreys was born in 1865; there is therefore possibly the excuse of ignorance for him when he says that "it is the declared opinion of all the unprejudiced students of the institution that the negro slave in the Southern States was, as a rule, the best *paid*, the best protected, and certainly the equal in happiness, of any peasantry upon the earth." But such colossal ignorance and misrepresentation should not lead Mr. Humphreys into self-delusion as to the possibility of a repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment. It is in the Constitution to stay, and behind it are the conscience of the North and the memories of the men who died that the Union might live.

Secretary Root's decision to order a court of inquiry to probe further into the charges against Capt. Howze, despite his belief that they are baseless, is strong evidence of his desire to get at the real facts in the case. As the matter now stands, there is a flat contradiction in the testimony. On one side there are Capt. Howze and ten American officers; on the other, Major Hunter and no less than thirty-five affidavits from Filipino witnesses. The latter Mr. Root distrusts because of his belief that "the view generally taken in a large part of the Orient, including the Philippine Islands, as to the sanctity of an oath and the moral obligation to tell the truth in judicial proceedings, varies widely from our own view, and that native testimony to almost any effect without regard to fact can readily be procured by a person interested in procuring it." To examine again Major Hunter's thirty-five witnesses with the object of establishing their credibility is, therefore, the main purpose of the commission of three officers to be appointed at once by Secretary Root. Upon their report will depend the question of a further inquiry into the acts of Capt. Howze.

But Secretary Root does not stop there. He also orders that the investigation made by Major Hunter be investigated in turn to ascertain whether it was the impartial one he should have made in accordance with his rank and his orders from Gen. Miles to make a report upon the alleged cruelties in Laoag. If it then appears, as Mr. Root seems to believe to be the case, that Major Hunter deliberately procured thirty-five Filipinos to swear falsely, deliberately attacked a brother officer because of petty spite, and set afloat apparently well-founded evidence of what Mr. Root terms "revolting cruelty," Major Hunter cannot be brought to book too quickly. Whether it is Major Hunter or Capt. Howze, there is apparently one officer whom the army can afford to do without at an early date. It must be noted in this connection that the testimonials to Capt. Howze which accompany Secretary Root's report are of the highest, and that the Secretary himself believes that Capt. Howze has maintained a high character "as well for humanity as for courage and for all soldierly qualities."

Senator Dryden of New Jersey may well be vexed at the rumor that he contemplates resigning from the Senate on account of his multiplying business affairs. As he intimates in his denial, his critics entirely misunderstand the position of a modern Senator. The more outside interests he has, or represents, the more important it is that he should be in the Senate. A pretty pass we should come to if there were no one in the Senate to defend railroads and trolley lines and mergers of various sorts from unjust attacks. With a President so careless in such matters, it is doubly important that Senators like Mr. Dryden should not desert their post of duty. Of course, their private concerns take up most of their time, and they cannot be expected to make speeches or undergo the drudgery of committee work; but there is always a sprinkling of lawyers in the Senate to attend to that necessary but comparatively unimportant work.

Thursday's melancholy disclosures regarding the condition of the so-called "Shipyard Trust" brought no news to well-informed circles in Wall Street, and perhaps did not surprise the public generally. The Stock Exchange and the "curb," in cutting down their bid for the $45,000,000 preferred and common stock from 68 and 25 respectively to figures such as 4 and 2, gave pretty plain evidence what their opinion was. The troubles of a trust company which had invested in the securities on "inside" terms, and found it impracticable either to sell or to borrow on such collateral,

gave public advertisement of the situation. It has also been suspected for some time that the earning capacity of the new Trust's plant had been greatly overestimated. But the official explanation, which accompanies the plan for reducing capital, goes rather beyond even the most cynical of recent guesses. This statement flatly declares, as regards the "combine's" situation at the time when its stock was offered to the public, that in many of the constituent concerns "where profits had been reported, it was found upon reëxamination that the company had sustained losses instead of making profits." "Reëxamination" strikes us as decidedly innocent. Who made the original examination, and how did the examiners happen to be so obliging as to overlook what the market appears to have suspected all along, and what the "reëxaminers" have discovered with little trouble? It does not appear to us that so shocking a scandal, amounting to a confessed fraud on that portion of the public which was unlucky enough to credit the prospectuses of a year ago, ought to be left without further notice.

The receiver of the Central National Bank of Boston has called a meeting of the directors of that insolvent concern in order to present an ultimatum from the Comptroller of the Currency requiring them to furnish the necessary funds to pay its debts. If this is not done forthwith, the law will take its course. The collateral held by the bank is declared next to worthless, and in one instance a loan nearly equal to the bank's capital is said to have been made on this kind of security. Bank failures are not so rare that the case of the Central National of Boston should excite our special wonder, but all the people are interested in preserving the integrity of the national banking system. To that end the law should be rigidly enforced, including that provision of it which forbids the lending of more than one-tenth of a bank's capital to one person, firm, or corporation, directly or indirectly. The late Hugh McCulloch, a successful banker under the old régime, and later Comptroller of the Currency and Secretary of the Treasury, said in his book, 'Men and Measures of Half a Century,' that all bank failures were due to speculation or to rascality. In his opinion, there could be no excuse for any bank failure whatsoever. That this was a sound opinion may be inferred from the fact that the State Bank of Indiana (composed of thirteen branches) over which he presided, weathered all storms during the thirty years of its existence, which were peculiarly years of stress and danger in the banking world.

The causes of insolvency of national banks, as listed in the annual reports of the Comptroller of the Currency, go far to confirm Mr. McCulloch's saying that failures are due either to speculation or to fraud. The greater part of the failures catalogued from the beginning of the system in 1863 fall in the latter category. Defalcations of officers is usually combined with fraudulent management in other ways, and particularly with excessive loans to directors or their friends. Probably nine-tenths of all the failures recorded are due to this network of causes. Excessive loans and depreciation of securities generally go together in cases where there is no actual fraud. These are cases where the bank takes a risk, *i. e.*, engages in speculation. The framers of the National Bank law were practical bankers, who knew the dangers which beset their vocation. They knew that the temptation to lend money on doubtful security for the sake of extra profit would sometimes be too great for even honest bank managers to resist. In order to minimize such dangers, they inserted a clause in the law which prohibits the lending of more than one-tenth of the bank's capital to one person, firm, or corporation. This is the clause the infraction of which wrecked the Central National of Boston, and a little earlier brought the Seventh National of New York to temporary suspension. The latter was put upon its feet again by the directors, who took the money out of their own pockets voluntarily for this purpose—an example which those of the Boston institution should promptly follow.

It is an old trick of Mr. Chamberlain's to invent his authorities—or, at least, to assert that he is supported by authorities supposed to be against him. Thus, in his Birmingham speech on preferential tariffs, he said:

> "Mr. Cobden did not hesitate to make a treaty of preference and reciprocity with France, and Mr. Bright did not hesitate to approve his action; and I cannot believe, if they had been present among us now and known what this new situation was—I cannot believe that they would have hesitated to make a treaty of preference and reciprocity with our own children."

Upon this it is only necessary to remark that the French treaty was, indeed, one of reciprocity, but was not one of preference. In Morley's 'Life of Cobden' (Vol. ii., p. 291) is given an extract from the speech in which Mr. Gladstone explained the details of the treaty to the House of Commons. In it he declared in so many words, "it is perfectly understood between France and ourselves that we proceed with regard to the *commodities of all countries alike*." On another occasion Mr. Gladstone said: "Our treaty with France was, in fact, a treaty with the world," Mr. Chamberlain's idea of preference and exclusion had no place in the minds of either Cobden, Bright, or Gladstone. They are the last prophets whom Chamberlain ought to summon to bless his own scheme.

Will America retaliate? asks the London *Telegraph*, meaning to inquire whether we will make preferential tariff treaties with other countries than Great Britain in case she discriminates in favor of her own colonies—Canada, for instance. Nobody can tell beforehand what we should do in such a case. There would seem to be little reason for such retaliation on our part, seeing that Great Britain would be merely following our lead. We have conceded protective tariffs to our own producers as high as 100 per cent.—indeed, much higher than that in some instances. It is proposed that Great Britain shall follow our bad example, but on a much lower scale, by granting preferences to British subjects who do not inhabit the United Kingdom. We do not think it at all likely that she will do so foolish a thing, but if she does, we cannot, with any consistency, retaliate upon her for doing what we have done from time immemorial. Yet nobody can make a safe prediction on this score. It will all depend on whether any powerful interest can see an advantage to itself in a higher tariff than we now have, and can muster the necessary votes in Congress to get it. If it can do so, then we may have it, and may call it retaliation on foreigners, although spoliation of Americans would be the true name for it.

The penalty in the case of Huessner, the German ensign who recently killed his lifelong friend, Hartmann, a private of artillery, for failure to salute him properly, is not likely to teach the army or navy to forego any part of their extraordinary and mediæval code of "honor." Yet four years is about the sentence given to Lieut. Brüsewitz, who similarly stabbed a civilian without cause or reason, and who was subsequently pardoned after serving two years. It is not even certain that Huessner will be dismissed from the naval service. Anyhow, his punishment is, in all likelihood, not sufficient to cause the Marine School to alter its magniloquent instructions that an officer shall never draw his sword except to draw blood. Doubtless this was meant to apply to war conditions, but it is quite sufficient to overbalance a crack-brained young officer who in addition has been stuffed with nonsense about the code and "honor," and who sees militarism worshipped as the true god of the nation. One of the most powerful books which have recently appeared in Vienna, deals with the reflections of an officer about to kill himself because he had been jostled by a civilian and had not been able to stab him for the insult. Preposterous as the situation seems, it is the logical flower of military life in Europe.

THE NATION AND THE NEGRO.

It is a pleasure to note that the leading Alabama newspapers are explicit and emphatic in denouncing the system of negro peonage which has lately been unearthed in certain counties of that State. The disgrace is admitted. Severe punishment for those found guilty of the crime against the laws of the United States is called for. The Montgomery *Advertiser*, for example, rejoices that Federal Judge Jones, before whom the cases will come, is not only "a capable and fearless official," but "a Southern man who has the honor of his section deeply at heart. He will use every power under his control to get at the bottom of these cases, and to make examples of the cruel law-breakers involved."

This is as it should be. Still more significant, however, is an expression of the Montgomery *Journal*. After speaking of the gross outrages which had been inflicted upon "ignorant and inoffensive negroes," it declares:

> "Law-abiding people all over Alabama are looking to the Federal court to do what the State courts have tried for many years to do, and failed—failed because the witnesses were either bulldozed or were prevented from testifying before the grand juries for some other unknown reason.
>
> "Certain it is, with full knowledge of the traffic that has been carried on in certain sections of Alabama in what is practically and to all intents and purposes human slavery, and the cruelties that were being practised upon the poor unfortunates, the courts have been unable, after years of effort, to bring the culprits to justice."

Here is an instructive if unwitting confession that the question of justice to the negro is and must be national. It is impossible to treat it as a local, a neighborhood question. This country has such a thing as a national citizenship, with its rights and immunities. It cannot, without stultifying its laws and Constitution, allow any locality to nullify in secret or strike down openly the guarantee which it throws about the humblest. There must be a strong arm of the nation able to reach every violator of the laws which the nation enacts. We see how promptly the plea for being "let alone" falls to the ground in Alabama to-day. The very citizens of that State are thankful for Federal interference to right a great wrong, which the local officers of justice are too weak or too cowardly to deal with themselves.

The evil is of proportions only beginning to be realized. One reason why it has now started into light is that it is spreading. Practised for years without let or hindrance in the "Black Belt" of Alabama, the system of worse than slavery is edging its way even into the uplands, where it was never known before. A great deal was heard of the revolting revelations at Goodwater. This is in Coosa County, and the Coosa *Democrat* says of the crimes laid bare: "We had read of such *at other places in the State*, and knew the serious result that the culture and growth of crookedness must bring to any people. Goodwater will ever suffer from this, but the innocent should be spared, and the name of Coosa should not be mixed and besmirched with a matter that her citizens have all along heartily condemned."

It is of the utmost importance that the extent and nature of these crimes against humanity and the laws should be publicly understood. Only a fragment of the truth has so far been told. We are informed that affidavits are in existence proving not only illegality, but cruelty of the most shocking description. Negroes are both compelled to work under guards, being shut up in what is practically a prison at night, and are flogged to their work after the worst style of the plantation in the days of slavery. Slaves at least used to be fed and housed and clothed, after a fashion; but these new Alabama slaves are sometimes worked naked and barely kept from starvation. And all, be it remembered, owing to a conspiracy between the officers of the law and heartless employers. First, the ignorant and friendless negro is arrested on some flimsy or trumped-up charge; then he is fined to the full limit of the statute, then sold at hard labor, and kept in the most abject form of slavery long after his fine and costs have been worked out and there no longer exists even a pretence of an unexecuted sentence of a court hanging over him.

Why has it been left for Federal officials to bring these horrors to public notice for redress? Has not Alabama thousands of humane and public-spirited citizens who loathe such injustice? Ah, here we come again upon that blight which slavery cast over the South. Think of a country, said Emerson before the war, without a minority, with only one opinion. There is an artificial solidarity in the South, as relates to all questions affecting the negro's rights. Honest men dare not protest against what they know to be cruel wrongs to the negro, lest they be at once accused of being disloyal to their section, or even of being willing to encourage "social equality" with colored men. That is the taunt which dries up the protests of Southern men against outrages upon the negro. Privately, they writhe under the blot upon their State, but publicly they lift no voice. Hence it is that such a stain upon our civilization as the wholesale forcing back of negroes into slavery could be perfectly well known in the South, with no attempt made to wipe it off. Who shall say, in view of these facts, that the nation has not a duty in the premises? When its citizens are imposed upon and maltreated, in clear violation of Federal laws, as also when their solemnly pledged political rights are trampled upon, it is for the nation with a big N to assert its majesty and its power. What comes of listening to the lotos-eating cry, "Let us alone,' we see from the frightful wrongs of which Alabama to-day stands confessing herself guilty, though powerless to redress them.

THE POST-OFFICE INQUIRY.

Mr. Charles Emory Smith's much-heralded "denial" of the Tulloch charges is likely to please no one except Mr. Payne. A large part of it consists in admitting that, under the stress of war, unusual, not to say illegal, methods were resorted to. "Red tape of form" was not allowed to stand in the way of the "good of the service." Moreover, Mr. Smith concedes that in some cases of "irregularities" he was "not convinced of the necessity or propriety of the transactions." These questionable actions, Mr. Smith states, were the employment of unnecessary persons. If this is disposing of Mr. Tulloch, we need a new definition of refutation.

Mr. Payne's anxiety to refute Mr. Tulloch and to reflect upon him, his complete adoption of Mr. Smith's unsatisfactory letter, his apparent desire to shield Perry Heath, will strengthen a rapidly growing feeling that the Department is not willing to let daylight into its every nook and cranny. There is a strong belief, too, that Machen and Beavers are to be made the scapegoats, and Tulloch brushed aside, while other offenders go free and Mr. Perry S. Heath is suppressed lest his injudicious tongue give some insiders away. Why all this sudden talk about the benefits to accrue from the investigation? Why this remarkable announcement that, thanks to this scandal, the Post-office Department will be self-supporting in the fiscal year 1903-1904? If this long desired result is really to come about, thanks to anonymous letter-writters, to Tulloch, to Machen, and to Beavers, why not sing a hymn of praise to them? Is it that the approaching return to Washington of the Rough Rider has reminded Mr. Payne that it is well to have a credit account as well as a debit upon the books of his official career?

It will not do to toss aside the revelations of rottenness at Washington with our easy American good nature. Our temptation will be simply to say, "Oh, there were scoundrels before Machen; there were boneless Postmasters-General before Payne"; and so dismiss it all. Not so do we treat plain symptoms of grave disease. And badly diseased our public life must be to admit of so noxious a growth of fraud attaining such an extent unperceived. The first duty is, of course, to run down the rascals. They and all their crew must be made to see that the jails are yawning for them. Personal or political influence should be allowed to spare no guilty man. But, while hunting the thieves, is it not our business also to ask how this particular set of thieves came to be entrenched in the public service?

It is no chance coincidence which con-

nects "get-rich-quick" concerns with the postal scandals. Bribes were paid to allow such fraudulent enterprises to use the mails; but was not the whole idea of the criminals in the Department to get rich quick, and to prostitute office to do so? "Get rich, my son; honestly, if you can—but get rich." As Bishop McVickar said last week, it is this lust for money which accounts for a large part of our political corruption. All the way up from the primary to the very room of the Committee on Ways and Means of the House, "graft" aspires to lay its greedy hands. To make merchandise of office, to strive to get one's fingers somehow into the bottomless purse of the Government—that is the fundamental vice. The wretched Machen is no more guilty than Senators who have bought their seats, or committees on the tariff that sell legislation for a price. They are all a part of one unclean system. It would make barter of every office, and turn the whole public service into an auction—positions and favors going to the highest bidder.

The mad rush for wealth would not alone account for what we are seeing at Washington. That old weakness of human nature is artfuly allied with our party practices. This is the solemn truth for us to bear in mind. It is the spoils system in full flower which gives us Machen and his confederates. Many of the latter are really Congressmen. What, would we charge Congressmen with stealing? No, not money; but positions and favors, yes. They have been in league with the superintendent of the free-delivery service to secure appointments, and to spend more money than was appropriated. That was not strictly honest. That was not transacting Government business with the same fidelity as your own. The "rake-off" of the Congressman was in offices and appropriations. By granting those freely, Machen thought to fortify himself against any possible legislative interference. But what wonder if he went a step further and took his own "rake-off" on Government contracts? That was only a shade more dishonest than the use of office for personal or party reward. What is the real moral difference between creating a useless office and putting in it a man whom you expect to work for you, not for the Government, and paying extravagant prices for articles used in the public service, while quietly pocketing your commission on them? We confess we see very little.

An entire reform of our theory and practice of appointment to office, and of service in it, must come before we shall be exempt from such shocks to our complacency and our pride as the Washington disclosures have given us. Like the scandals of Grant's second term, they follow hard upon the lavish methods of war time, and show us once more just in what way war tends to impoverish the moral fibre. Resultant civic demoralization is one of the historic consequences of war. To the need of cutting out this particular gangrene, the authorities show signs of being at last aroused. Even the lackadaisical Postmaster-General finally admits that he has "a sad business" on his hands, and that "the end is not yet." Fortunately, the case has been put into the hands of that Assistant Postmaster-General Mr. Bristow, who has long been a terror to evil-doers. He recalls the Bristow who earned the enmity of the whiskey-ring in the seventies by his relentless and sleepless prosecutions. It is this skilled investigator who has now turned Mr. Payne's jocose "hot air" into indictments for crime. More power to his elbow! But we think, also, it is time that a vigorous word were heard from President Roosevelt. Can he not stiffen Payne as he turned down Hanna?

OUR ARBITRATION WITH VENEZUELA.

Venezuela's difficulties with her European creditors became so prominent last winter that the grievances of citizens of this country almost dropped out of sight. Yet one noteworthy result of the complications was the signing of the protocol providing for the arbitration of outstanding American claims against Venezuela. The commission appointed to meet on June 1 at Caracas for the adjudication of these claims will attempt to straighten out differences that, in many instances, are of half a century's duration.

The first commission to consider our Venezuela claims, in 1867, came to be an international scandal. It passed upon forty-nine cases, twenty-four of which, aggregating $1,250,000 in amount, were decided favorably to the American creditors. Only 15 per cent. of these awards were ever paid, the Venezuelan Government calling a sudden halt upon the alleged discovery that they had all been fraudulently obtained. This serious charge naturally created a great sensation. The gist of the accusation was that the several commissioners and the umpire—whose appointment, it was alleged, was not above board—had entered into a conspiracy to defraud the Venezuelan Government in the interest of certain preferred creditors. Their profit on the transaction, it was asserted, was from 40 to 60 per cent. of the awards. Inasmuch as Congress, in a joint resolution approved by President Arthur in March, 1883, declared that the charges were "not without foundation," and recommended the appointment of a new commission, it may be assumed that the evidence was pretty conclusive.

The diplomatic tangle dragged its slow length along until a new convention was signed in 1885 for the readjudication of the claims. Ratifications, however, were not exchanged until 1889. The charge that the first commission was corrupt was borne out, to some extent, by the judgments of the new one. It met at Washington in 1890, and, of the twenty-four claims allowed by its predecessor in 1867, decided that only nine were valid. Thus closed a diplomatic episode which was extremely humiliating to both governments, and which, for nearly a quarter of a century, was a menace to the relations of two friendly nations, as well as to the cause of international arbitration.

This review explains, in part, the necessity for the commission now in session at Caracas. The only province of the tribunal of 1890 was to pass anew upon the claims presented in 1867; it had no jurisdiction over the large number which had accumulated since that date. There were also several antedating 1867 which, for one reason or another, had not come before the commission of that year; and others have been piling up since 1890. The latest arbitral tribunal is sweeping in its jurisdiction. It is empowered to pass upon practically all the unadjudicated claims of American citizens against Venezuela. Moreover, a number of the cases brought before the commissions of 1867 and 1890 will be introduced again on the strength of new evidence. The unearthing of these old debts will involve the history of conditions in the republic of Venezuela since its foundation in 1811, and of our checkered relations with it.

The claims are of two classes—those which arise from contractual obligations existing between the Venezuelan republic and citizens of the United States, and the damages sued for as the result of injuries inflicted by Venezuelan agents upon Americans. Both classes are the direct outcome of the remarkable political conditions, the unstable and irresponsible governments, and the almost incessant revolutions, which have marked the annals of Venezuela. Many of the contractual obligations, for example, are represented by bonds issued to American citizens, frequently in payment for sums advanced in support of revolutionary movements. A wealthy American, that is to say, would become the financial backer of a Presidential aspirant. In the event of success, the grateful patriot would reimburse his supporter in the shape of a bond issue. Before many interest payments had been made, and almost invariably before the principal became due, another revolution (also, perhaps, with its foreign financial backer) would have driven the first President into exile. Under those circumstances, it was difficult to convince the latest incumbent that he had any obligation in connection with that particular debt. The argument made in favor of such bonds is that they have been issued by a de-facto and, in some cases, by a de-jure Government, and are

as legal as hundreds of other acts which bound successive governments. The other claims are usually for damages caused American citizens in the suppression of insurrections. The Venezuelan habit of appropriating the property of foreigners during these crises is notorious; but, up to the present moment, the Venezuelan republic has been reluctant to acknowledge financial responsibility for acts of this kind.

It is thus apparent that many old causes of friction between the two governments are likely to be removed by the coming arbitration, as well as lasting precedents established. The present commission will have two great advantages over any previous one. In the first place, the payment of the awards is assured. Thirty per cent. of the customs receipts of La Guayra and Puerto Cabello are now being collected for the satisfaction of foreign debts. If the Venezuelans do not hand this over themselves, the protocols signed with foreign Powers provide for the installation of Belgian customs agents. Again, the protocol with the United States is unusually liberal in its terms. It provides that the awards shall be made simply with regard to the absolute justice of the claims; that plain common sense, rather than legal technicalities, shall be the basis of the decisions. This provision, together with the personnel of the commission, should assure a fair adjudication of all matters in dispute. The State Department has appointed Mr. William E. Bainbridge as its representative on the commission; Venezuela has named Dr. José Paúl, while the Queen of the Netherlands has selected as umpire Mr. Charles Augustinus Henri Barge, ex-Governor of Curaçoa.

THE ANTIDOTE FOR CHAMBERLAIN.

Mr. Asquith, a man who weighs his words, declared in a speech on May 21 that the present English Government offers a spectacle absolutely unprecedented. The difficulty was to find the points upon which its ostensible supporters and its responsible Ministers agreed. It was not simply a question of there being a "cave" in the Government; the Government was "honeycombed by caves." In the Commons, you would run at every corner upon "some little knot of Ministerial supporters going to or returning from its own particular lair." The whole thing resembled a political pantomime. At any rate, Mr. Asquith concluded, "it would not be very long before the bell would ring for the transformation scene."

Well, the transformation scene was produced on Thursday. The Prime Minister gracefully ate his own words of less than two weeks before. On May 15 he told a delegation of protesting Unionists that the corn tax could not be made a "permanent part of our fiscal system," and that a "fiscal union" with the English colonies was not possible. On May 28 he was willing to leave them both open questions, along with the whole tried policy of English taxation and trade. When his subordinate, Mr. Chamberlain, affirmed that the next election would turn on the issue of preferential tariffs, with customs duties on food and raw materials, Mr. Balfour said that, though he did not agree as to the food tax, still, the Colonial Secretary's bold proposals were consistent with "the liberty of a Minister," and that the Cabinet was not, as cruelly charged, rent with dissensions.

Looking first at the political consequences of the muddle, we can only conclude that it must be fatally damaging to Mr. Balfour. He has never been expert in matters of trade or finance. His being enamored of bimetallism was looked upon as the amiable weakness of a metaphysician wandering about in a world not realized. That has been forgiven him—possibly because he had to suffer so much ridicule for it. But a great trading nation cannot long put up with a Prime Minister who does not know his own mind in the things of commerce and taxation. It is one thing to have a flexible intellect and a keen dialectic, as Mr. Balfour undoubtedly has; but it is another to be always doubtful of your ground, to be forever hunting with the hounds and running with the hare. Mr. Balfour's mind is so hospitable that he can harbor contradictory ideas. He is too much open to the reproach which Disraeli addressed to Sir Robert Peel—namely, the peculiarity, "which is perhaps natural with men of great talents who have not the creative faculty," of having "a dangerous sympathy with the creations of others." In this case, it is the masterful and initiating Chamberlain who has come forward with his creation, and the Prime Minister placidly takes it over, despite his former protests that he never would. Only one result can follow, politically. Mr. Balfour's prestige is snuffed out. His Government may not go to pieces, but he has shown himself a reed shaken in the wind. The leadership of his party must soon pass to other hands.

That they will be Mr. Chamberlain's is now the common expectation. He has again put forth an "unauthorized programme," as he did under Mr. Gladstone. But Balfour is not Gladstone. That imperious chief gave Mr. Chamberlain to know his proper station. Now the case is far different. Mr. Balfour does not fight; he simply makes subtle distinctions and weds opposites. The constituencies and his party have shown their dissatisfaction with him. The country craves a stronger man, and the Colonial Secretary has offered himself. He has positive convictions, a bold initiative, popular qualities, and an instinct for showy phrases about taking subjects. Whether the Conservatives really like him or not, they may easily be forced to accept him. Certainly the political fates seem clearly to augur that he must increase while Balfour must decrease.

As regards his specific programme, the first thing to be remarked is that it is not at all specific. He is going to bind the Empire together by means of preferential tariffs. He proposes to prevent England from being made a "dumping-ground" for foreign manufactures. We thought that the United States had reserved all rights as the only dumping-ground, but Chamberlain has taken the thing away from us, it seems. He is also going in for a policy of tariff retaliation against Germany, and this country, too, apparently. But when you press him for a plan he refuses to produce one. A wicked and adulterous generation seeketh a plan, but no plan shall be given them—not, at least, until after the country has sent Chamberlain to the Commons with a majority at his back. But this only increases the confusion of the political situation. Here is a strong Conservative Government already in power, but its Chancellor of the Exchequer is repealing the one tax—that on grain—which may be called protective, and which furnishes a basis for preferential trade with the colonies. What is the sense of that if you are presently going to ask the country to authorize a whole series of such taxes?

The financial and fiscal bearings of Mr. Chamberlain's grandiose but vague schemes will be much discussed. We can barely mention them now. In general, the argument against them is, first, that they are inconsistent with each other. He proposes, seemingly, to protect English manufacturers, yet would do it by making their cost of production higher by means of taxes on raw materials and on food. In the second place, statistics show that England's stake in the trade with foreign nations is about three times what it is in colonial trade. In 1902 she imported from foreign countries goods to the value of $2,105,000,000; from the colonies, only $530,000,000. The exports were, respectively, $870,000,000 and $545,000,000. What shall it profit England to increase her colonial trade if she hazards the other?

That the United States has a vital interest in Mr. Chamberlain's tariff proposals is obvious. A Congressman from Minnesota speaks of them as "a cloud on our commercial horizon." He points out, what must occur at once to every one who duly weighs the fact that the United Kingdom is by far the best customer this country has, that a discriminating duty laid in England upon our foodstuffs and the raw materials of manufacture might cripple our trade disastrously. Take a few figures. We sold to Great Britain in 1902, free of duty except for the small and temporary grain tax,

$4,220,000 worth of corn, $24,000,000 of live animals, $35,713,000 of flour, $50,000,000 of wheat, $80,000,000 of provisions, and $117,000,000 of cotton. This is a tremendous trade—upwards of $300,000,000 annually—and it is plain that a blow to it would be a shock to our national prosperity. That this has depended in large part upon our great crops, with ability to dispose of our surplus abroad, is questioned by no one. Nor is it a case for us to settle down in a fool's paradise and say that we shall go on "feeding the little islands right along," come what will. We do not consider the adoption of Mr. Chamberlain's plans probable; but they are not wholly impossible.

We will not affirm that Mr. Chamberlain is deliberately hostile to the trade of this country. What he primarily thinks of is, no doubt, the immense enlargement of an all-British trade. But the means he would employ cannot but be prejudicial to our commerce. It behooves us, therefore, to look about betimes, and take steps to ward off this possible danger. Canadian reciprocity is, in our judgment, the one road of safety and profit now open to us. By quickly closing with the willing statesmen of the Dominion a broad treaty for reciprocal trade, we not only could do a good stroke of business for the people on both sides the border, but should be able to bring the whole idea of intercolonial preferential tariffs to the ground. The reason is that we can offer Canada more than England can. We need the products of Canadian fields and forests and mines; Canada is a great natural market for our manufactures. Nature decrees close relations between the two peoples, and nature is still more powerful than Imperialism. Canadian lumber, and wood pulp, and barley, and coal are now prime necessities to us. We have manufactured products which flow into Canada in spite of her existing tariff in favor of British products. A reciprocity treaty, conceived on generous lines, in accordance with the expressed desires of New England and of the Chambers of Commerce in border cities like Cleveland and Detroit, as well as with the often manifested wishes of the statesmen in power at Ottawa, would not only bring added prosperity to both countries, as the treaty of 1856 confessedly did, but would definitely take Canada out of Mr. Chamberlain's great plan. But, with Canada out, that plan would die instanter.

NEW ROME.

ROME, April, 1903.

The vicissitudes of Rome have passed into a proverb, for no Western city so well illustrates by its history the instability of human affairs. These vicissitudes have not ended. Indeed, there has seldom been an epoch in the two thousand six hundred years during which Rome claims to have lived, which has seen larger and swifter changes in the external aspect, as well as in the social and political life of the city, than those which strike the visitor who compares what he beholds now with that which he beheld twenty or thirty or forty years ago. So far as externals go, the last fifteen years have brought about greater alterations than even the preceding fifteen, though it was in that earlier period that the rule of the Pope ended and the reign of the House of Savoy in Rome began. Swift as has been the growth of the great manufacturing towns in Germany, England, and America, the changes in Rome have been not less striking, though the scale may be less large. They are threefold changes. New quarters have been added. The older parts of the modern city, the parts which date, broadly speaking, from the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries, have been transformed. And the oldest parts of all, those which belong to the republican and earlier imperial ages of the ancient city, have been so largely, if still imperfectly, explored and laid bare by excavations that their aspect is very different from that which the antiquarian studied in the middle of the last century, and wholly different from that which Turner sketched and which inspired the verses of Byron.

These three sets of changes deserve to be considered separately. Taking the additions first, it is hardly too much to say that, since 1870, the area covered by houses has been increased by one-fourth. The space covered by those beautiful Ludovisi Gardens which were so delightful a feature in all general prospects over the city, is now filled by new, wide streets, lined by tall, handsome, and perfectly dull houses. Other streets, also with tall but somewhat less pretentious houses, have arisen on the gardens and fields which lay on the Esquiline and Cælian Hills between Sta. Maria Maggiore and St. John Lateran. A still larger mass of houses—partly detached or semi-detached villa-like residences, partly high blocks of tenement dwellings inhabited by the poorer classes—has sprung up in the region called the Meadows of the Castle (Prati di Castello) to the north of the Castle of St. Angelo and to the northeast of the Vatican. Here the speculative builder has made supply outrun demand, and many of these houses stand tenantless, a dismal sight. Nor is this all. At the opposite side of the city, thickly set houses line the streets which run out into the Campagna from the Porta Pia and the Porta San Lorenzo, so that considerable suburbs now cover what had been a perfectly lonely and silent region from the days of the Emperor Constantine to those of Pope Leo the Thirteenth. Building still goes on in these districts outside the wall of Honorius, and no one can say how far Rome may push herself into the country towards Tivoli.

So much for additions. Within the old town, the cutting of new, broad streets has completely altered the appearance of some of the most densely peopled parts. Nearly the whole of the famous Ghetto, that Jewish quarter which was the most compressed and intricate tangle of lanes in the mediæval city, has been demolished. A broad and stately street leads from the Capitol end of the Corso to the railway station at the top of the Quirinal hill; and the huge marble monument to King Victor Emanuel, which is being erected on the slope of the Capitol, begins to overtop the neighboring edifices, and will, when it has been completed, form a prominent and inharmonious object in the general view. Three new bridges have been thrown across the Tiber, and the Tiber itself is now buried for great part of its course by a new embankment, which rises high above the channel and has caused the destruction of many of the old houses which abutted on the margin. Much has been gained for health. Inundations need hardly be feared in the future. Malaria has practically disappeared; typhoidal fevers are less frequent; the death-rate has been so much reduced that Rome now ranks among the most healthy of European capitals. But this gain has been accompanied by a notable loss of picturesque beauty. The suburbs spreading out beyond the walls increase the bulk of the town, and, by adding featureless districts, lessen the distinctive character which the domes, and towers, and masses of ancient ruin gave to the smaller area in all those panoramic views from the tower of the Capitol, from St. Peter Montorio, from the top of Monte Mario, from the ball of St. Peter's itself, which were, thirty years ago, one of the chief joys and most durable recollections of a visit to Rome. The new thoroughfares, and, still more, the new quarters on the Cælian Hill and the Castle Meadows, are, like all the new quarters of European cities, absolutely monotonous and uninteresting. One is apt to think that it is age and decay that make buildings picturesque; but one cannot believe that after five hundred years these recently erected streets will be any less dull and tame than they are to-day. Here and there in Europe one finds single fine buildings, stately and dignified, if marked by little originality, erected within the last forty years. But the art of street construction, considered as a distinct branch of architecture, seems to have died out alike in Italy and in Germany, in France and in England. The most ardent worshipper of beauty must, however, admit that the dwellers in Rome cannot be expected to sacrifice health and comfort to the romance of tradition and the charm of decay.

Lastly, Rome, as we see it now, has become a new Rome by the uncovering of the oldest monuments of the classical city. The discoveries made within the last twenty-five, and especially within the last ten, years, have of course affected only a small area. Four-fifths of them have been made in the Forum, inside an area which one might roughly estimate at thirty to forty thousand square yards. But this is by far the most interesting part of the city, since it is that which is most closely related to the history of the Republic and of the earlier Empire; and it is the part where the masses of ruin, planted close together, most powerfully affected the imagination of those who saw ancient Rome in her greatness and her decline. Here and there in other districts discoveries have been lately made, such as that of the old Church of St. Sabas on the Aventine, under and in the middle of the more recent church of the ninth century, or such as that of the police barrack of the *Vigiles* in the Trastevere region, some twenty feet below the level of the present ground surface. Still, the excavations in the Forum Romanum

transcend all others, and have given us for the first time a fairly complete and exact knowledge of the various historic sites within its crowded area. The Basilica Aemilia has been entirely laid bare. The Temple of Julius Cæsar, with the very altar on which his body was burned; the fountain of Juturna, the temple of Vesta, the Regia, the Black Stone with the mysterious *cippus* or small stone pillar, bearing an inscription in letters, half Latin, half Greek, which have not yet been deciphered, and which must go back to a very remote age, have all been located and examined. A group of prehistoric sepulchres, possibly older than the traditional foundation of Rome herself, and considerably beneath the level of the Forum of Cæsar's day, has been discovered. Signor Boni, in whose hands the direction of these latest diggings has lain, has shown great skill in conducting them so as to do the least possible damage to the remains uncovered, and has shown no less taste in putting in such structural supports as were needed, and in planting flowers and shrublets where there was space for them. Another almost equally interesting excavation has revealed, at the edge of the Forum, under the stupendous pile of the buttresses of the early imperial buildings on the Palatine Hill, a large Christian church of the seventh and eighth centuries, S. Maria Antiqua, whose walls are covered with remarkable fresco paintings. These discoveries have given a veritably new old Rome to the scholar and the archæologist.

Much more remains to be done. Excavation ought to be pushed further back on the side of the Forum opposite to the Palatine, where the existence of houses still in private hands has checked the work. The Palatine itself has been less than half explored, and, though it will yield no historic spots comparable to those of the Forum, there may be priceless fragments of sculpture buried within the masses of ruin. The same is true of parts of the Cælian and Esquiline Hills. It is the want of funds that checks the progress of the work. Italy, though her financial position has sensibly improved, is not able to spend much money on what is, after all, a luxury. Under these circumstances, it may cause surprise that men of wealth and taste in other countries, and especially Americans, do not come forward to help in a work of such immense importance and interest. The Italians are a little sensitive as to receiving the aid of foreigners, yet these susceptibilities might easily be allayed. No object outside their own country ought more to appeal to Americans, for Roman archæology belongs to the whole world, and Americans have in the American School at Rome an institution of which the colleges that support it may be justly proud, and in the head of that school an accomplished and judicious scholar, whose advice as to the wise employment of funds in archæological research would inspire the fullest confidence. When one considers what light is being thrown upon primæval history by explorations such as those of Mr. Arthur Evans in Crete and Mr. W. M. Ramsay in Asia Minor, as well as by the recent explorations in Rome, it seems extraordinary that, in an age when rich men find it hard to know how to spend their wealth, it should be found so difficult to obtain funds to prosecute researches of incomparable historical significance.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May, 1903.

I cannot remember one of the Academy's shows that has contained so few fine or interesting exceptions to the general rule of mediocrity as the present. One reason, perhaps, is that Mr. Sargent seems to have put a new restraint upon himself. For several seasons past, the Academy has been relying upon him too implicitly to provide something in the way of a sensation. His huge portrait groups, with their air of inexhaustible physical energy and industry, were overwhelming in the midst of timid, furtive, anæmic little Academical performances. But this year he has no large portrait group. He sends nothing that in size or scale can catch the public's eye; and, what is more serious, nothing that in ambition or achievement can appeal to artists with the force of so much of his work in the past. His portraits are six in number, and I need not add that they are distinguished by the technical ability which is taken as a matter of course in Paris, and in London always seems so startling, such a rare gift. But I cannot help thinking that Mr. Sargent nowadays is in too much haste to meet the rush of commissions to exercise his old power of observation—or instinct, it may be, one should call it in his case. I feel this more particularly in the four portraits of women. There was a time when the faces of his women were almost indiscreet in their revelation of character; now they begin to be too non-committal to interest one. Race alone, it might have been thought, would have differentiated the type more strongly in his "Mrs. Joseph Chamberlain," "Lady Evelyn Cavendish," and "Mrs. Julius Wernher." The portrait of Mrs. Chamberlain is especially disappointing. It is a half-length. She stands, looking out from the canvas, in a delightfully painted gown of white and blue; but this gown, with its folds and shadows, its sheen and shimmer, and the chance it gives for long expressive sweeps of the brush, has apparently engrossed Mr. Sargent. The head is insignificant. The face wears the conventional smile that too many of his women of late have shared. Nor can he keep his palette clear of the unpleasant green that gets into his flesh tints, into his draperies, even into the detail which in several of the portraits he introduces into the background. And it is the same with the "Lady Evelyn Cavendish," and still more so with the "Mrs. Julius Wernher." He has evidently enjoyed the ease and rapidity with which he put in the costume—texture, color, mode, all admirably suggested—but he has been too hurried to linger over the face and give it its essential and more subtle, and therefore more difficult, character with equal vigor and expressiveness.

He has succeeded no better with his two portraits of men, though Lord Cromer, surely, should have offered him every opportunity. The large, portly, middle-aged, gray-haired man, in his correct suit of gray, who sits in his study at ease, with his legs crossed, is the typical "English country gentleman," not the statesman. There is prosperity in every substantial line and curve of the figure; the ruddy complexion speaks of a healthy life in the open air. But of the man born to command, there is not a trace—not a trace of the dignity, even the swagger, of which every old portrait painter of the least note had the secret. The likeness, no doubt, is admirable, but it is admirable photographically. It is as if Mr. Sargent had taken a snapshot with his brush at Lord Cromer in passing, without stopping to bother about pose, or design, or pictorial unity, or any other such trifle. And so, also, the painter has caught Mr. McCorquodale, in the other portrait, at the moment of leaving the room, hand even on the knob of the door; has focussed his attention upon the face, burnt by the sun to a brilliant red, and left the rest of the picture to take care of itself.

To say this is to explain that Mr. Sargent's pictures this year are not of great distinction. It must also be said, in justice to him, that they are, technically, abler and more skilful than any others in the Academy. But the trouble is that an artist upon whom Mr. Sargent has, to a great extent modelled his style, who actually succeeds where Mr. Sargent is still striving, is this spring exhibiting at the New Gallery a portrait that sets quite a different standard from the Academy's. This artist is M. Boldini, and the portrait, the wonderful "Whistler," his masterpiece. I described it when it was shown in Paris in 1900; it has been seen in New York. There is no need, therefore, to describe again one of the most amazing studies of character that any modern artist has produced. I do not mean, when I say this, that it is a portrait to be ranked with the masterpieces of Hals and Rembrandt, of Velasquez and Mr. Whistler himself. But what I do assert is that, as a study of character, it is astounding, and that, moreover, it is infinitely better than any thing shown in any gallery in London this year. It is true that Mr. Lavery and Mr. Henry both have portraits at the New Gallery, in which there is the charm of pictorial unity disdained by Mr. Sargent. True, that at the Academy Mr. Furse is unusually ambitious and accomplished in two large portraits—one of an officer standing by his horse, the other of a lady in voluminous rose-colored draperies also standing by a horse upon which the rider still sits astride, and both set against a wide romantic landscape—attempts in the "grand manner" of the eighteenth century, brought back into fashion by Mr. Sargent. True, that Mr. Greiffenhagen has a small portrait of a man (just the head and shoulders), so well designed, so harmonious in its low-toned color scheme, keeping its place so well within the frame, that, modest as it is, and obscure as is the corner found for it by the hanging committee, it strikes one as the most complete, the most perfectly rounded-out picture in the Academy. But all these things are overshadowed by the Boldini, which, in its intense vitality, its observation, its truth, its brilliant technique, simply dominates everything in London this spring.

Mr. Abbey has failed the Academy almost as signally as Mr. Sargent. It is he who, of late, has supplied the large historical composition—"the subject picture"—without which at one time no Academy would have been thought possible. But instead of the pictorial record of the Coronation that was expected of him, and that he is painting by royal command, he sends only a small canvas called "Pot-Pourri": a cool, white room, low and vaulted, with old portraits on the walls, and a group of

women in various poses preparing the heaps of rose leaves, which give a touch of vivid color. It is the sort of thing Mr. Abbey can do best. The figures are graceful, the quality of the white wall, cool in the shadow, warm in the sunlight, is carefully studied and well rendered. But the composition is weak, the effect is scattered. Mr. Abbey should have a look at the beautiful Ver Meer, now in the Guildhall show, for a reminder that there are certain "unities" to be respected as absolutely in a picture as in a play.

The usual Academical exercises abound: the familiar arrangement of blue sea, white marble, and women in classic draperies by Sir Laurence Alma Tadema; the studied nymphs in studied landscapes by Mr. Waterhouse, decorative in intention, labored in effect; the refined, delicately painted interior by Mr. Orchardson, this time Reynolds's studio, the interest unfortunately concentrated on Mrs. Siddons, who stands in the foreground, her awkward arms outstretched (the only ugly lines in the composition), her white draperies breaking in cruelly upon the quiet color scheme. And so I might go on through the list, ending with the inevitable sentimental young lady of Mr. Marcus Stone, and the handkerchief-box beauties of Mr. Frank Dicksee. But there is really nothing of note.

The landscapes are scarcely better. One by Mr. Bertram Priestman at the New Gallery, a peaceful pastoral bathed in golden summer light, is full of the repose that is the charm of the work of the French Romanticists, of whom Mr. Priestman is a direct descendant. But at the Academy Mr. Clausen and Mr. Stott, to whom one always looks for whatever pleasure one finds in that big hodge-podge of poor work, are curiously uninteresting. A large picture of the Château Gaillard, by Mr. Alfred East, is composed with something of dignity and stateliness; but then so fine a subject composes itself, and a painter would have to go out of his way to spoil it. Indeed, I can find nothing more, if I except a little painting of the mountains in the Tyrol in autumn by Mr. Adrian Stokes—a few trees of pale gold in relief against the deep blue of the distant hills, with so little light and atmosphere that the picture seems merely a decorative pattern, a pretty mosaic of color.

But this landscape and a larger one by Mr. David Murray are the most talked-about pictures of the year. For a good reason, they have just been purchased by the Chantrey Trustees, and are destined to be hung in the Chantrey collection at the Tate Gallery. As a rule, the purchase of pictures by the Chantrey Trustees causes but little comment. Artists shrug their shoulders, and think it a pity that the president, treasurer, and council of the Royal Academy, to whom the selection is entrusted, should have such poor taste in these matters as to prefer the work of the members of their own Academy and their friends, and thus saddle the nation with a collection of modern pictures that could do honor to no gallery. That there is any remedy for the evil never occurs to most of the few people who give the Chantrey collection a thought. Judging by the selection of pictures, they naturally conclude that Chantrey left his money partly as a sort of benevolent fund, at the disposal of the Academy for the benefit of Academicians and the encouragement of young men and women of promise. They would also conclude from the methods of the trustees, that only the work of British artists was eligible, and, moreover, their work only when exhibited at the Academy in the year of its completion. It is true that every now and then a public protest has been made, and it has been pointed out that the trustees, though no doubt unintentionally, were hardly administering the fund as the terms of Chantrey's will show, that Chantrey wished it to be administered. But the Academicians "sat tight," a safe policy in England, and the storm has always blown over. This year, however, there has been a return to the charge at the most timely of moments.

Just a week or so before the Academy opened, Mr. D. S. MacColl, the distinguished art critic, published in the *Saturday Review* a serious, strong, but temperate article, simply stating the terms of Chantrey's will, and then calling attention to the manner in which the trustees have carried them out. Chantrey, who died in 1841, left a large fortune, the income, after certain legacies were arranged for—between two and three thousand pounds a year—to go to his wife during her lifetime, or until her second marriage in case she married again, and after that to be devoted to the "encouragement of British fine art in painting and sculpture only." This "encouragement" was to take the practical form of purchase of examples of the two arts mentioned, these works to be placed in some public gallery. The testator made the special condition that they were to be of "the highest merit," whether already executed or to be executed, by artists of any nation, provided these artists had resided in Great Britain during the execution and completion of such works. They might be by deceased artists, and he made no time limit. But he again repeated that the painting and sculpture must be of "the highest merit" that can be obtained for liberal prices, and the president and the council, though the selection is in a measure left to their discretion, must have "regard solely to the intrinsic merits of the works in question, and not permit any feeling of sympathy for an artist or his family, by reason of his or their circumstances or otherwise, to influence them." In a word, what Chantrey wanted was clearly as fine a collection of pictures and statues, of necessity chiefly modern, as could be obtained in Great Britain.

And now, what is the Chantrey collection? Mostly British, as any one who has been to the Tate Gallery knows; and, more than this, mostly British of the most Academic type. Indeed, the collection is practically a permanent Royal Academy. In the large majority of cases preference has been given to members of the Royal Academy, to those who are about to become members (so that purchase by the Chantrey trustees usually is accepted as a prelude to election to the Academy), and to exhibitors in the Academy. The purchases did not begin until 1877, after the death of Chantrey's widow; and the first year, a picture by a "deceased artist"—a now forgotten artist—Hilton by name, was bought. This, if I am not mistaken, is the one exception. But even of those living artists who come within the conditions of the will, the collection can by no stretch of imagination be thought to include examples of "the highest merit." Ford Madox Brown and the pre-Raphaelites, Rossetti, Millais, and Holman Hunt, were all living after 1877, but, though their work has such historical as well as artistic importance in the history of painting in Great Britain, Millais alone is represented, and that only by a late picture which intelligent critics must agree is not worthy of him. Fred Walker, Mason, and Pinwell, who were so essentially British in their art, and who were painters of some distinction, though not masters, have no place. Neither has Burne-Jones. Alfred Stevens has received no recognition, nor has Mr. Alfred Gilbert, much the most distinguished sculptor to-day in England. Whistler, Fantin-Latour, Legros, Matthys Maris, Degas, Dalou, even Claude Monet, satisfy Chantrey's conditions, but in the Chantrey collection you will look for them in vain. And when it comes to British painters now at work, I simply have not space to point out all the artists who have been passed over in favor of second-rate Academicians and exhibitors in the Academy.

Worse still is the price that is paid, though on the Continent, especially in France, the artist accepts the honor of a place in a national collection as a part, and a very important part, of the payment. There are instances of the pictures of Academicians being bought for one thousand or two thousand pounds, when equally large and still better canvases by the same men have gone for a few hundreds to private buyers or in the auction room—in one case for even less than two hundred pounds. Facts and figures are unanswerable arguments, and Mr. MacColl's article, appearing just when it did, naturally has made some little stir in the art world. The president and treasurer and council of the Royal Academy alone have remained unconcerned. They proceeded promptly to buy two not very good examples of two not particularly distinguished painters who are both already represented in the Chantrey collection—though Mr. Whistler and Mr. Alfred Gilbert have not yet been found worthy; they also bought sculpture by an Academician who I venture to say is not known even by name in America, and a recently elected Associate who, like the two painters, has already been honored by the trustees. It is generally felt that such a selection, following close upon Mr. MacColl's article, is something in the nature of a defiance to the artistic opinion of the country outside the Academy. The matter is being taken up in different quarters. The London papers are occupying themselves with it. The Academicians, up to the present moment of writing, are still "sitting tight." But it is no wonder that a great deal more interest has been excited in the administration of the Chantrey bequest than in the most mediocre Academy held for many years. N. N.

Correspondence.

UNIONISM AND MOB RULE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been greatly interested lately in the revolt and searchings of heart of certain skilled workmen of my acquaint-

ance against and about unionism. This Terror, born of prosperity, is just beginning to make itself felt as a power in this little town. The men of whom I speak, intelligent, well read, past masters in their several handicrafts, have been earning a generous living and raising themselves steadily by their superior industry and capacity. In the hardest of times they were engaged weeks ahead and felt their future a safe and bright one; but now, when golden harvests show on every side, the ground is being cut from under their feet. Pressure is being put upon them to join the union—pressure so insidious and all-pervading that, while struggling, they feel that they must ultimately yield, and then good-by to their independence, their hopes of the future. The unions here, as so frequently occurs, are managed by windbags, incapable of doing an honest day's work, but clever at throwing the dust of many flattering words into the eyes of the masses; the serious workmen being too busy by day to waste their energies in club meetings and talk by night. And these sturdy, capable men, who have made it the pride of their life to be able to do the work of two ordinary workmen, will be at the beck and call of men they scorn, only allowed to work when and where the others please, with their earnings cut short and their output limited at the caprice of the least skilful of their fellow-slaves.

The problem of the unions and the problem of our city governments present the same general features. We must either elevate the masses or be dragged down by them. The city governments are controlled in the last resort by a majority of citizens blankly ignorant of all principles of economics and the accumulated experiences of other cities and States, who are led by the most specious demagogue that tries to cajole them out of their votes by promises impossible of fulfilment; and of the really debased, who sell their votes as a matter of course to the highest bidder. The unions are controlled by a majority composed of the ignorant and misled workmen as above, and by the incapable and worthless workman, who hopes, by the simple process of interdicting his able associates, to get pay for work which he cannot or will not do properly.

The leaven which is to leaven the whole lump cannot be expected to do its work unless it be intimately mingled with it, and by its normal reaction work up the whole mass into a useful and valuable product. It is by sacrifice that the world moves forward. The worker in a settlement in the slums, with all his senses outraged and at times half-broken-hearted over the seemingly hopeless task, in a few years sees the air clearing about him, and sunlight and hope filtering in. The skilled workman, bullied and insulted by a worthless loafer who calls himself a walking delegate, will yet, if he patiently teaches better things both in workmanship and in moral standards, be able to chisel out of the present societies of men who have renounced their birthright of freedom and self-respect and the pursuit of happiness, a union that will serve its members instead of enslaving them, and help them to higher standards of efficiency and public service, which is in simple truth the workingman's service.

M. C.

Santa Barbara, Cal., May, 1903.

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE TAKU FORTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The point raised by Dr. Griffis in his note in your issue of the 28th of May is interesting and important. It does seem strange that Admiral Kempff's refusal to join the allies in the attack upon the forts at Taku June 17, 1900, should not have elicited any word of official approval from the United States, especially since the opinion has been so prevalent that his act secured for us special favor in conducting negotiations with China. An explanation which would seem to be probable may be found in the theory that, upon more fully viewing the circumstances, the United States Government had occasion to regret his act.

As my experiences at that time gave me some original information in the matter, allow me briefly to relate some of them. I had returned to Peking, on the 25th of May, from an extended trip into the interior, where I had seen many indications of the activity of the Boxers. That afternoon there was a large meeting of the Oriental Society in Peking, at which many of the most influential diplomats were present to discuss the situation. Not one of them had any serious fears of impending calamity. On the 26th of May I left Peking for Tientsin on what proved to be the last train out of the city. On the 27th the revolution broke out; on the 28th the railroad was destroyed and communication with Peking was cut off. There were no foreign soldiers in Tientsin except twenty-five English guards. On the 29th, Minister Conger telegraphed for a guard of marines, but the Chinese Governor ordered that no foreign troops should be allowed to land. About midnight, however, 100 marines, who had evaded the forts, came up to Tientsin, where previously 50 Japanese soldiers had done the same. On the 30th of May we left Tientsin and found thirteen foreign men-of-war anchoring outside the bar of Taku, six of which were Russian. There we learned that the Russians had attempted to send two or three hundred soldiers to Tientsin, but had been turned back by the commandant of the fort.

The situation is readily understood. The allies distrusted either the ability or the willingness of the Chinese Government to suppress the Boxers and protect the members of the legations and other foreigners who were in Peking and Tientsin. If attention had been paid to the dilatoriness of Chinese diplomacy, it was clear to those who knew most about the situation that the delay caused would lead to a universal massacre. The assassination of Baron von Ketteler intensified this feeling. I think now there is no doubt in the minds of any well-informed person that hesitation at this point would have been fatal, and that there was really no other course to be pursued to save the lives of the foreign population but to capture the forts and proceed to the rescue. If that was equivalent to a declaration of war, it did not differ materially from the act of the United States in sending marines to Tientsin on the last of May by stealth. At any rate, the United States accepted the act of the allies in capturing the forts, with all its consequences, and joined without hesitation in the efforts to relieve the legations at Peking. Having done so, it is difficult to see how they officially could approve the mistaken judgment of their commander who had stood aloof from the attack. Nor do I believe that the action of Admiral Kempff has had influence in securing the good will of the Chinese Government for the United States. That, more likely, comes from the fact that we have had so little to do with China, and have not been implicated in aggressions upon her rights and territory, as European nations generally have been.

G. Frederick Wright.

Oberlin, O., May 29, 1903.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The annual meeting of the Council of the Archæological Institute of America was held in New York in the board room of the Equitable Life Assurance Society on Saturday, May 9. About forty councillors and other members were present, representing the societies in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Detroit, and Chicago, as well as the State societies of Connecticut and Missouri. The managing committees of the Schools in Rome and at Athens had met in the same room on the two preceding days. The day was devoted chiefly to the consideration of the reports of officers and of the chairmen of the managing committees of the schools in Athens, Rome, and Palestine. The reports of the President, Prof. John Williams White of Harvard University, and of the Secretary, Prof. Francis W. Kelsey of the University of Michigan, indicated satisfactory progress during the past year. The affiliated societies now number thirteen, and the membership of the Institute had reached the total of eleven hundred and sixty-three at the time of the meeting of the Council. The net increase in membership for the year was one hundred and eleven; half of this gain came from the formation of a new society at Pittsburgh, which has been established under exceptionally favorable auspices.

Requests were brought before the Council for authorization to organize affiliated societies in the Far West, and the Secretary was requested to make a tour as far as the Pacific Coast next winter in the interest of this work. A State Society will be organized immediately in Colorado, which will probably undertake, as one aspect of its activity, to assist in devising means for the preservation of the many relics of prehistoric life in that State; according to current reports, the cliff dwellings are being rapidly destroyed. The organization of affiliated societies in several Eastern cities is also under consideration. On account of the amount of work thus devolving upon the Secretary, the Council, on the recommendation of the Executive Committee, voted to establish the office of Associate Secretary, and invited Prof. Mitchell Carroll of the Columbian University to accept the new responsibility.

To judge from the reports of the chairmen of the managing committees, increasing usefulness and brighter financial prospects are the order of the day in the different schools. Professor West mentioned the substantial gift of $2,500 a year for four years to the current funds of the School in

Rome, from Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan; and stated that subscriptions to the permanent endowment fund now amount to $64,750. Prof. J. R. Wheeler, for the School at Athens, reported an increase of about $6,000 in its permanent endowment fund, besides subscriptions to an architectural fellowship. Funds are badly needed, however, to complete the excavations at Corinth. The work already done has won the praise of foreign scholars, and it will be a reproach to us if means are not forthcoming to carry the excavations to a successful close.

The report of the work of Mr. A. M. Tozzer, travelling Fellow of the Institute in American Archæology, was of special interest. He has mastered the Maya language in Yucatan, which he finds practically identical with the speech recorded by the early Spanish priests in the same region; and he is now trying to solve the vexed problems connected with the origin of the monuments in the Maya country.

After many years of valuable service, notable especially for the successful conduct of the excavations in Eretria and Corinth, Prof. Rufus B. Richardson retires from the directorship of the School at Athens, and Prof. Theodore Woolsey Heermance of Yale University succeeds him as director, on a five-year appointment. Prof. Richard Norton has been reëlected Director of the School in Rome, also for a period of five years. Prof. L. B. Paton of the Hartford Theological Seminary succeeds Professor Barton of Bryn Mawr College as annual director of the American School in Palestine.

Prof. John Williams White, who has served as President of the Institute for seven years with distinguished success, insisted upon retiring from the office, and Prof. Thomas Day Seymour of Yale University was elected President in his stead. President White's tenure of office has been characterized by high ideals, business-like methods, and a progressive policy. Under his administration the membership has been nearly quadrupled; the system of lectures before the Affiliated Societies has been inaugurated and developed to a high degree of effectiveness; the financial resources of the Institute have been enlarged, and its prestige much enhanced. The national character of the organization has been increasingly emphasized, and the foundations have been laid for even more extensive activities in the future.

Professor White is fortunate in his successor. Professor Seymour is also a veteran in the service, and his long experience as chairman of the managing committee of the School at Athens, from which he retired two years ago, will be of great value in the work of the Institute. C.

COEDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For the past few years there has hardly been a more thoughtful, condensed restatement of the problem of coeducation than that of "R. O." in the *Nation* of April 2. He views it from the standpoint of the college. It may be of interest, perhaps of value, to show how some of his more significant conclusions apply to secondary schools when the pupils are correspondingly four years younger than those he had in mind.

As in his case, it may in mine be worth while to state my opportunities for study of the matter. Up to my entry into college, I went to a country school with the boys and girls of the neighborhood, the sexes classed and instructed together, but seated on opposite sides of the room when possible. Outside of the walls, they naturally drifted apart, the boys engaging in the rougher games common to the open air and unlimited space. My collegiate and university training was in the institutions for men alone. For several years I have taught in a large coeducational high school in one of the important cities of this country. There are now some 700 pupils and 25 teachers, more than two-thirds of each being females.

In the following use of two of "R. O.'s" deductions I have drawn not only on my experience but on that of my colleagues, including in the second case all of the instructors, all of the years, and all of the subjects:

(1.) His positive conviction that the mixture of the sexes has no influence on the manners or morals, for better or for worse, of boys or girls, does not agree with observations here, so far as behavior in the room is concerned. All three conditions at one time obtained here—boys' classes, girls' classes, and mixed classes; the last largely predominating. As to discipline, the boys' classes were the worst, the girls' classes best, but none bad. Finally, all classes were mixed, with undoubted improvement among the boys' classes. I do not touch upon the grave apprehensions of some that the boys may be feminized under this process.

(2.) "R. O." is overwhelmingly endorsed as to finding the most capable student in nearly every class a boy. Only one teacher here, a woman, testified to such leaders being girls, and she had to modify her statement as to one room. Four others declared for girls in half or a majority of their classes, while the bulk of the teachers were as unhesitating in declaring for a boy in all (or mainly all) cases as "R. O." himself. This trend of opinion is the more remarkable when the disproportion of sex is considered. Besides, the reluctance of several of the women teachers to vote against their sisters was very evident.

As with "R. O.," several are on the fence about the wisdom of coeducation, with a tendency among some (men and women) as they get older to favor it less and less. It does seem worth discussion and inquiry whether that is a general inclination among coeducational teachers.

Several of the women teachers almost scornfully reject any intimation of sex in the intellect, a thing that "R. O." seems doubtful about. But isn't it irresistible logic that there must be sex in the intellectual, moral, and spiritual spheres? All these spring from and are inextricably interlaced with the physical. It is impossible to draw a line between them and their material foundation. If, then, there is such marked difference in the sexes physically, isn't it inevitable that there must be some difference in those higher forms of development?

"R. O." puts his trust for a proper solution of the problem in more data to be gathered in the next generation or so, but apparently the evolution of educational branches seems likely to expound the riddle before that time. Manual and technical training promises to open a broad path that substantially none will travel but boys. Side by side may be corresponding instruction for girls in the distinctive feminine occupations of housekeeping and ornamental callings. The two may be under the same roof, but that will be the only union between them. A manual school lately opened here has greatly cut down the attendance of boys at the coeducational culture high schools. There is a spontaneous preference on the part of many boys for a boys' school. This feeling, coupled with the aim of learning something practical, will largely explain the popularity of the new manual institutions. With ample educational provision for all the aspirations of both sexes, all doubt about coeducation will be removed in the most infallible way, by the unanswerable test of actual practice, with perfect freedom of choice among those most affected, the boys and the girls themselves.

"B. C."

May 29, 1903.

Notes.

One more revision of Bryan's 'Dictionary of Painters and Engravers,' with five hundred new biographies and with illustrations, is announced for September by Macmillan Co. This may well suffice for the next dozen years remaining of the century since the work first appeared (1816).

A quarto volume on 'Denmark, Norway, and Sweden,' by William E. Curtis, with numerous illustrations, is in the press of the Saalfield Publishing Co., who also promise Æsop's Fables in rhyme by Prof. Richardson D. White.

'Cheerful American,' short stories by Charles Battell Loomis, will shortly appear with Henry Holt & Co.'s imprint.

The ever busy class of librarians is taking on a new voluntary task—that of cooperation in a series of monographs planned by the Librarian of Congress, "forerunners to a general history of American libraries." The common scheme proposed for them may be found in the May issue of the *Library Journal*, together with the names of the several writers who will relate the history of libraries in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, etc., etc. The editor of the series is Mr. W. Dawson Johnston, who takes for his province Washington, D. C.

In the coming autumn, B. G. Teubner (Leipzig and Berlin) commences the publication of the first part of a new encyclopædia, 'Die Kultur der Gegenwart.' The editor, Professor Paul Hinneberg, has secured the services of collaborators like Adolf Harnack, Friedrich Paulsen, Julius Wellhausen, W. Windelband, William Wundt, Wilhelm Dilthey, Erich Schmidt, Ulrich von Willamowitz-Moellendorf, H. Oldenberg, Konrad Burdach, Hermann Paul, Karl Bücher, Gustav Schmoller, Adolf Wagner, Franz von Liszt, and others, each in his special field. The work will make four volumes, and will consist of two main divisions broadly representing mental and natural science. Its publication will be completed not later than the autumn of 1906.

The two latest volumes in the Dent-Macmillan edition of Thackeray's prose

are 'The Book of Snobs' and 'From Cornhill to Cairo,' both containing several minor pieces, and both edited as heretofore by Walter Jerrold and illustrated by C. E. Brock. In the latter collection are to be found the wonderfully inept Titmarshian description of the second funeral of Napoleon—a lost opportunity if there ever was one—and the review of Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' chiefly scissors work. These examples are more interesting as human documents than the title papers.

Parts IV. and V. of "Representative Art of Our Time" (The Studio Library, John Lane) call for little comment additional to that made on the first three parts. The best of the plates is an etching of Amboise, by D. Y. Cameron, in Part IV., and the next best another etching of the Bridge of St. Martin, Toledo, by Joseph Pennell, in Part V.

Lemcke & Buechner are the New York agents for "Hundert Meister der Gegenwart in Farbiger Wiedergabe" (Leipzig: E. A. Seemann), of which three parts have been sent us. Each part contains five rather gaudy color-reproductions of works by modern German painters, which we cannot find inspiring.

Five hundred and fifty years ago there was a worthy gentleman of France called the Chevalier de La Tour Landry. And this knight, having lost his wife, whom he loved greatly, for love of her would not marry again, but set all his heart upon his two daughters, to bring them up fairly and virtuously that they might be loved of God and honored of men. So to this end he made for them a book inculcating piety, courtesy, charity, humility, and fair behavior, and enforcing his teachings by many stories and ensamples of good and evil women, that by reading therein they might learn to be noble ladies according to the best ideal (and it would be hard to find a better) of the fourteenth century. This book, translated by Caxton into delightful fifteenth-century English, is given us in abridged form, by Miss (or Mrs.) Gertrude Burford Rawlings, with an editorial note and sufficient glossary. The paper, type, and illustrations in fifteenth-century style, are a delight to the eye. The only criticism we have to make is this, that as the editor did not prepare the text for scholars but for the general public, a few phrases that savor too much of fourteenth-century frankness might have been veiled, out of deference to twentieth-century squeamishness. The book is called 'The Knight of the Toure,' and is published by George Newnes, London (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons).

Volume III. of 'The Philippine Islands, 1493-1803' (Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.) contains translations of some thirty documents covering the period 1569-1576. Most of these are related in some way with the first conquest of Manila in 1570, and with its permanent occupation and the establishment of the seat of Spanish government in Luzon in 1572. It is interesting to note how this evidence all points to the possession by the Tagalogs of a more advanced state of agriculture, government, etc., as well as a greater initiative, at the coming of the Spaniards than the other tribes had. Already at this early date the controversy between the friars and Spanish civil authorities begins to outline itself, and we find Father Martin de Rada protesting in 1574 to Governor Guido de Lavezares (successor to Legaspi, who died in 1572) against the levy of excessive tribute on the natives in the form of gold-dust, cotton cloth, wax, rice, etc. In this early controversy the right was nearly all on the side of the fathers. The answer to De Rada by the dozen leading Spanish captains then in the islands, most of whom had received "encomiendas" (divisions of territory and people), is an interesting exposition of exploitation as it was in 1574. They defended the tribute on various grounds (the one in reserve being their need of the proceeds), finally saying that the natives resist the tribute because they "make it a point of honor to pay only when forced." They add naïvely: "They like to be compelled to do so." We find the Spanish Government forbidding these "encomiendas" in 1574. Volume III. contains reproductions of a painting representing the landing of the Spaniards at Cebú in 1565, and of a portrait of Father de Rada; also, a map of Legaspi's first landing-place and a reduced facsimile of an old map of Asia, in Ortelius's 'Theatrum Orbis Terrarum.'

'American Diplomacy in the Orient,' by John W. Foster (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is, as the author says, "a brief history of the diplomatic intercourse of this Government with the Orient," to facilitate "a correct estimate of the policy which has controlled the American people in their contact with the countries in that quarter of the globe." The Turkish Empire and Persia are omitted. The book is written *currente calamo* by a lawyer who has had a good deal of experience in the international field, but we do not know that it throws much new light on the subject, or indeed gives us any greater means than we had before of forming a correct estimate of our Oriental policy. To convince others, one must be convinced himself; and the limits of Mr. Foster's convictions are those of a cheerful opportunism. "The hopeful citizen must believe that the system of government and the wisdom of its public men will be equal to the emergency and the responsibilities." Obviously anybody who must believe this will always be satisfied with the results. The book contains in a condensed form a good deal of information for which we usually have to go to encyclopædias; and in this lies its chief value.

It was only just before Christmas that Archbishop Temple died, but Mr. Charles H. Dant has already compiled a biography of him, which is published in London by the Walter Scott Company, and imported here by Charles Scribner's Sons. It takes particular notice of the Archbishop's connection with the west of England, and is mainly anecdotal. Theologians of High and Broad Church alike will read with wonder Mr. Dant's statement that Dr. Temple, when Bishop of Exeter, "wished for the different classes in the church to be linked together firmly and with continuity, from the child fresh from the baptismal font to himself, the head of the diocese, who in turn carried on the linking process to the Archbishop, he to the Crown, and the Crown to the Godhead."

In the Rev. Fletcher Moss's 'Pilgrimages to Old Homes,' mostly on the Welsh border, a gossiping chronicler, who is his own publisher at the Old Parsonage in Didsbury, England, and whose pages reflect a genial and unconventional nature, leads us to ruined abbeys, old manor houses, picturesque villages, and indeed to any out-of-the-way place, provided only that it have a flavor of antiquarian interest and be not too far from the Welsh border. Entertaining his talk is, always, even though it be inconsequential and discursive. If it were not for his strong sense of humor, the personal note so constantly maintained would become tiresome; as it is, one not only puts up with it, but soon thinks it amusing. The value of the book is much enhanced by its abundant illustrations, which show us innumerable old dwellings, from modest cottages to castles, for the most part half-timbered and delightfully unhackneyed. Here and there a landscape gives some idea of the rolling borderland, where quiet streams creep under low arched bridges, and where ivy mantles the walls of ruined towers. One on whom this hurrying century lays a heavy hand, may find it hard to adapt his mental gait to a literary method of such ample leisure, but the book will afford many a happy hour's entertainment to those who care for the quiet of a remote English village.

The Rev. W. E. Griffis's 'Young People's History of Holland' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) adds another to this prolific author's already respectable list of books on the history of the Dutch people. The present volume is a narrative history of Holland from the earliest times to the coronation of Queen Wilhelmina. It is printed on good paper, in large type, and accompanied by twenty-four very good illustrations. The story is told simply, and, for the most part, clearly and interestingly, in a style commonly supposed to be adapted to the understanding of "young people." The book will undoubtedly have the same success that Mr. Griffis's other books for the same class have had. If it is necessary, however, to be strictly accurate in this kind of work, the author has laid himself open to criticism. When chronicling mere external history he is successful enough, but his treatment of institutions reveals some curious misapprehensions, as when feudalism is, with great confidence, stated to be a "stage of progress" through which all people pass. The main criticism to be urged, however, is this: the reader will in general be confirmed in the idea, which probably has already been well fixed, that "Catholic" is synonymous with tyranny, bigotry, and retrogression; that "Protestant" is synonymous with liberty, toleration, and progress.

The name of Thomas Hodgskin is almost unknown to this generation, and it is improbable that the attention of many readers should be attracted to his works. We must say, however, that the essay by Élie Halévy (Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Édition), bearing the English philosopher's name as its title, would revive interest in his views if such revival were possible. It is not certain that Marx was familiar with Hodgskin's writings, but he adopted much of their theory; and their influence on modern economic thought is, as M. Halévy shows, considerable. Those whose studies take them in this direction may well read this interesting account of a thinker who, although forgotten, was perhaps intellectually the peer of Godwin, Malthus, Bentham, and Ricardo, of whose systems he was an acute critic.

The Canadian Rockies, between the sources of the Athabasca and the Kicking Horse Pass, are the subject of the first two articles in the *Geographical Journal* for May. Dr. Norman Collie describes his explorations last summer in this region, which resulted in the barometrical determination of a number of heights, the discovery of a pass, and a considerable addition to the topographical knowledge of various outlying portions of the mountains. Professor Coleman of Toronto confines himself to an account of the Brazeau ice-field. Very different is the country of which Baron E. Nordenskiöld writes—"vast tablelands, snowclad fells, wild mountain valleys with luxuriant forests and enormous plains"—lying on the boundaries of Bolivia and Argentina. It is interesting not only for its natural features, but for its fossil mammals, its relics of a pre-Columbian culture, such as burial urns, arms, and ornaments. At one spot luminous insects were very numerous and showed great divergence in luminosity. "For instance, there was an elateride caterpillar, the head emitting a red light, while each segment was provided with two spots which, like the final segment, emitted a green light. The red glow was constant, the green interrupted at intervals." In an appreciative notice of Mr. Balch's 'Antarctica,' Dr. H. R. Mill, while not accepting fully all its statements, says that "Mr. Balch has done a patriotic service, and also a service to science, in setting out the real achievements of Charles Wilkes."

M. V. O'Shea, in the May number of the *American Journal of Sociology*, brings a scientific argument to bear against the present tendency to shorten the college course. It is the application of the doctrine developed by John Fiske and others that the advancement of the human species over other forms of animal life is due largely to the relatively long period of unripeness in the human individual. To throw the college student into the struggle for life a year or two earlier is to cut short his period of plasticity, and hence to lessen his probable contribution to the forward movement of the race. The general reduction of the period of plasticity means a deadening of civilization at the head. In the interest of progress, therefore, those in authority in our educational institutions should seek means not to shorten but rather to lengthen that period of life in which the mind opens most readily to new ideas.

Of the two newly organized German societies for the investigation of the Orient, the Vorderasiatische Gesellschaft and the Orientgesellschaft, only the latter is engaged in excavations. The work in Babylon progressed so successfully under the leadership of the experienced Dr. Robert Koldewey that the Society has recently turned its attention to an entirely new field, the old Babylonian necropolis in Fara. The preliminary diggings by Koldewey and his chief assistant, Dr. Andrae, who have been working there with 160 men, have brought enough to light to show that good relics of the earliest periods may be expected. Nearly all of the utensils unearthed evidently belong to one period, and but few cuneiform inscriptions have been found. The finds indicate that the civilization of Fara belonged to a period between the stone and the bronze ages. In all probability the place was never inhabited, but was used only as a necropolis. The Vorderasiatische Gesellschaft confines its labors to the publication of special researches in its *Wissenschaftliche Mittheilungen*, and to popular expositions of the results of Oriental discoveries.

The universities and academies of Switzerland, especially those of the German cantons, continue to be the Mecca for the women students of central Europe. In these institutions during the past winter term the total enrolment of women was 1,503, or fully 50 per cent. greater than in all the German universities combined. This is all the more significant because the total student enrolment was only 5,415. Fully 75 per cent. of these women were foreigners, and among these the Russians greatly predominated, especially in the medical department.

German savants are agitating the organization of a "Sprach-Akademie" modelled after the French Academy, the intention being that this body shall be the last and final court of appeal in matters pertaining to the German language, and especially idiomatic purity, in view of the danger of corruption and distortion through the influence of foreign tongues. The details of the programme have not yet been published.

True to the occasion, Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a pleasing photographic portrait of Emerson, printed without glaze, from an untouched negative. The plate is large, about 13x16, and the bust figure is well set in this area. The poet is shown in post-meridian but not in senile aspect, with a genial, relaxed expression, quite unconscious of posing for the camera. The face is well lighted. The portrait is an excellent one for private hanging or for the wall of the schoolroom, church parlor, or other public place.

—Emerson's centenary will have no better celebration than the "Centenary Edition" of his works, two volumes of which now published (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) give good assurance of what the edition is to be in its appearance and the character of its annotations by Edward W. Emerson, who also writes a general introduction. Outwardly the books are very attractive, a little taller than the "Riverside" volumes; the pages carrying about the same amount of matter, the type of a different face, but quite as good. The binding is excellent in cloth, color and design. On each title-page a pine tree takes the place of the pine-tree branch of the "Riverside." The portrait is one of the best of Emerson's many, its date, 1854. The later volumes will not exhaust the list of those worth knowing. The introduction is conceived and executed in a happy manner with filial affection and delicate reserve. The only approach to elaboration is the treatment of Emerson's doctrine of Evolution, which found clear expression in the 'Nature' of 1836—not so clear, however, as many have supposed, seeing that the motto verses, "A subtle change," etc., were not appended to the first edition, but to the second, when in 1849 the first (of 500 copies) was at length entirely sold. The editor is plainer about this in his notes than in his sketch, which, but for the notes, would help perpetuate the general misunderstanding. There is no mention of that once famous book, 'Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation,' in the account of Emerson's evolutionary ideas, and indeed it was published in the same year (1844) with the second volume of 'Essays' that contained the second 'Nature,' in which occurs Emerson's most elaborate expression of those ideas. But, if Chambers's book contributed nothing to Emerson's doctrine, it must have given it much valued, if not valuable, confirmation. Too much may easily be made of Emerson's evolutionary ideas. They were not Darwinian. Of natural selection they had no hint, and such a book as Professor Osborn's 'From the Greeks to Darwin' is convincing that evolution had many expositors before Emerson's day. Mr. Edward Emerson's notes upon his father's essays and addresses are admirable. They are never merely curious; they all have the stamp of use. They place quotations, relate the essays to other essays and unpublished matter, give cross-references to passages similar to those annotated in Emerson's journals, poems, and other essays, brighten forgotten reputations, correct mistakes, and furnish many illustrations, explanatory or confirmatory, of Emerson's ideas. They are a very real addition to the new edition, and would justify it if it had no other special recommendations.

—There have come to hand two volumes of Bell's 'Handooks of Continental Churches' (Macmillan). Their appearance in close succession leads one to hope that this series will be carried on with more vigor than of old. According to the latest list furnished by the publishers, only five volumes are now in print, although it is several years since we noticed the first one, which was devoted to the cathedral of Amiens. The new volumes are devoted to Notre Dame of Paris, and to the abbey and town of Mont Saint Michel-en-mer, that marvellous monastery and fortress which is set on the edge of the Norman coast like the wonderful jewel that it is. The two books are furnished by Charles Hiatt, who had contributed not less than four separate volumes to the English Cathedral Series and the accessory notices of abbeys and minsters, and by H. J. L. J. Massé, who has been equally diligent in this work. Both recognize, each in his own brief preface, that their work must be founded on the writings of archæologists and students of art who have gone before. In the case of Notre Dame, there are noticed the several works of Viollet-le-Duc in which the Paris cathedral is treated so much in detail, and lament is made that the British Museum does not contain a complete set of the works of that exceptional writer. Hoffbauer's 'Paris à travers les Âges' and Guilhermy's little book are also mentioned, and, for Gothic architecture in general, Professor Moore's 'Development of Gothic Architecture.' So, for the Abbey, there is mention of the several writers who have dealt with the group of buildings upon that isolated rock, though it seems odd that the rather satisfactory volume of Édouard Corroyer, devoted exclusively to Mont Saint Michel and fully illustrated, or the more recent work of Gout, should be mentioned only among the "numerous" writings named in a sweeping way. It must not be thought, however, that in the case of Mr. Massé's work there is any undue leaning upon his authorities. It is evident that the building has been carefully examined in all its parts—evident, too, that his sym-

pathy was strongly awakened by the "marvels" of Mont Saint Michel, and that he has longed to explain its beauty and its varied charm to possible visitors as well as to distant readers. This perhaps has been done as well as could be done without a deliberate description, step by step, with plan and diagrams accompanying the text, referred to continually in the text, helping the text to the reader's full comprehension. Such description as that is hardly given. The account of the building is minute and detailed, and very good half-tone prints are as numerous as could be expected; but assuredly one must have a strong sense of the possibilities and probabilities of Romanesque and Gothic architecture if he is to bring away from the reading of this book, say in America, a clear sense of what the building is like.

—Still more in the case of the Paris cathedral does the reader feel that the work might have been done better. Writing for Englishmen, Mr. Hiatt is continually comparing the French architectural design with that which his readers may be assumed to know more intimately. The student has a right to ask whether the book—whether all these books—are intended for the visitor to the building rather than for the distant student. If they are, then it is a question whether the straightforward guide-book does not do this kind of work better. Certainly a treatise upon the cathedral or the abbey like that which Gsel-Fels has devoted to many an Italian church would tell the traveller more about the building which he is in the way of examining on the spot.

—Mr. Marcus Dorman begins his 'History of the British Empire in the Nineteenth Century' (Lippincott) with a volume of four hundred pages, large octavo, which carries the reader no further than the death of Pitt. The real dates, however, are 1793-1805, for the author finds it necessary to go backward until he reaches the commencement of England's part in the wars of the French Revolution. Mr. Dorman concludes the present instalment of his work with two chapters on the intellectual and industrial progress of England during the period treated; but any distinctive value which his narrative may be said to possess arises from his account of politics and diplomacy. He has used the records of the Foreign Office and the Treasury to some purpose, and on the political side at least the text is well informed. We have, however, been impressed by the lack on Mr. Dorman's part of impartiality—we will not say of "robust impartiality," but of ordinary historical impartiality. Wherever there is question of England's relations with Napoleon, his utterances must be scrutinized very closely. For instance, he has read Mr. Rose's account of the share which the British Government had in Cadoudal's conspiracy against the First Consul, inasmuch as he quotes Mr. Rose in a note. "Mr. Holland Rose," he says, "has discovered evidence that 'some at least of our Admiralty officials also aided Cadoudal.'" But such a quotation by no means gives the reader a just idea of Mr. Rose's discoveries or conclusions. It is quite clear that important persons in the British public service were guilty of complicity in a plot to assassinate Bonaparte, and this fact was known at Paris. Mr. Rose, a really impartial writer, metes out severe reprobation to those concerned, and points out how Napoleon's mind was embittered during the whole subsequent course of the struggle with England by his recollection of such an episode. Our chief criticism of an unfavorable kind is that Mr. Dorman writes in a spirit which is less open-minded than could be wished. Our chief praise must be that he has a first-hand knowledge of the literature, both light and heavy, which lies closest to his subject. Without possessing any remarkable powers of style, he avoids dulness, and if his first volume is rather long for an introduction, it does not create the impression of being wilfully padded. It is in ordinary political narrative that he appears to best advantage. His disquisition on free trade and his criticism of Malthus are not very striking, nor do we see why he should have devoted a whole page to Beethoven. In conclusion, we may say that Mr. Dorman is rather fond of making broad statements. The book closes with the following passage, which furnishes a fair example of his style as a writer of generalizations: "This brief sketch of social life at the beginning of the nineteenth century shows that most of the customs, institutions, and modes of thought were much the same as now; and although some of the prejudices due to sects and classes have to a certain extent since been broken down, it is doubtful whether our present social system is not more a modification of old ideas than an earnest of the advent of new fundamental principles."

TWO PORTRAITS OF SHAKSPERE.

A New Portrait of Shakespeare: The Case of the Ely Palace Painting as against that of the so-called Droeshout Original. By John Corbin, author of 'An American at Oxford.' John Lane. 1903.

The latest discovered of the many "portraits" of Shakspere is the so-called Droeshout Original. The portrait which, next to this one, bears the greatest resemblance to the Droeshout engraving is that known as the Ely Palace portrait. Is either of these the original from which the engraving was made? If so, which? Mr. Corbin essays, in the volume before us, to show that "the so-called Droeshout Original is probably a fabrication, and that the Ely Palace painting is probably a life portrait." In our opinion he has fairly succeeded in proving the first contention, and has failed of proving the last.

There is absolutely no external evidence for the authenticity of either portrait, and any opinion as to the worthiness of either of them to represent the character of the great poet can only be personal and of no authority. Mr. Corbin thrice quotes Mr. Sidney Lee as saying that the features in the Ely Palace portrait "are of a far more attractive and intellectual cast than in either the Droeshout painting or engraving." Our own opinion, if it were worth anything, is that the Ely Palace portrait represents a somewhat mean and stupid type, with far less character and intellect than that of the engraving; but no such opinion *is* worth anything. There are only two kinds of tests which can be applied to these portraits or to any other of the many painted "portraits of Shakspere." The first deals with technical questions concerning the material on which the portrait is painted, the manner and handling, the possible amount of retouching and alteration, etc. Such tests require the utmost expert knowledge of seventeenth-century painting on the part of the person who applies them, and the most careful and minute examination of the painting itself. They can never give anything but negative evidence; they may prove a forgery, but cannot establish genuineness. Of a picture that should successfully pass them all, one could only say that it was probably of the seventeenth century and possibly a portrait of Shakspere. The other test deals with questions of the degree and kind of likeness between the portrait to be considered and the two certainly authentic portraits of Shakspere—the Droeshout engraving and the Stratford bust. For the application of these tests a general knowledge of art and the practical experience of a portrait painter are the most desirable qualifications, and the tests may be applied with due caution to photographs of the pictures, and with still more caution even to engravings of them. Having no access to the original paintings, and little competence to judge of the first kind of tests, we must accept the results of these tests at second hand. The second kind of test we can to some extent apply for ourselves to the reproductions given by Mr. Corbin.

It is regrettable that Mr. Corbin has relied upon wood-engraving for the reproduction of the portraits. He says of these engravings that they were "executed in the modern manner—that is, by throwing a photograph of the portrait on the engraver's block, a process that insures the utmost precision of detail"—but how little it does insure such precision is shown by his statement, immediately afterward, that the engraving of the Ely Palace portrait misrepresents the growth of the mustache and the hem of the collar. If the engraving is not to be trusted in such matters as these, how can it be trusted in the delicate matters of form and expression on which likeness and character depend? The frontispiece of the volume is a rather poor photogravure of this portrait, and it certainly gives a different impression from that conveyed by the wood-engraving. The latter has been filtered through the personality of the engraver, and one is left in doubt how far he has exercised his fancy on other things than the mustache and collar. Of the "Droeshout Original" we have only the wood-engraving.

That there is some connection between both these portraits and the Droeshout engraving is evident at a glance. The coincidences of pose, lighting, costume, etc., are too many to be the work of chance. Either of them may be the original of the engraving, or a copy from it, or a copy of the original at one or more removes. The so-called Droeshout Original resembles the engraving the more closely of the two, and, reversing Mr. Corbin's order, we shall dispose first of its claim. In discussing any of the portraits we may neglect all that is said about the color of hair and eyes. The Stratford bust, which is the only authority there ever was for these matters, must have been colored from verbal instructions, and has since been whitewashed and recolored. But every painter knows that the color of eyes and hair are such relative matters—so altered by lighting and surroundings and the scheme of the picture — that no two

painters would make the same report, and probably no one painter on two occasions.

In his argument against the authenticity of the so-called "Original," Mr. Corbin relies mainly on two points. First, in the different states of the Droeshout engraving the mustache is gradually darkened and enlarged; the mustache in the painting is darker and larger than in any state of the engraving, and this would seem to indicate that the painting was copied from a late state of the engraving. Second, the costume is more ill-drawn in the painting than in the engraving; if the painting were the original, we should expect it to be less ill-drawn. The importance of the first of these points is somewhat minimized by the fact that local color was habitually neglected or subordinated by seventeenth-century engravers, and that an original painting would certainly show both hair and mustache of a darker tone than would an old engraving from it. The enlargement in size is more important, but seems hardly great enough to be decisive. As to the costume, the case is stronger. It is true that the painter may well have done what Mr. Corbin assumes that the engraver did—he may have spent most of his time on the features and merely indicated the general lines of the costume, from nature, completing it afterwards from memory, a not uncommon habit of portrait painters so late as Gilbert Stuart, who seldom painted more than the head from life, and who frequently made the body too small for the head, as it is in the case of this painting. The contention that the errors in the drawing of the costume could have been made only "at a time when Elizabethan costume was obsolete," seems disproved by the fact that Droeshout actually made them. Still, although Droeshout's skill seems to us far less contemptible than it has been thought, he was hardly a man to improve on his original, and the fact that the painting exaggerates the errors of the engraving is a probable indication that the painting, not the engraving, is the copy. As far as the woodcut enables us to judge, the head itself gives the same indication. It is less wooden than the old engraving, and, as Mr. Corbin says, "more like a human being," but it seems to us much less individual and characteristic. The features are, as it were, modernized and softened, but weakened at the same time. They show no measurable discrepancies, but they fail to give the sense of an immediate vision.

So much for the general artistic argument. The more strictly technical argument seems still more conclusive. The advocates of the genuineness of the portrait seem to have proved that the panel on which it is painted is of "old English elm"; but as they admit that there are traces of another portrait underneath this one, or at least of another costume, the age of the panel goes for nothing. The common habit of the eighteenth-century forger was to use an old portrait as the basis of his new Shakspere, and in view of that fact the argument that the painter of a life-portrait may have used an old panel is more ingenious than convincing. If he had done so, is it not probable that he would have *turned it upside down* to avoid confusion? Certainly that is what a modern painter would do. The inscription seems to be given up by every one, and the conclusions drawn by different observers from the style of painting are radically opposed. There remains a statement by Mr. Corbin himself which, if uncontradicted, should settle the matter. He says:

"Some of the worm-holes are clear cut, others seem painted round the edges. At least one (on the line of the right cheek-bone) had, according to my notes of 1896, been painted over; it was then discernible only because the paint had sagged into it. In 1901 the surface paint in this worm-hole had apparently been picked away."

Our conclusion is that the so-called Droeshout Original is a careful copy of the Droeshout print. It does not necessarily follow that it is one more, and the cleverest, of the eighteenth-century forgeries. It may possibly have been produced in the seventeenth century for some admirer of the great poet, who could exclaim with *Gullio*, in "The Returne from Parnassus," as quoted by Mr. Corbin on his title-page, "O sweet Mr. Shakspeare! I'le have his picture in my study."

The balance of opinion seems inclined to the view that the panel, the painting, and even the inscription of the Ely Palace portrait are old, though the last seems to have been partially restored, as have other parts of the work. The costume is much better drawn than in the Droeshout engraving, yet shows such a degree of error as might account for the greater faultiness of a hasty copy. The head, however, while showing a general resemblance to the engraving, differs markedly from it in several particulars, by no means all of which have been pointed out, though Mr. Lee considers the differences sufficiently great to "raise doubts whether the person represented can have been intended for Shakespeare." Mr. Corbin thinks that in the painting "the face —or at least the right cheek—is viewed from a point slightly more to the front" than in the engraving, and that this shifting of the point of view 'alters the line of the cheek," eliminating the sharp drawing of the eye-socket and cheek-bone, while Mr. Frank Jewett Mather thinks that the same cause "explains the fact that the eyes appear to be too close together." We are inclined to think both these gentlemen mistaken. The whole head is smoothly oval, with a sort of mushiness of drawing which is by no means confined to the cheek-bone, and all the features are too near together. The left eye is, perspective considered, even nearer the nose than the right, and the upper lip is much shorter, while the chin is longer, heavier, and much farther forward than in the engraving. The smallness of the triangle formed by the eyes and mouth, compared with the vast, empty oval surrounding it, and especially the nearness to each other of the eyes, gives the head the mean and stupid character we have commented on.

As far as these differences between the two heads are definite and measurable, and apart from the general lack of accent in the painted head, there is nothing in their existence to show with certainty which of the two renderings is the nearer to life, or which is the more likely to be a copy of the other. We have, however, another portrait of Shakspere, second only in authority to the Droeshout engraving, the Stratford bust; and in those respects in which the Ely Palace portrait most differs from the engraving, it differs still more widely from the bust. In the engraving the eyes, instead of being close together, are rather noticeably wide apart; in the bust they are still farther separated. The engraving has a longish upper lip, which in the bust becomes so exaggerated that an accident to the nose has been invented to account for it. If either painting or engraving is copied from the other, it is evident that the one which more nearly resembles the only independent authority is more likely to be the original, and that the Ely Palace portrait cannot, therefore, be the original of the Droeshout print. Yet its relation to the print is obvious; the pose, costume and lighting, and several of the features being nearly identical. Mr. Corbin's conclusion from these facts is as follows:

"Granting that the Droeshout engraving may not have been taken from the Ely Palace portrait, it must have been taken from a portrait that in all essential points of features and costume was identical with it. Of all the painted portraits, accordingly, the Ely Palace portrait has the strongest claim to be regarded as a life portrait."

In our view it is just this substantial identity with the lost original of the print which proves that the painting is a copy. If a copy of the engraving, however, it is much less close than the so-called Original, and on that account all the likelier, perhaps, to be an *old* copy. The superior drawing of the costume might be taken to indicate that it is an old copy of the genuine original from which Droeshout worked; and that, in our opinion, is the utmost that can be claimed for it.

Finally, there are one or two points bearing on the whole controversy which, so far as we know, have not been noticed. It is well known that the human head is rarely symmetrical. On the other hand, lack of symmetry in a bust or painting may well result from poor drawing, and it is not very safe to reason from it. In both the authoritative portraits of Shakspere one eye is farther from the nose than the other; in the engraving it is the left eye, in the bust the right. This may be the result of carelessness and lack of skill, or it may indicate that the engraving is reversed. It does not seem inherently unlikely that Droeshout, working from an original of no artistic value—an unnamed original—should have done so in the easiest way, without reversing his drawing on the plate, and that the print from that plate should therefore be reversed. Many instances of such reversal by the engraver, even of important pictures, are known to exist. If a demonstrably old picture should ever be found, with the face turned to the (spectator's) right instead of to the left, but otherwise identical with the Droeshout engraving, it would, in our opinion, have a fairer title to be called the Droeshout Original than any that has heretofore been brought forward.

Whatever may be the worth of his results, Mr. Corbin has conducted his discussion with eminent fairness and scrupulous courtesy, and has produced an interesting and readable book, which his publishers have presented in an appropriate and pleasant dress. Apart from a confusion of dates on page 23 and the substitution of "slight" for "sight" on page 77, we have noted no signs of carelessness.

MORE NOVELS.

The Better Sort. By Henry James. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Sarah Tuldon. By Orme Agnus. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

The Main Chance. By Meredith Nicholson. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Co.

La Fille du Braconnier. Par Achille Mélandri. Paris: Armand Colin.

Mr. Henry James's command of the art of writing short stories needs to-day no comment. Long ago he perceived what could be done in that form, passed through experimental stages, and arrived at extraordinary facility and assurance. To refer, therefore, to the technical merit of his latest volume, entitled 'The Better Sort,' is almost an impertinence, and excusable only as a reminder that beneath an elaborate ease of manner and an apparent negligence of issues there is a structure of steel, and a complete control of all the means essential for the production of the desired effect.

On the whole, there is little in the volume to strain the intelligence of those perverse persons who seem to read Mr. James only to complain that he is incomprehensible. Indeed, if it were possible for a writer so imperturbable to strive to placate those whom he could never hope to please, indications of such amiable intention are not wanting. The title itself suggests deference to popular opinion. Most of the tales begin promptly, and the endings are not irrationally ambiguous. Then there are people possessing stores of undiluted emotion moving with some impetuosity to a perceptible climax, and other people whose morals are more settled than those of the people whom "Maisie knew." The author, regarding the work as an unprejudiced outsider, may have concluded that this sort must be the better sort—*his* better sort, at all events. And a more positive intimation of sensibility to criticism appears in the tale entitled "The Beldonald Holbein," wherein the narrator exclaims in pathetical parenthesis: "It is not my fault if I am so put together as often to find more life in situations obscure and subject to interpretation than in the gross rattle of the foreground."

Fortunately, such concessions to the general (if concessions they be) need not disturb the enjoyment of those whose pleasure in Mr. James's work is almost in proportion to his withdrawal from the noisy foreground. In the tale entitled "The Story in It," Col. Voyt and Mrs. Blessingbourne talk about the novel of British and American manufacture, comparing it with that made in France. Though disagreeing vivaciously on several points, they agree that the novel written in English shows a sense of life comparable with that of children and kittens, and that our novelists are "poor twangers and twaddlers who remain outside, who pick up a living in the street." Mr. James has never been more securely and intimately inside. In spite of the presence of much admired natural emotions, the real spectacle provided is mental and spiritual fencing and skirmishing, with a play of attraction and repulsion, with approaches and retreats, doubts, discoveries, surprises, shocks—all that really does go on between people whose make-up is not primitive. Such a spectacle no other English-writing novelist has ever even dreamed of providing. For literary purposes Mr. James appears to be the discoverer of human relationships which don't immediately strike the eye, are not just simple and notoriously clear.

A recent critic who, with strange perversity or obliquity, persists in describing Mr. James as a photographer, speaks of his having "removed himself and his beautifully mounted camera bodily to the old country," and suggests that he did so because he wanted to delineate manners and could find in America none to delineate. It is probably true that he deliberately sought a society with manners, that is, unquestioned traditional ways of behaving, speaking, thinking, or even preserving intellectual vacancy; but he needed that society for the delineation of something more than manners, for the study of human relations neither simply beautiful and sacred nor simply gross and horrid. That he has come to find these relations fascinating in proportion to their delicacy and mystery, seems to us not a matter for reproof, but one furnishing occasion for complimenting his conscience and courage. Such situations and relations as those of "Broken Wings," "The Beast in the Jungle," "The Papers," are not undertaken and developed without an abundance of daring and patient resolution. To examine just these three tales is to be amazed at the display of an extensive and impartial observation of life, at the mastery of some dominant human motives with their thousand qualifications and modifications, and at the variety of capacity for brilliant representation. In "The Papers" the author enlarges his usual scope, and satirizes with much humor and some fierceness the modern mania for self-advertisement; and in the same tale he records a most touching instance of the sacrifice of self on the altar of love. The offer of Howard Bight (a born journalist) to give away his methods, his secret self, to Maud Blandy (a hopelessly aspiring journalist)—"For the Papers. Oh, for the Papers only"—and to get her a hundred pounds for the "copy," affects one as a tribute to the great passion little short of sublime.

Mr. James's scorn of the general rage for publicity shows again in "The Birthplace," a careful perusal of which might materially diminish the rush of tourists to overrun the earthly habitations of the mighty dead. The situation here is the appointment of one Morris Gedge to the position of warden of a shrine which had always figured to him "as the most sacred known to the steps of men, the early home of the supreme poet, the Mecca of the English-speaking race." Thereafter Gedge's sensitive soul is seen in conflict with his sense of duty as showman—a duty fervently urged by his wife, a weary woman, bent on keeping a roof over her head, no matter what the cost to her husband's sensibilities; Gedge's struggle, exquisitely delineated, ends in abject submission to duty and domestic tenderness, ends in his winning an international reputation for his eloquent discourses to the hateful, gaping, squawking crowd which he personally conducted up and down and over the shrine. From the picture of Gedge's joy when he got news of his appointment, sitting in the gray town library of Blackport-on-Dwindle, one may get a notion of the tragedy in his submission:

"The tears came into his eyes sooner still than into his wife's while he looked about with her at their actual narrow prison, so grim with enlightenment, so ugly with industry, so intolerable to any taste. He felt as if a window had opened into a great green woodland, a woodland that had a name, glorious, immortal, that was peopled with vivid figures each of them renowned, and that gave out a murmur, deep as the sound of the sea, which was the rustle in forest shade of all the poetry, the beauty, the color of life."

Alas, poor Gedge! All his life the victim of disappointment, the great misfortune was to get at last the very thing that if, given a choice, he might most have wished to take.

A novelist who takes for his background rural Wessex in the forties provokes an inevitable comparison. In 'Sarah Tuldon' we are introduced to the typical peasant family of Mr. Thomas Hardy. The heroine is the beautiful daughter of an ill-paid and drunken laborer handicapped by a querulous, incapable wife and countless younger children. All the elements of the D'Urberville *ménage* confront one at the outset. The scene is a country village near Dorchester—better known to fiction and to fame as "Casterbridge"; the dissolute young squire, who is an essential in every novel of country life since the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' bears the name of Alec, like his D'Urberville prototype, one is prepared for a thoroughgoing plagiarism. But though Mr. Agnus has taken no pains to invent new *dramatis personæ* for the stage-setting of Mr. Hardy, the development of the story is entirely original. Sally Tuldon, with all the external make-up of Tess, is a clever vixen who outwits even the squire, and her story goes to prove that a strong-minded woman who has her own way is a blessing, though often a blessing in disguise, to a whole village, not to say a countryside. The book is a complete and amusing apology for a shrew, and the taming in the sequel is left to the hand of time and is none too thorough. Sally Tuldon is all that Tess might have been had she owned a strong will. After reforming her family by dint of talking them down, she marries without his consent a well-to-do farmer, and reorganizes him and his. We are far from the philosophy and the tragic atmosphere of one of the original Wessex masterpieces, and we find in these pages no appreciation of the beauty of the country which, in its sombre as in its smiling aspect, touches the imagination of Mr. Hardy's readers. But there is much humor and force in 'Sarah Tuldon,' and, while the dialogue of the laborers of Wessex is not so memorable as that of Mr. Hardy, it is probably somewhat nearer to the early Victorian reality.

'The Main Chance,' since the leading characters naturally keep an eye on it, is a title that will fit any novel of commerce. The present instance is admirably adapted for the strenuous idleness of the business man for whose recreation this new type of literature is apparently intended. A trolley-car adorns the cover, the hero is the receiver of a traction company, the villain a bank cashier, and the final tragedy is precipitated by the latter's weakness in selling two hundred shares of traction stock to the wrong man. When we add that the only son of the chief citizen of Clarkson is abducted in a buggy and held for a princely ransom in a deserted house whither he is tracked by the hero, it will be seen that few of the in-

teresting features of life in "a trans-Missouri State" have been omitted. The heroine has more character than is usually allowed her in the novel of commerce. She is a graduate of Smith; but, the author having made this concession to the modern young woman, hastens to assure us that she hardly had a bowing acquaintance with her studies and was on bad terms with the faculty; in short, her four years in the East merely modified her accent to suit the taste of the hero from Boston. Evelyn does, in fact, display an ineptitude for the simplest matters of business, which convinces one that she had great feminine charm. The book is written in forty-seven short and stirring chapters; the characters are well drawn, and the style is vigorous; but it will not "take tired people to the Islands of the Blest," which are unknown to the geography of the novel of commerce.

The French, as a rule, are saved from sentimentality by the keen and clear intelligence which is their most conspicuous endowment; but when a Frenchman writes "pour les jeunes filles," it is quite another story. In 'La Fille du Braconnier' a prolific writer, M. Mélandri, contributes another volume to the library of fiction that may be read by a French girl in the interval between her convent-school and her wedding-day. An English or American girl of any age would be profoundly bored by the tears and agitation, the touching coincidences, the wholly unconvincing incidents which in the end land the poacher's daughter in affluence in the very château whose demesne her father used to poach. The tale is redeemed from absolute mawkishness by a spirited account of the battle of Waterloo. "Le respect dû à nos lectrices," to quote the writer's phrase, ought naturally to bar out the ordinary tone and setting of the modern French novel. But the intelligence too has its claims, and one can only pity the "jeune fille" who in her teens is nourished on the "Girl's Own Paper" style of fiction while her English-speaking contemporary is reading Meredith and Hardy and Stevenson. It is rare, indeed, to find the latter after this liberal allowance declining, like her French cousin in later years, on the novels of Bourget and Prévost.

Across Coveted Lands. By A. Henry Savage Landor. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903. 2 vols. 175 illustrations, diagrams, plans, and maps. Pp. viii., 462, viii., 460.

Voyages au Maroc (1899-1901). Par Mis de Segonzac. Avec 178 photographies . . . une carte . . . et des appendices, politique, astronomique, météorologique, botanique, entomologique, numismatique, géographique. Paris: Armand Colin. 1903. Pp. xii., 410.

Mr. Landor's would be an extremely interesting record of Persian travel—Persia being the coveted land in question—if it could excite any trust in its accuracy. As the case stands, the numerous excellent photographs are its only confidence-arousing element. For the rest, Mr. Landor, by his attitude towards other travellers and authorities, and by his own vagueness on essential points, produces an unfortunately amateurish and unsatisfactory impression. Neither his attacks on Major Sykes nor his more general fulminations against official maps and geographical societies will go to help his own geographical standing. Independence of attitude and freedom from conventional opinions are excellent things in a traveller, but persistent captiousness and a parading of such different views can only remind of Sir Richard Burton on his weakest side. Yet Burton, however wrongheaded and bullheaded he might seem, could always base his dicta on a sound knowledge of the people he dealt with. Whatever his theories, they rested on carefully observed facts. Mr. Landor leaves a very different impression. For example, we are not told from first to last what his knowledge of Persian, if he had any, was. His travels seem to involve personal intercourse with the people. But indirect references make it plain that the case was not so, that he had need of an interpreter throughout. With that vanishes at once the first-hand value of his book. The labors of the Oriental as interpreter have to be taken, not with a grain, but with bushels of salt.

The residuum, then, which we have here is the record of the journey of an intelligent and observant but very opinionated man from Enzeli on the Caspian by Teheran, Ispahan, Yezd, Kerman, Naiband, Birjand, Nasratabad in Sistan and Nushki to Quetta. All this, of course, is ground of the most beaten, following the Oriental equivalent of a post-route throughout, and we cannot but wonder that it should have had attractions for a traveller of exploring instincts like Mr. Landor. The solution probably lies in the political prominence of Persia at present. This book is Mr. Landor's contribution to the Persian conundrum now before the English mind, Is Germany my friend, or Russia? His solution is emphatically pro-Russian: the keynote is struck at the very first in an encomium of Russian railway methods, and especially of the through train from Warsaw to Baku. Thereafter follows a very readable and lively account of observations and ideas on the route outlined above, giving special attention to manufactures and trade, actual and possible. All is evidently in thorough good faith, and probably Mr. Landor's studies in consular reports and the like are factually correct, but the general result does not inspire confidence either in his narratives or in his conclusions.

Very different is the impression produced by the Marquis de Segonzac's record of travel. The country through which he went has its questions, too, perhaps more presently burning than that even of Persia. Within, it is full of civil strife, more or less latent; and without, it is watched by jealous and longing eyes. Yet up and down through it, in three great journeys, went this officer of Spahis, in disguise, with native companions speaking the language, though, as he confesses, having no knowledge of literary Arabic, everywhere observing, mapping, photographing, collecting. How he, a wandering beggar for the most part, managed to escape observation and suspicion, to take these careful photographs—not so beautiful, it is true, as those of Mr. Landor, but much more to the point—to watch his chronometers and his compass, his barometer and hypsometer, to keep mapping his route, to fix so many points by careful astronomical observation, —that all must remain a mystery. For M. de Segonzac does not talk much about himself. He gives the barest diary of his movements from day to day, of weather and events—a narrative dry enough, but enlivened from time to time by touches of detail which show the trained observation of a man knowing the people among whom he was. Yet there are passages, too, in which the artist rises above the topographer, and the atmospheric mystery of a landscape is rendered in delicate French. And to it all, as he says himself, the conclusion is lacking. He will not touch "la question marocaine." He recognizes that it lies outside of the frame of his book. One protest only he will make. Exploring simply from lust of wandering or of extending science would be a poor pastime. "Avant tout il [l'explorateur] aspire à servir son pays, et, dans ses rêves de nomade, il voit l'ombre de son drapeau s'étendre partout où il est passé." That is frank at least. His preface, M. Eug. Étienne, Vice-President of the Chambre des Députés, is much more detailed on Algeria's need of Morocco. But they must, he holds, come into one another's arms through natural evolution, fostered by the spread of French influence.

Three great journeys are recorded here. One led our author, as a beggar, living by alms, from mosque to mosque, through the mountains of the Rif, untouched by explorers, the only unmapped part of the littoral of the Mediterranean, from Fez to Melilla and back to Wazzan. The second journey was made under very different conditions, in the company and under the escort of a venerated Sharif (name naturally suppressed), who was willing to give the shelter of his sanctity to this disguised French explorer. Throughout, be it remembered, it is evident that the French are on remarkably close terms with these Sharifs of Wazzan—rivals to the present Sultan, and of an older line—who are at present making trouble in Morocco. On this journey the "Moyen-Atlas"— a term unknown to our maps, but found on German ones—was three times traversed, new ground throughout except for a single crossing by Caillié in 1824-28 and Rohlfs in 1862. Finally, with a single companion, M. de Segonzac made a pious pilgrimage as merchant in a small way through the holy land of Sus, journeying from Dar al-Baida as far south as Tisnit and back to Mogador. Thus three parts of Morocco, two absolutely unknown before and one only touched, have been here unveiled with tolerable completeness. And all is stated with scientific brevity and certitude.

The appendices take up 114 pages, and are careful investigations and descriptions, by specialists called in to the task, of the results of these journeys. A greater contrast, negatively and positively, than this book presents to Mr. Landor's could hardly be imagined.

The Loyalists in the American Revolution. By Claude Halstead Van Tyne, Senior Fellow in the University of Pennsylvania. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. i.-ix., 1-360.

In considering a work based upon the sources, it is important to know what sources have been used. Mr. Van Tyne, nevertheless, gives no bibliography, because, as he says, the bibliography in Flick and in Winsor make it unnecessary to do so. We would suggest that in a work of this kind a bibliography, of the sources at

least, is indispensable. In the present case it does not appear that the author has made much use of the sources mentioned by Flick, except at second hand, having cited only once (p. 260) the valuable Transcript of the Manuscript Books and Papers of the Committee of Enquiry, etc. From the foot-notes we gather that the sources principally used are the colonial laws and records, the American Archives, Stevens's Facsimiles, Rivington's Gazetteer, and the letters of Murray and of Curwen. Aside from the colonial laws, which have been carefully analyzed (Appendix B, Appendix C), it does not appear that the author's acquaintance with the sources of his subject is exhaustive or intimate. Citations are not made uniformly, and Rivington's Gazetteer has been cited throughout as "Rivington's Gazette."

The work itself is concerned broadly with two problems, quite different in their nature—the formation of the Loyalist party, and the fortunes of the party after it was once formed. The first five chapters, with the possible exception of chapter iii., have to do with the former, the last eight have to do with the latter. Obviously it is more difficult to trace the origin of a party than it is to relate the fortunes of the party after it is once formed. Mr. Van Tyne has, at any rate, apparently found it so, for he has succeeded in giving us a useful and fairly satisfactory summary of the organization of the Loyalists, of what they did, of how they were treated, and of what became of them; but he has failed to give us a useful or satisfactory account of the transformation of the old colonial parties into the Loyalist and Revolutionary parties. Indeed, from the author's point of view, this transformation was necessary only in respect to the patriot party. "Loyalty was the normal condition, the state that *had* existed, and *did* exist, and it was the Whigs . . . who must do the converting," etc. (p. 2). Consequently the author's task is limited for the most part to an enumeration of the classes which remained loyal.

This, it strikes us, is to miss the core of the whole matter. It is, of course, true that loyalty was the normal condition, but loyalty as a general condition, and loyalism as a specific party policy, are quite different things. In the only sense in which the terms have any significance, there were neither Loyalists nor Revolutionists in 1765; in 1776 there were both. Between these dates the progress of events in England and America was steadily in the direction of defining the issue more and more precisely in terms of revolution vs. loyalism; the problem of the historian is to show how the different factions and parties were gradually disintegrated, and forced to accept the one alternative or the other. The central fact was the existence, as late as 1774, of a large conservative party which favored neither absolute revolution nor submissive loyalism. This party was composed of two elements: those who preferred to resort to forcible resistance rather than to accept absolute submission, and those who preferred absolute submission to forcible resistance. In 1774 and 1775 the Conservative party split in two on these lines: those who were facing toward revolution became revolutionists, those who were facing toward loyalism became loyalists. Both elements acted from essentially the same motive—the necessity of supporting the lesser against the greater evil. This central fact Mr. Van Tyne has apparently missed.

The number of errors of detail suggests a hasty gathering and sifting of material. The proposal which led the Boston leaders to await the action of a Continental Congress (p. 34) was not made by the Sons of Liberty in New York, but by the Committee of Fifty-one. "New York Convention" (p. 64) should be "New York Congress"; "Provincial Congress" (p. 88) should be "Provincial Convention"; while "Provincial Convention" (p. 161) should be "Provincial Congress." It is misleading to say that, in spite of majorities on Long Island "against the measure" (of the Provincial Convention in New York, 1775), delegates were sent by "small bodies of patriots who relied on outside support" (p. 89). This was true only in the case of two towns in Queens County, Jamaica and Oyster Bay, and the delegates from Queens County were refused a vote by the Convention. Four counties, instead of three (p. 116), authorized the New York city delegates to act for them in the first Continental Congress, and this authorization was hardly "careless" (see 4 American Archives, i., 1188). It is hardly correct to say that the Provincial Convention in New York assumed legislative powers (p. 119). Aside from a formal approval of the first Continental Congress, its sole work was the election of delegates to the second Continental Congress.

On the whole, Mr. Van Tyne's book, especially the last part of it, will serve a useful purpose, but we feel that the subject is one which might well justify more careful work and profounder thought than has as yet been given to it. The style is somewhat above the level of "dissertation English." The index is good.

Personal Idealism: Philosophical Essays by Eight Members of the University of Oxford. Edited by Henry Cecil Sturt. Macmillan. 1902. 8vo; pp. 393.

The writer of the opening essay of this volume is one of Oxford's importations of four or five years ago, George Frederick Stout, of St. John's, Cambridge, called to Oxford when his eminence in psychology had become unquestionable. He here undertakes to resolve some of the sophisms of Ward and Bradley, mingling logic and psychology in the manner peculiar to him, until the reader doubts whether Mr. Stout could answer correctly which of these subjects it is that he is dealing with. The second essay is by Ferdinand C. S. Schiller, author of 'The Riddles of the Sphinx,' and it is the liveliest, and, as one would say, the most brilliant, in the book. William Ralph Boyce Gibson discusses the problem of freedom in its relation to psychology. Without astonishing originality or clearness of thought, he presents considerations substantially sound, and so commonly overlooked as to be well worth urging. There is, he says, besides the study of the modern psychologists, another science dealing with Mind as conscious of final causation. This naturally suggests a swarm of questions, some of which Mr. Gibson passes without notice, while some he answers or half-answers. George Edward Underhill's paper on "The Limits of Evolution," which argues that the evolutionist cannot deal with origins and unavoidably assumes the existence of laws not subject to development, may be reckoned as padding. Robert Ranulph Marett treats of "Origin and Validity in Ethics," preaching the clear truth that Validity is the primary principle in this field.

One would expect that students who are moved by the conviction that enough has not been made of personality in philosophy, would anchor their bark on the rock of ethics. Yet of these eight essays, two only are ethical, since Mr. Gibson, though he treats of the problem of freedom, does so in the sole interest of psychology. The succulent paper of the editor, on "Art and Personality," sandwiched for no obvious reason between two dry slices of ethics, will prove, we think, the most useful to philosophy of the whole eight. We shall not insist that the writer shows signal skill in hitting his nail squarely on the head, but he manages, after a fashion, to get a sufficient part of it driven home. At any rate, he certainly brings together a considerable number of items of thought bearing upon the question of æsthetics which it will be highly convenient to have thus collected. We hope to hear more from this new philosopher. Messrs. Boyce Gibson, Marett, and Sturt belong to a class of thinkers whose work we shall value more and more as the day of heroes in philosophy fades away *al ponente*. Dr. Frederick William Bussell considers "The Future of Ethics: Effort or Abstention?" Finally, Rev. Hastings Rashdall, best known for his book on the mediæval universities, attempts to analyze personality, and gives in his adhesion to the limitation of God, as against the absolutism of Bradley and other metaphysicians in vogue.

The tendency vaguely described on the title-page is probably destined to play a prominent rôle in the thought of the twentieth century; but even those who believe that some such view will ultimately be found to approve itself after the oscillations of opinion shall have subsided, can hardly expect this publication to shake opinion as it must some time be shaken if metaphysicians are ever to come to any agreement. Mr. Schiller thinks they never will do so; and, furthermore, that they never ought to. Philosophy, he thinks, ought to be regarded as a matter of personal fancy. "The whole history of philosophy shows that the fit of a man's philosophy is and ought to be as individual as the fit of his clothes, and forms a crushing commentary on the intolerant craving for uniformity. . . . For this reason any philosophy is better than none." That is, one must not go metaphysically naked, like Truth in her well, but whatever opinion one takes a fancy to, will answer every essential purpose. Lutoslawski's master, of unpronounceable name, can hardly more magnify the element of human wilfulness. Nevertheless, the assortment and confrontation of opinions, if carefully studied, may have a fine effect. There is eventually to be a "harmony" of metaphysical systems, though no "uniformity," differences of philosophical belief being "too deeply rooted in human idiosyncrasy to be eradicated." Mr. Schiller does not believe there are any hard facts which remain true independently of what we may think about them. He admits it requires a hard struggle to make *all* facts suit our fancy, but he holds that facts change with every phase of experience, and that there are none which have been "all

along" what history decides they shall have been. This doctrine he imagines is what Professor James means by the "will to believe." He is resolved that it shall have been so.

The main point of the essay, however, is that axioms are explanatory hypotheses—"postulates," the author calls them—which are suggestions coming from our needs, and which, in a measure, are found to fit the facts while in a measure they are forced upon the facts by formalisms. No doubt axioms and explanatory hypotheses may with some justice be thrown together under one heading, but the general theory is considerably more satisfactory than the author's attempts to apply it to the formulæ of logic, such as "A is A," for such a formula is simply an attempt to formulate in part what we perceive that we mean by "is." It thus rather resembles the assertion that a color before the assertor's eyes is red—that is, it resembles a direct judgment of perception; although doubtless this, too, might with some justice be likened to an explanatory hypothesis.

The general movement of thought which the book represents has certainly great vitality; and this signifies that it is destined to develop further. All the writefs have plainly been much impressed by the method of the book, 'Riddles of the Sphinx.' Their bark is not anchored to any special position, and is destined to be carried far—they know not whither. We believe them to be the hardy navigators who will adhere to their method as long as it seems to them rational, wherever it may carry them.

Glimpses of Colonial Society and Life at Princeton College 1766-1773. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1903.

The town of Paterson in New Jersey most conspicuously commemorates to-day the Governor of that State, afterward a Senator and a Justice of the United States, some of whose correspondence with college friends when he was between twenty-one and twenty-eight has been printed, with the above title, under the editorship of Mr. W. Jay Mills. Not much direct light is thrown upon either society or the College, from which he was graduated in 1763, by this law student, whose letters were chiefly occupied with the charms of real and imaginary belles in Philadelphia and Princeton, and with comments upon the tender passion. In the main they show that a hundred and thirty years ago the emotions were as urgent as they are to-day, with perhaps somewhat more open expression. If William Paterson's letters of the next ten years, covering the Revolutionary period, could be recovered, they should be a contribution to history.

A satire upon a tutor who avoided the civic duty of attendance at an accidental fire; reference to the recognized custom on the part of some students of delivering speeches not their own as if original; and an appended letter from the President in 1804, showing the trouble made by a suspended student who would not leave the town, but "haunted the college particularly at nights," are the chief items bearing upon the academic life. A business letter of 1769 says: "There is very little circulating cash in the country, which renders it difficult to take up money," although in Hunterdon County, whither Paterson is going, there are wealthy farmers who "have money to put." We learn incidentally that postal accommodations are indifferent and irregular. Long trips over country roads are taken as a matter of course and without complaint in attending court. These illustrate the times. There is no allusion to dress, to entertainments, to social habits of any kind. Naturally there would be no set comment, in such informal and ephemeral communications, upon the ways of a society with which both parties were familiar, but it is strange that there was no recognition in them of that ground swell of opinion so soon to be manifest in the war for independence.

It seems a question of ethics whether it is quite right to publish such correspondence. There is nothing unbecoming nor really weak in these pages, but they are friends' gossip, not essays for the world. Historians might study such manuscript for details, but we cannot believe that an ordinarily sensitive man would not object, either at the time or in his maturer years, to having them spread abroad. Although written by one who afterward became conspicuous, they are not the letters of a famous man; so the public has not the claim, sometimes set forth, of a right to the developed thoughts, although privately expressed, of those to whom popular acclamation has given fame. Nevertheless we all like human documents, and as one that is well marked, this little book appeals to a natural if not very elevated longing.

Unless the orthography has been very carefully edited, William Paterson was much more literate than the average collegian of his day. There are but one or two misspelled words, and these are carefully stamped with a *sic*. But with all such apparent care the editor sees fit (p. 141) to spell queue without its last two letters. This is a lapse probably distributable between the compositor and the proofreader, but unsightly.

Social Germany in Luther's Time. E. P. Dutton & Co.

We have here a translation, by Mr. Albert D. Vandam, of the memoirs of Bartholomew Sastrow. The title is decidedly too pretentious, inasmuch as Sastrow was a minor personage, whose experience of the world was limited and whose prejudices were extremely strong. It will be seen, too, that he really belongs not to the time of Luther, but to the following generation. He was born in 1520 and lived till 1603. Thus, while the first twenty-six years of his life run parallel with the last twenty-six of Luther's, he belongs to the age of the Council of Trent rather than to the age of the Diet of Worms.

Our only quarrel is with the undue comprehensiveness of the title. This autobiography is worth translating, both for the facts which it contains and for the state of mind which it reveals. Sastrow was a native of Greifswald, and his career is chiefly associated with the Hanseatic region. The Lutheran movement had made good progress in the extreme north of the empire during Sastrow's boyhood, and when, at the age of eighteen, he entered the University of Rostock, he found it under the control of two apostles from Wittenberg, Burenius and Welfius. From whatever influence, Sastrow imbibed during his boyhood a spirit which led him to defend the Lutheranism of the Lutheran religion. His party feeling shows itself strongly in his autobiography, and is indeed one of the main characteristics of the work. As Mr. H. A. L. Fisher observes in his introduction to the present translation:

"Sastrow was a Lutheran and believed in devils as fervently as his great master. . . . For some reason, which to me is inscrutable, but which was as plain as sunlight to Sastrow, a superhuman apparition goes out of its way to help a young Pomeranian scribe, who upon his own showing is anything but a saint, while the innocent maidservant of a miser is blown up with six other persons no less blameless than herself, to enforce the desirability of being free with one's money. This, however, is the usual way in which an egoist digests the popular religion."

At the age of twenty-four Sastrow became an imperial notary, and for historical purposes the most important part of his life falls within the next six years. After serving the Margrave Ernest of Baden and Christopher von Löwenstein, a receiver of the Order of St. John, he journeyed to Italy in 1546, had a glimpse of Rome (where his Lutheranism was carefully concealed), and returned to Germany before the outbreak of the Schmalkaldic War. Unfortunately for itself, Pomerania took the side of the confederates, and, after the battle of Mühlberg, found it necessary to sue for terms. Sastrow received an appointment on the commission which went to Augsburg along with the Pomeranian Chancellor, James Citzewitz. His account of the Diet at which the Interim was drafted is quite the best thing in his narrative of personal experiences, and it alone would justify the publication of the book. The profligacy of the German princes, the cruelty of the Spanish soldiery, and the hideous frequency of judicial murders, throw a lurid light upon the theological debates of this exciting moment. Though not a dignitary of anything like the highest importance, Sastrow stood near enough to the Protestant princes to procure much information and more gossip. During the latter part of his life he was occupied chiefly with the politics of Stralsund. After being made Secretary in 1555 and Councillor in 1562, he reached the post of Burgomaster in 1578. This was the highest position he ever filled. His personality is harsh and unpleasant. His book reflects the more rugged aspects of German life during the middle and latter part of the sixteenth century.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Blaisdell, A. F. and Ball, F. K. Hero Stories from American History. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Boogher, W. F. Gleanings of Virginia History. Washington: Published by the author.

Brochner, Jessie. Danish Life in Town and Country. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.20.

Chittenden, H. M. History of Early Steamboat Navigation on the Missouri River: Life and Adventures of Joseph La Barge. 2 vols. Francis P. Harper.

Colson, Elizabeth, and Chittenden, Anna G. The Child Housekeeper. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Gibbs, George. The Love of Monsieur. Harpers.

Howells, W. D. Questionable Shapes. Harpers.

Irving, Washington. The Fur Traders of the Columbia River and the Rocky Mountains. Edited by F. L. Olmsted. (The Knickerbocker Literature Series). G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Johan Mortensen. Le Théâtre Français au Moyen Age. Translated from the Swedish by Emmanuel Philipot. Paris: Alphonse Picard et Fils.

Kingsley, Charles. Hereward the Wake. 2 vols. J. F. Taylor & Co.

Whigham, H. J. The Persian Problem. Scribners. $3.50.

Whinery, S. Municipal Public Works. Macmillan.

Whiting, C. G. Walks in New England. John Lane. $1.50.

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REMINGTON *Standard Typewriter*

327 BROADWAY, NEW YORK

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 11, 1903.

The Week.

"A square deal" for the negro was the burden of President Roosevelt's speech on Thursday at the tomb of Abraham Lincoln. Inspiration might well have come to him from that mighty shade. And thickening events are certainly hurrying on the issue. The new slave-driving in Alabama has pricked the conscience of the nation. Highly significant, in this connection, is that plank of Thursday's Ohio platform which declares for "equity everywhere in the exercise of the elective franchise," with the enforcement of the Constitutional penalties upon those States which violate it. This is one form of the "square deal" for the negro to which it is the nation's immediate business to attend. The Ohio utterance marks the revival of human rights, with the equality of all men before the law, as a political issue of the first magnitude. It may easily swallow all other issues. Education and the suffrage lie at the foundation of our institutions, and we must work for both.

Just why the South should feel so bitter against President Roosevelt for appointing to office fifteen or sixteen negroes, when Mr. McKinley gave office to eighty without being complained of, has puzzled every Northern observer of the fierce criticisms of the President. Until now we have looked in vain for an explanation, but Mr. John J. Vertrees of Nashville has risen to the situation in an article in the June number of the *Olympian*. With the Jove-like wisdom called for by such a forum he informs the public that

> "Mr. McKinley appointed negroes to office because they were negroes—thus making, as all perceived, a mere political play, which was accepted as a matter of course, and, therefore, gave no concern. But Mr. Roosevelt appoints regardless of race, and because negroes are equal men—thus revealing a faith in that solidarity which Anglo-Saxons know can come only through the mongrelizing of their race. This is the reason why the negro looks to the President as a deliverer, and the people of the South turn from him as one recreant and irresponsive to the instincts and appeals of his own blood and race."

This is extremely enlightening, so much so as to call forth the highest praise from the Nashville *American*, which declares that Mr. Vertrees "has admirably given expression to the Southern sentiment on the negro question." We had supposed that the opposition to Dr. Crum in Charleston was based upon his color alone. We see now that if Mr. Roosevelt had sent Dr. Crum's nomination to the Senate in this form, "Dr. Crum, negro, unequal man, nominated for political purposes only," all that rumpus in Charleston would have been avoided, and he would not have been accused of wishing to prevent race suicide by "mongrelizing the race."

President Roosevelt returned to Washington on Friday evening, just in time to learn of the indictment of August W. Machen, the former General Superintendent of Free Delivery, and of the arrest of two of his subordinates, T. W. McGregor and C. Elsworth Upton, on the charge of swindling the Government on a mail-pouch contract. On an $18,000 transaction they are said to have placed $10,000 to their private bank accounts, which would be considered a handsome profit even in Wall Street. The seriousness of the situation is now so clearly recognized that a prominent official is quoted in the *Tribune* as declaring that the bribe givers and bribe takers must be made examples of if the corrupting influences of the postal ring are not to permeate every branch of the Government service. Here is Mr. Roosevelt's chance, and he has improved it by causing it to be announced that he is determined to pursue the post-office thieves relentlessly. His friends say that he has given orders to "go to the bottom." We hope they will be obeyed, and that the investigation will also go to the top.

The postal investigations have now dragged into the light of publicity the name of the Postmaster-General's own secretary. Mr. Payne is, of course, certain that nothing will be found which will in any way reflect upon his immediate subordinate, whom he has known for many years. It will be remembered that he was also of the opinion that Mr. Tulloch's hitherto unrefuted charges were merely "hot air," and that there was nothing in the entire investigation. His secretary, it appears, is vice-president of a copper mining company, of which Mr. Machen, now under indictment, was president. Mr. Machen was also interested in a coal company which furnished fuel to the Post-Office Department. Indeed, it seems to have been the custom for postal officials to have all sorts of outside connections and associations, some of which were obviously formed for the purpose of doing business with the Government. An investigation of this practice would undoubtedly throw much light upon the pervading low moral tone of Washington officialism. The evil is not unknown in other departments, but has apparently spread further in Mr. Payne's than elsewhere.

The Ohio Republican platform favors "every encouragement possible to our merchant marine in the extension of American commerce in American ships upon every sea." This is a tame and spiritless indorsement of the ship-subsidy scheme. Rather should it be esteemed no indorsement at all. The Hanna-Payne bill and the later Frye bill constitute the only measure by which the Ohio Senator has been signalized as a statesman during his six years' service. All his other distinction has consisted in the lavish use of Federal spoil to provide places for his own henchmen and to seduce those of his rivals in Ohio. When we find him unable to get any serious indorsement of his ship-subsidy scheme, we may safely conclude that he is not taken seriously as a legislator even by his own State. The resolution adopted by his Convention on the subject of the merchant marine may perhaps include the Elkins plan of discriminating duties in favor of American ships; but if it had meant the Hanna bill, or the later Frye bill, it would have named either the one or the other of those measures. Mr. Hanna is not the only statesman who is "short" of an indorsement in this particular. General Grosvenor was in an even more necessitous plight; but naturally the Ohio Republicans did not want to see Grosvenor's check from J. Pierpont Morgan circulated as a campaign document this year.

On the subject of the tariff, the Ohio platform appears to be decisive and unequivocal, but in reality it is not so. It first says that the protective tariff "has made the United States the greatest industrial nation." This is a glaring untruth, since it ascribes to the tariff all the prosperity due to natural resources and abundant harvests—as glaring as it would be for the other side to affirm that the high protective tariff is connected with the high barometric pressure which has prevented rain in the North Atlantic States, causing the drought and forest fires we have just been witnessing. But, after claiming all the prosperity as the work of protection, and leaving all adverse conditions to be accounted for by Divine Providence, the platform-makers suddenly remembered that there was a national convention of millers in session at Detroit whose theme was reciprocity with Canada; also, that there were important groups in other parts of the country, such as tanners, shoemakers, and the manufacturers of agricultural implements, making similar demands with respect to foreign trade. So the platform-makers took a short excursion into the free-trade domain by referring to "changing conditions and the possible benefits of reciprocity," and to a "timely readjustment of schedules." The

Boston Home Market Club may be trusted to deal as they deserve with these turncoats and traitors.

We have received from our readers sundry circulars, or packages of circulars, sent out as campaign literature by the American Protective Tariff League, upon which we are asked to give some advice or suggestion in the way of reply. The circular is a small slip of paper asking the receiver of it to send to the League the name and address of one person who will cast his first Presidential vote in 1904. "We wish," it says, "to forward to him literature on the subject of protection." Our advice to the receivers of these slips is to ask the senders simply to define the word protection in terms of the Dingley tariff; that is, to take the separate items of the tariff, and tell what the ad-valorem rate of duty is, and to say whether that rate is necessary for the purposes of protection, and if not, what rate would be necessary. Thus, we understand that the rates of duty on mica, or some varieties of it, are equal to 4000 per cent. ad valorem. The range of the Dingley tariff includes all kinds of percentages, from that figure down to 5 or 10 per cent., and to the free list. It includes a duty of 33 per cent. on wheat, which the millers would like to have removed because they say that it cripples our milling industry by compelling the exportation of Canadian wheat to England, where it is ground into flour. If we could take that wheat and grind it, we could employ a corresponding amount of American labor and make a corresponding profit. Other persons say that the duty on hides is non-protective, but is a damage to the American tanning industry and to all leather manufactures; that it gives to foreigners an advantage over us in the boot and shoe trade. We should like to know, also, whether the duty on works of art is for protection or for revenue. American artists say that they do not want it for the former, and the Secretary of the Treasury certainly does not want it for the latter purpose. He has more revenue now than he knows what to do with. There are many questions of this kind which Mr. W. F. Wakeman, Treasurer and General Secretary of the American Protective Tariff League, might employ his well-earned leisure in answering.

The framers of the Constitution of Illinois fixed a special day for the election of Circuit and Superior Court judges, the idea being that, by separating the election of judges from all other political issues, a result not based upon party intrigue and manipulation would be sure to follow. This praiseworthy end has not been actually reached, of course, but the judicial election which has just taken place in Chicago indicates that substantial progress has been made. Lorimer, the Republican boss, insisted upon the nomination of certain candidates who would never have been heard of except for their political "pull," and as a result they were disastrously beaten. On the other hand, two Democratic candidates ran, even in the Republican wards, far ahead of the machine candidates. A curious and suggestive feature was that the most obnoxious of the Lorimer candidates, Hanecy, received strong Democratic support in some of the lower districts. Evidently there is such a thing as non-partisanship for evil as well as for good. The result would have been almost entirely satisfactory but for the fact that the vote was very light.

None of the customary excuses is available to explain the lynching of a negro by a mob of 2,000 persons near Belleville, Ill., on Saturday night. Illinois is a Northern State; the crime of which the mob's victim was accused was not committed against a woman. The negro was in jail, charged with attempting to kill one of the county officials. The man was not dead; in fact he may recover. There was no reason why the prosecution of his assailant should not have followed the ordinary course—or only one reason. The prisoner was a negro. On this account he was set upon in his cell and almost beaten to death, then dragged into the street in a dying condition, hanged to a telegraph pole, his body cut with knives and riddled with bullets, and finally burned. The apologists for the lawless band which committed this outrage declare that it was necessary to teach the negroes of the vicinity a lesson. Doubtless by their action they have taught one, but not as they intended. The lesson of violence is violence.

Even at the risk of prolonging the strike in the building trades, the employers have done well to formulate a comprehensive plan for dealing with the various unions. In general, while it amply "recognizes" the labor organizations, it recognizes them as bodies of workmen, not dictators, and lays down rules under which their arbitrary and vexatious methods will be hedged about. In particular, the scheme proposes to eliminate that most noxious disturber of the peace in the world of labor—the walking delegate. He will hereafter have to walk out, if the employing builders have their way. Their decided stand is one sign more of the growing realization that the demands of organized labor have become wildly excessive. In Chicago, labor has apparently gone crazy. Barbers, waiters, cooks, laundrymen on strike, threaten to leave the city unshorn, unfed, and unwashed. Mr. Marshall Field, whose record as a large and generous employer of labor is well known, speaks a manly word when he tells the unions that their course will speedily bring all employment to an end. If a business is to be ruined, it might as well be by discontinuance as by being forced into bankruptcy through paying impossible wages.

The arrest on Monday of Samuel J. Parks, the walking delegate, on the charge of extortion, may have an important influence in the way of settling the pending strike in the building trades. At all events, it will give both sides much to think about. It has been known here and everywhere that power was lodged in the hands of the walking delegate to upset business calculations involving millions of dollars, to carry ruin or penury into the homes of thousands of men, both employers and employees, and that the persons holding such power were for the most part irresponsible, or accountable only to their immediate constituents. The system, too, lends itself easily to corrupt practices. Given the power by the mere blowing of a whistle to close a factory and perhaps to ruin its proprietor, without the chance of being called to account in any tribunal which the whistler fears, it requires an unusual stock of virtue on his part to refrain from turning it to account for purposes of private gain. Why do employers allow themselves to be blackmailed? it may be asked. Why did not the President of the Hecla Iron Works take a firm stand and refuse to pay Parks a cent for lifting the strike? Is the briber not as bad as the bribed? But this is not a case of ordinary bribery. It is more like being "held up" on the high road and ordered to deliver one's purse at the pistol's muzzle. But whatever may be said of the hardship of the position in which many an employer finds himself, he is strictly bound in the interest of society and good government, to bring the blackmailer to justice at the first opportunity. Such an opportunity has come, and it is fortunate for the community, and especially for the honest trades-union men—and the great majority of them are honest—that we have a District Attorney in whom both employers and employed have full confidence.

The thirteenth of June is to be an important date in the history of the American college. On that day the democratic system of government by the entire body of the professors, which has marked out the University of Virginia from almost all other institutions of learning in the country, is to come to an end. This system, in spite of all that can properly be said on the other side, has good features which it is a pity to see extinguished. But however one may be inclined to decide on its general merits the question of president or temporary chairman, the coming election on the

part of the Board of Visitors (appointees of the Governor) is fraught with great danger; for, incredible as it may seem in the case of an institution of such distinction and dignity as the University of Virginia, there is grave fear that the election may be carried upon political grounds, and that a candidate who has no fitness for the position—who is not even a college graduate—will be the choice of the electors, even in the face of the organized protests of the professors themselves. So sad a fate as this, it is to be hoped, is not in store for an institution which has so brilliant a history behind it.

With two such veterans as Sir Michael Hicks-Beach and Sir William Vernon Harcourt ready to take the field for free trade, in the Conservative and Liberal parties respectively, no immediate revolution in British fiscal policy is possible. As we go to press, the House is in the midst of a great debate of which the issue appears to be a parting with Chamberlain or with the reins of power. With Chamberlain dropped, Mr. Balfour still has a "fine brute majority," and, by staving off other troublesome issues, by throwing oveaboard unpopular bills like that for London education, and by coddling the Irish, may retain his office for some time to come. But there can be no doubt that he has been fatally discredited as a party leader. What Prime Minister has ever had to suffer such a faithful wound of a friend as that inflicted upon Mr. Balfour by one of his supporters in the press, the *St. James's Gazette?* Speaking of the way in which the Premier had abandoned the essential clauses of the London Education bill, it said:

> "If Mr. Balfour would take the pains to think his policy out beforehand, base it on firm principles, and then say to his followers that the Ministry intended to stand or fall by their proposals, he would be much more loyally supported than he is at present. His constant attempts to catch gusts of acquiescence first in one quarter and then in another simply offer a premium on discipline and dissension in the ranks."

Such language is one of the symptoms of coming storm.

Mr. Chamberlain has written a letter for the instruction of British workingmen on the subject of the bread tax. He follows in the footsteps of William McKinley, as the latter did in those of Lord George Bentinck and the other tariffites of sixty years ago. He says that it is a matter of opinion whether the cost of living will be increased by a duty on wheat or not. He considers it "established" that the recent duty of one shilling per quarter on that cereal was met by a reduction in prices and in freight rates in the United States, and therefore did not fall on British consumers. A more intimate acquaintance with the facts would have taught the Colonial Secretary that the British duty on grain, imposed at the instance of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, coincided in point of time with the opening of lake navigation, and that the railroads reduced their rates accordingly, as is their custom. The British tax did not enter into their reckoning at all. But, says Mr. Chamberlain, "even if the price of food is raised, the rate of wages will certainly rise in greater proportion." This signifies that employers will embrace the opportunity afforded by a rise in the price of bread to add a corresponding sum, or rather a greater one, to their own expenses for labor. Workingmen know better than that. They know that employers will pay what they have to pay and no more. They know that, except in rare instances, they get their wages raised only by strikes or by demands which carry the threat of strikes to the mind of the employer. The only cases where wages rise by gentler means are those where the demand for labor exceeds the supply. Mr. Chamberlain's logic is at fault in not showing how an increase in the price of food tends *per se* to increase wages.

Australia appears to be willing to meet Mr. Chamberlain's tariff proposals by the ingenious device of raising the duties on goods imported from other countries than Great Britain, but keeping the duties on British goods where they now stand—that is, at a prohibitive or highly protective figure. This they style a preferential tariff. That the only real preference in it is the one given to their own protected manufacturers has been proved, as regards Canada, by Mr. Harold Cox of the Cobden Club. Canada began to give to Great Britain a preference in import duties in 1897. This preference was first fixed at 12½ per cent., and was increased to 33 per cent. in 1900. Apparently however, the rate of duties still remaining was sufficient for all purposes of protecting the Canadian manufacturer. At all events, the proportion of imports from Great Britain did not increase. That proportion was 19 per cent in 1897. It fell to 16 per cent. in 1898, and has continued at that rate except for one year, when it was as low as 15 per cent. Imports from the United States increased from 49 per cent. of the whole in 1897 to 60 per cent. in 1901. This result is ascribed by Mr. Cox to the fact that the tariff was contrived in the first instance to protect the Canadian manufacturer against the British, and that this design has never been lost sight of. He points also to the fact that, before giving a preference to British goods, the Laurier Ministry was careful to raise the duties on cotton goods largely coming from Great Britain, so that the reduction should be neutralized beforehand.

Reduction of military expenditures in the colonies is a question of the day in France. In 1902, the military budget for the colonies was $19,000,000. This year it has fallen to $18,000,000, with some resultant alarm. The *Temps*, which says it "will not be suspected of an excessive weakness for that sort of expenditure," still enters a strong plea for colonial defense. After Fashoda, the Parliament voted an appropriation for a comprehensive plan of colonial defense, but it has been clipped and curtailed, under the pressure for economy. The French colonial system falls into four great divisions: Western Africa, the Congo, Madagascar, and Indo-China. At the present time they are garrisoned by 54,500 troops, 25,000 in Indo-China, 15,000 in Madagascar, and 8,000 on the African continent. The *Temps* insists that they should be so thoroughly armed and equipped that, in a crisis, each portion of the colonial system would be capable of defending itself. This would certainly swell, instead of reducing, the annual budget, the dimensions of which, as they are, give the Minister of Finance sleepless nights.

The reported Belgian decision not to annex the Congo Free State will arouse fresh interest in that unfortunate country. Popular opposition and the attitude of England are the reasons given. To these might well be added the international disgust at the results of Belgian stewardship as they are daily finding their way into print. Mr. H. R. Fox Bourne has just pointed out, in his book entitled 'Civilization in Congoland,' that the original objects of the State, freedom of trade and the protection of the natives, have been absolutely lost sight of. The inhabitants have been reduced to a lower grade of civilization than that of the Arabs, and flee from their homes at the approach of Belgian troops, while the enormous profits of the privileged companies must make the mouths of our own would-be exploiters of the Philippines fairly water. It may be that annexation by Belgium would have fixed the responsibility for conditions in the Free State so clearly that there must have been an improvement in governmental conditions. But the attempt to suppress all recent criticisms, and the general Belgian indifference towards all complaints, are additional evidence of the great evils of the Belgian administration. The sacred task of uplifting an inferior race has in this case plainly pulled down the alleged superior one. There should now be a prompt reassembling of the Powers which took part in the Berlin and Brussels conferences to consider the whole question of the Congo State and, if possible, to set right its existing wrongs. At least, might not a commission be constituted to report upon the actual state of things?

REMEDIES FOR OPPRESSION.

The past few weeks have brought successive appeals to the heart and conscience of the civilized world. One horror of cruelty has followed hard upon another. Scarcely had the atrocities in the Congo Free State forced their way through official concealment to public notice, when the brutal outrages upon the Jews of Bessarabia shocked every reader of the dispatches. Next came the revelations of the hardships and oppression from which Italian laborers in this country were made to suffer, and finally, through indictment by a Federal grand jury, the discovery that a system of slavery, or something really worse than slavery, was practised in several counties of Alabama. We might make our own the prophet's words: "He looked for judgment, but behold oppression; for righteousness, but behold a cry."

Now we are not so dull as to deny that a quickened moral sensitiveness is implied in the very attention and excitement which such occurrences to-day arouse in all Christendom. It is not all a febrile sensationalism—"the festering news we half despise yet scramble for no less." A genuine revulsion against brutality and barbarism can be detected in the outcries which have made themselves heard. It has, happily, come to be true that no crime against humanity can any longer be done in a corner. Even the habitations of cruelty are now within the electric circuit of the world's sympathy. No trampler of the weak, no scourger of the defenceless, no destroyer of liberty can anywhere on this earth now feel safe from at least exposure. International as well as national moral standards have been erected, as regards the primary humane sentiments, and the punishment of the contempt of his kind is assured to man or monarch that dares cross them. Browning's "Instans Tyrannus" is truer than ever to-day, when it is not the victim, but the oppressor, who has reason to be afraid, so sure and ready is the moral condemnation which waits for him.

In this broader and tenderer humanity, with its accompanying vigilance, every one must see the chief hope. The first remedy for oppression is in its acute perception. The day has gone by when we can be accused of "meddling" for feeling and expressing responsibility for cruelty in any part of the world. We are all our brother's keepers, whether he be a Russian Jew in the flames and blood of Kishenev, or a black man tortured on the shores of Lake Leopold or held to slavery on the banks of the Coosa. But all this, it is evident, relates mainly to the attitude of the sympathizer with the oppressed. The further question arises, how is he to make his sympathy effective? What weapons is he to put in the hands of the poor victim of man's inhumanity, which will enable him, once rescued, to become his own defender?

It is when we ask and really try to answer such questions that we, who live in a democracy, are forced to see that the ultimate remedy for oppression must be political as well as moral. In order to set the poor and the wronged upon their feet, we must give them a certain power, even make them formidable, when they are once erect. It is all very well to talk about the mute but irresistible appeal of the unfortunate, but when it is a question of a change of public sentiment and of public law, it is necessary to give the unfortunate the means of enforcing his appeal. Under our system, such means must be, in the long run, political. Until you have a force which can make or unmake Legislatures and Congresses, you have no force able to entrench justice in the law of the land, and to arm its ministers with a sword against all oppressors.

But why stick in the bark of generalities when we have concrete examples under our eyes? Take the case of the outflow of American sympathies and alms to the beleaguered and massacred Jews in Russia. Was it wholly due to pure humanity? Were all our motives altruistic? Look at the facts. The Hebrew population of this country has become a great power. It is a political element with which our public men have to reckon. That is one great reason, beyond the shadow of a doubt, why they so promptly answer, when the appeal is made to them in the name of the persecuted Russian Jew, "Here are we." It is the powerful American Jew who commands; and we may be sure that we should not see so many elected officials, and politicians with an eye to the future, make haste to obey, if they did not know that Hebrew votes would back up the Hebrew cry for justice.

In a similar, though in as yet a less degree, the Italian-born citizens of our country are coming to have a political power which is the best safeguard of their race from oppression. The *Bollettino della Sera* of this city last week drove home the argument. The fashion of the day, it said, was pro-Jewish, but what about the cruelties committed upon Italians in West Virginia? But scarcely had it spoken when the Governor of West Virginia was rousing himself to punish the lawless contractors. The impulse came from New York city, where the Italian vote is no longer negligible. It is an old story. He who has the power of a freeman can make the rights of a freeman respected. Take from the colored men the right of saying, by their suffrage, who shall be their law-makers, and what laws shall be made, and you instantly expose them to what we now see going on in the South --exclusion from office, statutes cunningly devised to their hurt, injustice without redress, and a systematic reduction of the more ignorant and friendless to a condition more terrible than slavery. Pile your moral and educational remedies for such evils as high as you please, you will not be really efficient until you make use of the remedy which the history of this country and the nature of our government show to be the only one that is compelling and complete—the political remedy.

THE QUESTION OF THE BIRTH-RATE.

In the June number of the *Popular Science Monthly* Dr. Geo. J. Engelmann of Boston discusses the question whether the male graduates of American colleges are disinclined to marry and rear children. If it should appear that the higher education tends to "race suicide," that would be a grave indictment, but Dr. Engelmann does not find it sustained by statistics within his reach. He does find, however, that the native American population is declining, but that college graduates are above the average of the native stock in fecundity. The average graduate family does not reproduce itself—does not on the average bring to maturity two new lives to take the places of the parents—but it comes nearer to that mark than the less highly educated family of the native American stock. Dr. Engelmann affirms that the conditions now existing among the American people in this particular are more extreme than those found in any other country, not excepting France.

This is a serious statement. Dr. Engelmann furnishes the data on which he bases his calculations, and first those which relate to marriage. According to the statistics available (the records of all the college classes within reach), the married male graduates range from 88.7 per cent. (highest) to 71.4 per cent. (lowest), the average of all being 75.4. The average of the native American male is only 68.8. That of the population at large, native and foreign-born together, is 79.02. The average rate of fecundity of the native American family is 2.7, but the perils of infancy take away a certain proportion, so that the surviving rate is only 1.9—not sufficient for replacement. Ten families, according to this showing, bring to maturity only nineteen children for twenty parents. Among the native American population of Massachusetts, the highest possible number of survivors is 192 for 200 parents. The births in Massachusetts, native and foreign, are 28 per thousand per year of living population, but among the native-born they are only 17, while among the foreign-born they are 52. The birth-rate of France is 22.4 per thousand, which keeps the population about stationary.

Dr. Engelmann takes a glance backward. He finds that in the time of Benjamin Franklin the average number of

children to a family was 8 (but he omits to abate this figure by the notoriously greater infant mortality). In 1880 it was 6.1; in 1830, 4.6; in 1860, 3.33; in 1872, 2.45; in 1900, among the upper classes of Boston, 1.8. Dr. Engelmann tells us that the birth-rate has been decreasing throughout the civilized world —slowly in the Old World, but with great rapidity in the new. If his facts can be depended upon, they call for some fresh observations on the doctrine of Malthus. This doctrine affirms that "population tends to increase faster than subsistence," and that this tendency will produce misery and operate as a bar to social progress and improvement unless offset by certain checks, such as war, pestilence, and famine, which kill off surplus population, or vice, which tends to lessen reproduction, or prudence, which refrains from bringing into the world more children than can be supported in comfort. Malthus started with the thesis that population increases in a geometrical ratio, while subsistence increases only in an arithmetical ratio. He found good reason to drop his mathematical formulas, but he never contemplated a world in which the fecundity of the human race should diminish in the face of increasing means of subsistence. Yet that is the nut which Dr. Engelmann asks us to crack. He cracks it himself in the following way:

"Family shrinkage seems clearly referable to the strenuous nerve-racking life of the day, to the struggle not for existence, but for a luxurious existence, to the ever-increasing desire for the luxuries of life and the morbid craving for social dissipations and advancement. It is due, as plainly expressed and openly advocated by many, to the desire to have no children, or only such a number as husband and wife believe, in their wisdom, suitable and adapted to their ideals of comfort and their supposed financial possibilities."

That a race which does not keep its own numbers good from generation to generation will pass out of existence, needs no proof, and this will be its appropriate punishment; but the process is, with us, so complicated with immigration that it has no terror for the guilty parties. They say that the foreign stock is merging with the native stock now as before, that the process will continue during the next hundred years, as it has during the past four hundred, and that the last thing to be dreaded is any shortage of population. They think, too, that a lessened birth-rate, or even a decline of the total population, is not an unmixed evil, since it is better that two children should be reared in comfort and with full stomachs rather than eight or ten in squalor and half fed. Malthus, Mill, and Cairnes can supply all the arguments needed under this head, although none of them, as we have said, ever imagined a population declining in number with an increasing food supply. They did not, perhaps, give sufficient weight to the fact that the means of subsistence is a relative term, varying from age to age, and having different meanings to different peoples.

Obviously the delinquents in this case are not amenable to exhortation. They cannot be brought together and lectured. They are not open to appeals on the score of patriotism. They cannot be shamed. It is no use telling them that a people who cannot bring to maturity an average of more than nineteen children to twenty parents ought not to think of having colonies and of civilizing inferior races. All such appeals go over their heads or pass by them like the idle wind. In fact, this evil is not pointed out now for the first time. There was some rather loud talk about it in Boston back in the sixties and seventies, as futile as Dr. Engelmann's will probably be.

A SIDELIGHT ON TAMMANY.

A significant sidelight is thrown upon the working of the Tammany machine by Hutchins Hapgood's 'Autobiography of a Thief,' just published by Fox, Duffield & Co. Mr. Hapgood had the good fortune to meet an ex-pickpocket and burglar, who had served three terms in the penitentiary. The man had led a typical thief's life but he had unusual intelligence and "a gift of vigorous expression." At Mr. Hapgood's suggestion, Light-Fingered Jim has told his story and Mr. Hapgood has "edited" it. The document is genuine, for Mr. Hapgood and his publishers vouch for it personally, and internal evidence supports their claim. By "genuine" we do not mean that the thief has told the exact truth about all the incidents. He falls, for example, into certain anachronisms; he is probably older than he makes out; doubtless he has been tricked by his memory more than once; and in some passages he has consciously or unconsciously exaggerated. But these are minor matters; the book as a whole impresses the reader as an accurate presentation of the thief's personal point of view, a vivid picture of the society in which he lived and robbed, and of the influences, moral and political, by which he was surrounded.

The story, indeed, has something of the quality of Defoe's 'Colonel Jacque': it is filled with convincing details; and it tells not only of the career of the hero, but, by the way, of the achievements and the fates of his friends and accomplices. For most people, of course, the interest will lie in the sordid tale of a boy who saw on the street corners and in the saloons the swell thieves, and who easily fell into the belief that success in life was to be won by imitating them. For many of us in New York, however, the chief significance of the book is its reflection of the relations between Tammany and the under world of criminals. Here is another contribution to the mass of evidence which Josiah Flynt, on the one hand, and Mr. Jerome as District Attorney on the other, have been piling up.

Light-Fingered Jim took it for granted that Tammany was hand-in-glove with the criminal classes. In the first place, the thief talks about the system of "protection" just as he talks about saloons and gambling houses—matters of common knowledge, about the existence of which no one ever dreams of doubting. He was "shaken down" regularly. But if from motives of prudence the police were forced to make arrests, the "grafter" still had opportunities to get out of the toils, provided he or his friends had been wise enough to lay something by for a rainy day. The methods have often been exposed. The first step was to "fix" the police, whose memories would then suddenly fail; who could not surely identify the prisoner; whose minds grew hazy as to times and places. In case more desperate remedies were needed, the underground wires could reach the county offices, the grand jury, the petit jury, and even the bench itself. The thief ordered his whole life on the assumption that there was under Tammany a complete and elaborate system, from judge down to policeman, for taking care of "good" crooks.

Indeed, such a system is and must be an integral part of the Tammany plan. The Tammany crowd has always regarded the control of the city government as a money-making scheme. Croker was working for his own pocket all the time, and his followers have no conception of office except as a means to get rich, directly by drawing salaries, indirectly by every possible form of graft. Their imaginations are moved exactly as was that of Light-Fingered Jim, who says in speaking of his early ambition:

"A splendid sight one of these swell grafters was, as he stood before the bar, or smoked his cigar on the corner! Well dressed, with clean linen collar and shirt, a diamond in his tie, an air of ease and leisure all about him, what a contrast he formed to the respectable hod carrier, or truckman, or mechanic, with soiled clothes and no collar! And what a contrast was his dangerous life to that of the virtuous laborer! The result was that I grew to think the career of the grafter was the only one worth trying for. The real prizes of the world I knew nothing about. All that I saw of any interest to me was crooked, and so I began to pilfer right and left; there was nothing else for me to do."

Accordingly, as Mr. Hapgood says, "he went in for crime with energy and enthusiasm."

Exactly the same ambition impels the Tammany officeseeker. Here is a clean easy job, with plenty of pickings; it is much better than carrying the hod, driving a truck, or eking out a precarious existence as a shyster lawyer; and the Tammanyite starts in with energy and enthusiasm, as indifferent as Light-Fingered Jim himself to nice ethical considerations. It is this unity of ideals that makes it so easy for Tammany officeholders, from Mayor to policeman, to

get along with the "grafter." They understand each other perfectly; they can meet on common ground, without constraint on the one side or repugnance on the other. The average Tammany officer has no hesitation about helping the crook out of a scrape, and none about associating with him afterwards. The attitude of "Senator Wet Coin"—obviously Dry Dollar Sullivan—is typical. Of him Jim says:

"Senator Wet Coin made no pretensions to virtue; he never claimed to be better than others. But, in spite of the accusations against him, he has done far more for the public good than all the professional reformers, religious and other. He took many noted and professional criminals in the prime of their success and gave them positions, and by his influence kept them honest ever since. Some of them are high up, even run gin-mills to-day. I met one of them after my second bit (term of imprisonment), who used to make his thousands. Now he has a salary of eighteen dollars a week and is contented."

This easy *camaraderie* has its good side as well as its bad. Senator Wet Coin and the other district leaders have doubtless helped more than one crook to earn a fairly honest livelihood; and at the same time they have bound to them with hooks of steel all the crooks, regenerate and unregenerate; and they must stand and fall together.

THE GROWTH OF STEAM YACHTING.

So many steam yachts accompanied *Columbia*, *Constitution*, and *Reliance* in their contests in the Sound week before last, as to excite comment even among yachtsmen of experience. Because of the *America's* cup races the demand for yachts of all kinds and classes has been exceptionally great this spring. The splendid weather, too, has led to the commissioning of all pleasure craft earlier in the season than usual. As a result, the waters around New York are fairly teeming with yachts; and the racing season in the large and small clubs is well under way. It was evidenced by last week's ocean race of six large schooners for an Atlantic Yacht Club prize. But no development of American yachting is of more general interest than the great increase in the number of steam and power vessels. As a social phenomenon, and as an index to our national prosperity, it is well worth studying.

This development is clearly shown in the growth of the New York Yacht Club's steam fleet, which includes all those craft whose motive power is either gasolene, kerosene, or vapor engines. In 1890 the club book contained 80 such vessels; in 1890, 143; in 1900, 204; and in 1902 the number was swollen to 247. It is a striking fact that this growth has been in vessels of all sizes, and not merely in those of small dimensions. The largest steamer in 1890 was the ill-fated Vanderbilt cruiser *Alva*, 252 feet in length. There are now seven yachts measuring more than 300 feet in length, of which the largest, *Valiant*, belonging to Mr. W. K. Vanderbilt, has a gross tonnage of 1,823 tons. Each of them would rank well among the third-rate cruisers of the Federal navy, and would compare very favorably with the average transatlantic passenger steamer of the early eighties. In 1890 the number of the club's steamers between 100 and 200 feet of length was only forty-four. This figure had last year grown to 123, or 50 per cent. of the club's steam fleet.

Turning to the steam and power yachts listed in *Manning's Yacht Register* for 1903, we find no less than 526 of all sizes. *Lloyd's Register* contains 850 names of Canadian and American vessels in this class; but as it embraces many yachts which primarily depend upon their sails for their progress from port to port, the Manning list is the more useful for our present purpose. Upon it also are found the seven yachts over 300 feet in length, and in addition twenty-eight over 200 feet, and 205 of more than 100 feet length. All these are American-built, with the exception of forty, of which thirty-seven are products of English shipyards. Seventeen of the latter are credited to Mr. G. F. Watson alone, and fifty-two of the American boats to Herreshoff. The English vessels include nearly all the largest flying our yacht ensign—and it would therefore appear that the English builder still has the advantage in yacht-making, not only because of his comparative cheapness, but also on account of the greater experience of his designers.

Of the vessels described by Manning, seventy-two have motors in preference to steam engines. The present tendency of gasolene engines to displace the cumbrous steam machinery in boats under one hundred feet is, indeed, one of the most striking evolutions which this form of yachting is undergoing. In cheapness of construction, economy of fuel, ease of handling, as well as in saving of space, the gasolene or naphtha boat has the field almost to itself among small boats, particularly in cases where the cost of running is important, and where great speed is not a desideratum. But neither the popularity of this kind of craft, nor the Spanish war, is wholly responsible for the great increase in steam and power yachts since 1895. While a good many old yachts were worked off on the Government at fabulous prices in 1898, the great prosperity which the country has enjoyed is the prime cause of the addition of 212 new vessels since 1895. In times of financial distress the yacht basins are full of idle boats whose owners cannot afford to commission them, and in all such periods the number of pleasure craft to find their way into the plebeian merchant fleet is perceptibly larger than in ordinary times. But fashions in yachts change; it is the modern yacht that counts. Each year added to a vessel's age decreases its value in a disproportionate ratio as compared with real estate or other property. There are therefore but few old vessels to be found in Manning's book, the oldest being the *Barracouta*, launched in the year 1869. Her contemporaries, never very numerous, have gone the way of all ships, or, under changed and commonplace names, are wearing out their bones in duties never contemplated by their builders and first owners.

In a recent article in the *Rudder*, Mr. W. P. Stephens brought out the fact that the American steam yacht owner has changed very much within the last decade. The *nouveau riche* novice of ten or fifteen years ago wanted great speed and all the comforts of home. His yacht was meant to remind him of a Saratoga or Long Branch caravansary, and it is not surprising that many costly yachts turned out to be practical failures. Now there are coming to be several distinct types, each born of special needs and contructed with some reference to the limitations of the sea and to the demands of the sport—if one may use this word in connection with mastless hulls and high-power engines. There is the ocean-going cruiser, which can enter all seas, with a sustained speed of eighteen knots, and which can stay out in any winds. Next there is the coast-cruising craft about 130 feet in length, luxurious and comfortable, and of no great speed. Still another type is the auxiliary, of ten or twelve knots under steam, with bona-fide masts and sails, and capable of fair speed when under canvas. Of this class *Aloha*, the beautiful square-rigged flagship of the Seawanhaka Yacht Club, is perhaps the best example. Finally, there has suddenly grown up the torpedo-boat or "ferry-boat" class, of low, mastless vessels of phenomenal speed, intended to bring their owners down the Hudson or the Sound to business with the speed of the average suburban train. Of this section of the fleet *Arrow*, *Vixen*, *Chicota*, *Zinganee*, *Niagara IV.*, are the leaders, just as *Vamoose* and *Now Then* were the pioneers.

Despite the efforts of the American Yacht Club, races between steam yachts have never come into fashion. They are essentially pleasure craft, representing millions and costing vast sums to maintain, with engines too expensive for reckless use. But they are here to stay, and are destined to show the American flag in more and more ports, whatever the fate of our merchant marine, and however dependent they may be upon the fluctuating prosperity of the country.

THE PALACE OF MINOS.—I.

CNOSSOS, April 24, 1903.

I came very near making a serious mistake by failing to visit Crete before returning definitively to America. The centre of gravity of Mycenæan art and civilization

has shifted with a vengeance from Mycenæ and Troy to Crete. One who would now study this great field must no longer content himself with working around the circumference. He must go to the centre. Even the less important sites in Crete are yielding rich results. At Palaiokastro, at the extreme eastern end of the island, Mr. Bosanquet, the Director of the British School at Athens, has this year found Mycenæan vases which in quantity and quality far surpass those so carefully collected and published by Furtwängler and Loeschke. This monumental publication is now reduced to the rank of a *Vorarbeit*.

Miss Boyd, our countrywoman, now known in Crete as well as she was formerly known in Greece for high character and devotion to a cause, has taken for herself a sphere of operations near the east end of the island where it narrows to something resembling an isthmus, of a breadth of less than eight miles. In the last three years she has contributed an honorable share to the contents of the museum at Herakleion. At present she is completing the cleaning of a minor Mycenæan palace on a hill called Gournia.

But the great leaders in the excavations of the present time are the two men who have been pioneers in Cretan exploration. Dr. Halbherr, now Professor of Epigraphy in the University at Rome, began explorations in Crete twenty years ago. One of his first achievements was the exploration of the cave on Mt. Ida, which yielded wonderful archaic bronzes along with great shields covered with bronze reliefs of Phœnician technique. Even one year earlier, in 1884, he discovered the great Gortynian law code, by far the longest of Greek archaic inscriptions yet brought to light. In the early nineties, at the suggestion of the late Professor Merriam, who seems to have had a clear vision of what was coming, he was chosen to conduct explorations in Crete in behalf of the Archæological Institute of America. The results of this journey from one end of the island to the other were encouraging for greater undertakings. When one sees this young-looking, clean-cut, lively, and in the highest degree affable man, one can hardly believe that he is the pioneer of whom we have heard so much. Arthur Evans came later into the field, being drawn to Crete in 1894 by his interest in certain pre-Phœnician alphabetic signs, which he believed had their origin in the eastern part of the island among the Eteocretans. In his extensive journey no place arrested his attention so powerfully as Cnossos, which yielded a considerable number of these signs. Those were the days of tyranny and unrest in Crete, when no great excavation enterprise could be undertaken; but Evans was wise in his day and generation. The slight excavations which had been made on the site of Cnossos sixteen years earlier, by a native Cretan, convinced him that a part of the famous palace of Minos had been discovered. Indeed, W. J. Stillman had nearly come to this conclusion somewhat earlier. Evans's wisdom took practical shape in the gradual purchase of the greater part of the land which covered the ruins. In 1897 the storm burst out, and, after nearly two years of violence and bloodshed, came a settled government; then there was a great rush of archæologists to Crete. Evans was found securely seated in the saddle. Never were startling results more quickly reached than in his first campaign. To his wisdom was joined the most wonderful luck. Over a wide area he had to deal with only a few feet of earth before he came to the most important discoveries. The wonder grows that so much could have been left when the tops of great gypsum blocks of the palace were actually protruding out of the ground. The explanation is, that there was so much here that the unsystematic plundering of ages had not been able to get it all.

On reaching Herakleion by the Austrian Lloyd boat we were fortunate in finding Mr. Evans in town. It was Sunday, and on that day he rests from his work at Cnossos, four miles away, and passes the time in his city residence, a capacious and comfortable Turkish house. Rent is so cheap in this largest city of Crete that both his city house and his country house cost only about half the rent of a shanty in the neighborhood of New York. He does not come to the city for inglorious ease. Sunday serves his purpose for carrying along his process of converting prehistoric areas into fields of luminous history. He spent the greater part of the afternoon in showing us around the museum, where we saw, not altogether superficially, although of course hastily, the principal contents. Professor Halbherr also was in town, but we did not meet him until ten days later. He has selected his sphere of influence near the place of his first triumph, at Gortyna, and, after excavating the great palace of Phaistos, he is now uncovering a smaller palace, about four miles distant, by the seashore. He had interrupted his work for Easter, and as the Greek Easter came in the following week, when most of the days are holidays, he was making a pause of two weeks. Evans's workmen are largely Mohammedans, and so he works right through both weeks.

Reserving the more minute examination of the museum and the survey of Evans's great work at Cnossos for the last, we, three of us, with a Turk for a guide, so picturesque in his gay but somewhat soiled attire that he reminded me constantly of Sancho Panza, set out on an eight days' ride through the island. One who will see Crete must get into the saddle, for there are no carriage roads, except one from Herakleion to Cnossos, and another, of about equal length, from Suda Bay to Canea, the capital. I resist the temptation to describe those glorious eight days of travel, because my subject is too large without that. I will speak only of Mycenæan remains which must be compared with those of Cnossos.

Our first goal was the region where Halbherr has accomplished so much. We went straight across the island at its broadest part, with comparatively little climbing, keeping between the high mountains, Ida and Dicte. Under the new régime of Prince George, from which great things are expected, there is talk of a railroad being laid out somewhere near the line which we followed. Towards evening we came to the village of Hagii Deka (named after the ten saints who are said to have suffered martyrdom here under Decius, and who have a circular precinct dedicated to them in the middle of the village), lying among the ruins of Gortyna, which in classical and especially in Roman times was a great city, second only to Cnossos. We had just time before dark to get a good look at the famous inscription. The next day we spent among Halbherr's preserves, going first to the farthest point, Hagia Triada, where lies the small palace now being uncovered. Our host Manoli (a nickname for Emmanuel), the representative of the family which has entertained all the strangers who have passed that way for the last forty years, insisted on going with us, and took the Mohammedan guide in tow as if he were of no consequence whatever. Manoli is quite a character; he is the owner of the famous mill which made the study of the law code so difficult, and claims to be the real discoverer of the inscription; at any rate, he has had influence enough to block the efforts of archæologists to get possession of the mill and its surroundings. With his fine horse he set a pace that was rather hard to follow. It seems that he went along partly as a protector of the Mohammedan, who groaned inwardly and sometimes outwardly as we passed Mohammedan villages destroyed by the Christians in 1897-98. In our whole journey we passed about a hundred such villages, and it is no wonder that Hassan groaned. He was not abused anywhere, but he was not treated very cordially. Manoli asked us to tell Evans "to send him no more Mohammedans."

Arrived at Hagia Triada we found a Mycenæan palace, which Halbherr regards as a suburban villa, already pretty well cleared. We missed his personal guidance, but took abundant time to see for ourselves. The complexus of rooms climbs the slope of a low hill, and so has flights of steps and indications of upper stories. So far as one can now judge, the whole considerably surpasses in size the royal palace at Mycenæ. The walls are stuccoed and frescoed; baths abound. Although some of the more important finds had been transferred to Herakleion, quantities of Mycenæan pottery and some of still older date lay in heaps upon the ground. One feature of the recent finds was a great quantity of clay seals, several of which lay in a little pile on the stump of a column. The guard referred to these as "broken bits." One of them, with a Mycenæan woman wearing the flounced skirt so long known from the seal ring found at Mycenæ, which bears also the double axe, was so fine that I wanted to put it in my pocket or else ask the guard to give it to me as "a broken bit"; but, vacillating between the two courses, I finally left it lying there. An archæologist subsequently told me that I was the second man whom he had met who seemed to have a conscience in such matters.

Of the objects recently brought from Hagia Triada into the museum at Herakleion may be mentioned eleven great plaques of bronze about two inches thick, with concave sides and ends. I did not ascertain their weight, but they are commonly believed to be ancient talents. With such money one would be safe from pickpockets, who could not easily make away with pieces of money that weighed at least ten or fifteen pounds apiece. Another attractive object is a small black vase, on which stands erect a ruler with his sceptre, which he strikes on the ground, as if in wrath, while a man, apparently a leader of his forces, stands before him with slightly bowed head as if receiving orders from his superior. Behind the captain stands the army, represented by three men covered by

one enormous shield, which is probably meant for three, that allows only the heads and feet of the warriors to appear. The execution is not particularly fine, but the attitude and expression of king and captain are very effective.

A ride of a little over half an hour brought us to Phaistos, on a high hill somewhat lower than others intervening between it and the sea, which appears, however, in the gaps between them. It is a commanding situation, and was chosen as overlooking the great plain, Messara, which runs deep into the island some thirty miles. This plain, which we traversed lengthwise nearly all the next day, is clearly a lake bottom between the backbone of the island over which we had already come and a narrow chain of high mountains running parallel to it on the south side, shutting it off from the sea. This character of a lake bottom appeared most plainly as we got our first sight of it, coming from Herakleion. The water ultimately forced its way out into the sea by Hagia Triada. That this great plain, the largest in Crete, could have been the permanent property of two cities, Gortyna and Phaistos, is unlikely. Until some clear traces of Mycenæan remains are found at Gortyna, we may be sure that Phaistos was the first in control, and that Gortyna supplanted it, much as Argos supplanted Mycenæ. The fact that Epimenides came from Phaistos to purify and pacify troubled Athens would seem to indicate that the city at that early date had a long period of settled tranquillity behind it. The palace itself, however, is the most eloquent witness to the power that was enthroned there. It extends approximately three hundred feet in each direction, so that beside it the palace of Mycenæ is dwarfed. We shall doubtless continue to use the term Mycenæan from the simple accident that Mycenæ was the first city of the period to be brought to light. Its importance was also increased by the lucky discovery of its royal graves. Should the royal graves of Phaistos or Cnossus some day be found, even that preëminence will be taken from it, and it might be deemed worthy of some vassal of the kings who dwelt in these stately palaces.

Everything in the palace of Phaistos is on a grand scale: the corridors are broad, the courts are spacious, the traces of a second story are abundant. Under the present form of the palace may be seen traces of an earlier one, which can hardly be dated later than 2000 B. C. Among the many interesting objects found in the palace of Phaistos may be mentioned the upper part of a vase, I should say of gray alabaster, with a band of figures carved upon it, representing, as Halbherr thinks, a band of warriors, though most people seem to believe that it is a harvest festival. The musicians who lead the procession are beautifully carved, and have a wonderful expression of animation. There is no choicer gem in the museum at Herakleion.

RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

WATTEAU.

PARIS, May 20.

The painter Watteau may be called one of the most characteristic exponents of French art in its most graceful form. It is impossible even for those who are only slightly familiar with the French art of the past century not to recognize at first sight a picture or a drawing by Watteau. Those who admire his work will read with interest and pleasure his biography, which has just been written by M. Virgile Josz. This author, without any preface, transports us at once to Valenciennes, the birthplace of Watteau, one of those northern towns touched by a ray of Flemish art, of the art of Antwerp, Bruges, Brussels, and Ghent. The Watteaus were burghers of the town; Jean Antoine was born there on the 10th of October, 1684. He proved too weak to adopt a manual occupation requiring strength, and entered as a boy the studio of a painter of Valenciennes, now quite unknown, named Gérin, and profited by his instruction for three years. His father died in 1702, and he was left alone at the age of eighteen. He set out for Paris in quest of fortune, and found work at the house of a man who sold little devotional portraits and objects, which were manufactured by the dozen. Some young apprentices painted the skies, others the heads, the draperies, etc. (There are to this day manufactures of such devotional pictures, which have a large market.) Young Watteau had a specialty: he was so accustomed to a particular saint that he afterwards told a friend, "I know my Saint Nicholas by heart." For this tedious work he received three livres at the end of the week, but he was allowed soup every day.

He made the acquaintance of a painter who was not much more fortunate than himself, Jean Jacques Spoëde, commonly called Sponde, who became his intimate friend. He also got acquainted with Gillot, whose name is still remembered, and who is generally considered the real master of Watteau. Watteau really had no master, but Gillot familiarized him with the Italian Theatre and with those Italian types, Harlequin, Pantaloon, Trivelin, etc., which became his favorites. After some time Gillot and Watteau quarrelled. "Never," says Gersaint, "were there more similar characters; but as they had the same defects, never were there more incompatible characters." Caylus adds: "They separated on bad terms, and all the gratitude which Watteau could show his master during the remainder of his life reduced itself to profound silence; he did not like people to inquire particularly about their friendship and their rupture. As to his works, he praised them and did not deny the obligations he was under to him." Watteau went to live in the Petit-Luxembourg with Audran, an artist and a decorator, and helped him in his work; he painted at the time four panels, which were a few years ago in a hôtel in the Rue de Poitiers: The Faun; Folly; Momus; The Toper. At a recent sale two of these panels fetched a high price.

Watteau had now found his manner; he was a decorator as well as a painter. To this period belongs one of his masterpieces, "Le Dénicheur de Moineaux." While he was at the Luxembourg he could study at ease the magnificent pictures of Rubens in the great gallery, and he became a colorist. In 1709 he sent a picture for the *Grand Prix de Rome*, but did not obtain it. He was much discouraged and left for Valenciennes in disgust. He then painted some military scenes, but after a while he returned to Paris. He was twenty-seven years old, and was in bad health. He fortunately this time found a picture dealer who recognized and valued his extraordinary talent, and who made life easy for him. There are few great painters nowadays who do not in the early part of their life owe to some intelligent picture dealer the ease of mind necessary for quiet production. The name of this providential dealer who assisted Watteau was Sirois, who lived in the Quai Neuf. Watteau, just returned from Flanders, where war was raging, painted first for him two military scenes, "Camp volant" (engraved by Cochin), and the "Détachement faisant Alte" (*Alte* is on the engraving for *halte*). He afterwards painted "Retour de Campagne."

At Sirois's, Watteau fortunately made the acquaintance of Mariette, so famous among artists and amateurs. Delivered from the daily cares of life, Watteau could follow the impulse of his individual genius; he cared very little for money, he cared chiefly for independence, and he now felt independent. It was also at Sirois's that Watteau became acquainted with Lesage, who had already given to the stage "Crispin rival de son maître," "Turcaret," a play which is still in the repertory of the French Theatre, and who was putting the last touches to the famous "Histoire de Gil Blas de Santillane." We read in a letter from Sirois:

> "This original [meaning Watteau], who makes pictures as freely as Monsieur Lesage makes comedies and books, with the difference that Monsieur Lesage is sometimes satisfied with his books and comedies, and that the poor Watteau is never satisfied with his pictures (which does not hinder him from being one of the present kings of the brush), has promised to paint for me a 'Festa de la Foire,' on which I have advanced him a hundred livres of the three hundred livres we bargained for. It will be his masterpiece if he puts the last touch to it; but if he is seized again by his black devils, we may say good-bye to the *chef d'œuvre*. The doctor has put him on a regimen of quinine."

In the same letter we are informed that Watteau was painting two scenes from the 'Diable Boiteux' at the price of one hundred and thirty livres each. These two pictures have never been seen in our time; perhaps they never were painted.

It was a piece of good fortune for Watteau to make the acquaintance of the famous collector Crozat, so well known to this day by his admirable collections. Crozat built a house on land, then deserted, where the great boulevards of Paris now extend; he filled it with marvellous works of art, pictures, busts, bronzes, drawings by the great masters. Though he was a contractor, he was a good and generous man; he took an interest in Watteau, and gave him orders. Watteau painted for him the "Seasons" (all four of which have been engraved) on panels.

In 1712, Watteau, urged by his friends, decided to become a candidate for the Academy of Fine Arts. He was obliged to paint a picture on a given subject, but he did not put his hand to it for several years. He found a new patron in M. de Jullienne, who afterwards consecrated a real fortune, four hundred thousand livres, to build a monument to the painter—four volumes containing each six hundred engravings. This rare book has for its title 'L'Œuvre d'Antoine Watteau, peintre du Roy en son Académie Royale de peinture et de sculpture, gravi d'après ses tableaux et dessins originaux, tirés du cabinet du Roy et des plus curieux

de l'Europe, par les soins de M. de Jullienne à Paris.' There were only a hundred copies of these four admirable folios. Watteau twice painted the portrait of Jullienne, his great admirer. One of these portraits is now in the collection of M. Groult, which contain so many masterpieces and is open only to the "happy few." It has been well engraved by Champollion.

Watteau had among his pupils Pater and Lancret, but Lancret soon took a line of his own; he became essentially a realistic—it may be said a domestic—painter, while Watteau remained always poetical and imaginative, even when he painted scenes of ordinary life. Crozat was so impressed by the talent of Watteau that he finally gave him a place in his own hôtel; it was just the sort of decoration which suited the talent of Watteau. He had no more cares; he was surrounded by beautiful works of art, brought by Crozat from Italy; he lived in a sort of dream; and his genius felt the effect of all this ease and beauty. He heard the best of music in the concerts given by Crozat. This was the period of the "Flûteur" (in the Groult collection), of the "Guitariste" (now in the Museum of Vienna), of the "Concert" (belonging to the Emperor of Germany), of the "Leçon de Musique" (in the Wallace collection). Crozat had a magnificent collection of drawings by the old masters, and this probably led Watteau to make many drawings himself—mere studies, which were not always intended to serve for large paintings. Generally made *à la sanguine*, with a red pencil, these drawings would suffice to make him famous. They are the real expression of all his thoughts, his admirations, and his dreams. They are not signed, but it is impossible not to recognize them at first sight. Jullienne said of them: "We hope the public will view with favor the drawings of the celebrated Watteau. They are conceived in a novel spirit; they have graces so allied to the mind of the author that we can safety say they are inimitable." Voltaire, on the contrary, wrote: "Watteau is a Flemish painter who worked in Paris, where he died a few years ago. He was successful in the little figures which he drew and which he grouped well; but he never did anything great; he was incapable of it."

Among the drawings left by Watteau to M. de Jullienne there is one which is his own portrait. He is represented with a pencil in his hand, sitting on a portfolio. Rosalba made a portrait of him which has been lost. In the portrait given to M. de Jullienne, Watteau has a sad, melancholy expression; his health was delicate; he could not stay long anywhere. He left the home of Crozat and returned to that of his father-in-law; he liked an independent life, and was fond of obscurity. The noise of Crozat's house fatigued him. He liked to walk for hours on the quays of the Seine. He was of an unstable disposition; he made rapid journeys to Italy, to London, where he painted pictures for a Doctor Mead. He remained about a year in London, from 1719 to 1720. On his return to Paris he painted several pictures, though his health was failing; he had conceived a sort of horror for the town, and spent most of his time in the neighborhood and the faubourgs of the capital. He longed to return to Valenciennes. Jullienne made a sale of his effects, which produced 3,000 livres. Immediately after, the painter was seized with a chill, and died in the month of August, 1721. The *Mercure* inserted this note: "The Fine Arts have suffered a great loss in the person of the Sieur Watteau, professor at the Royal Academy of Painting, who died of consumption at the age of thirty-seven, an age fatal to painting. The famous Raphael of Urbino and Eustache Le Sueur died at that age."

Correspondence.

COLONIAL LOVE OF TITLES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the review of Willison's Life of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, at least one sentence occurs which calls for comment. It is this:

"The political cable which binds Canada to the Imperial country has, by successive concessions of self-government, been worn to the last strand; and of that strand about the strongest thread is the extraordinary craving of Colonials for Imperial titles and decorations."

If this statement were solitary, I should not have noticed it, but it crops up constantly in some shape or other in the most intelligent discussions of our affairs in American journals and more deliberate works. It is not only incorrect, grotesquely incorrect, but the very opposite might be maintained. It was not in the days of the Family Compact, not in the time of direct government from Downing Street, not even in the agony of the Great Mutiny, but in the later crisis of national defeat, in the era of the "last strand," that Canadians volunteered by the thousands to fight the battles of the Empire. Your reviewer may think what he pleases of the war, but to commit himself to such an opinion in view of the history of the last three years is to show either ignorance or inability to interpret plain facts.

Again, such a statement will be felt by most Canadians like a slap in the face. There are some five millions of us; there may be some few hundred titles. How many "Colonials" can be ordering their lives to secure a title? How many who win them are sufficiently influential to be considered a "thread" in the "last strand"? Strange as it may seem, there have even been notable Canadians who have refused titles and have been applauded for so doing. Knowing something of both Canada and the United States, I have no hesitation in stating that in some respects Canada is the more truly democratic country of the two.

Your reviewer is to be congratulated upon his mysterious Machiavelli, the unnamed "low agent of the South African Company," who seduced the upright Sir Wilfrid. This most potent villain seems to have entered on the stage of Canadian politics direct from a romance by Dumas or Eugène Sue.—I am, sir, yours, etc.,

Archibald MacMechan.

Gananoque, Ontario, May 26, 1903.

[If a number of young Canadians joined the British army for the South African war, a far larger number enlisted in the army of the United States for the war of secession. The martial impulse, whatever its source or inducements, could hardly be deemed a "strand" in the permanent cable of political connection which has been attenuated by successive concessions of self-government.

The influence of titles and decorations and of the power of bestowing them in British politics is notorious. It appears to be still greater in the colonies. The other day, in Canada, Imperial decorations were solicited and received for an encounter with Fenians which took place in 1866. The *Canadian Almanack* gives a list of "Titled Canadians" forming a sort of miniature peerage. This is hardly "democratic." Some years ago, Mr. Edgar, afterwards Speaker of the Dominion Parliament, brought forward a motion against the prodigal use of Imperial titles, saying that he had a "strong prejudice against Canadians holding titles which did not directly or indirectly come from the Canadian people." Mr. Edgar afterwards himself accepted a title, thereby perhaps illustrating in his own person the force of the attraction.

If Mr. MacMechan doubts that an agent of the South African Company was busy at Ottawa and found access to the Premier, a little inquiry will probably dispel his doubt.—The Nation's Reviewer.]

THE MACABEBES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was interested in your editorial on Commissioner Ide's talk. Are you not, however, mistaken as to the native troops being "nearly all Macabebes"? There are perhaps 8,000 Philippine scouts attached to the regular army. Among them are respectively more Ilocanos, Tagalogs, and Visayans than Macabebes, while the other Christianized tribes are also represented. The Macabebes are only the people of one town and its outlying barrios in the lower part of Pampanga province, and, at a guess, there are not over 2,000 able-bodied men of military age among them. Your editorial gives the inference that the constabulary, the native police force of the civil Government, contains Macabebes. The last I knew of it personally it did not, unless they were stray members, and I think it safe to say it does not now and will not contain Macabebes.—Very truly yours,

James A. Le Roy.

Santa Fé, N. M., May 28, 1903.

MEMOIRS OF THE BROOKLYN INSTITUTE MUSEUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your kind notice of Memoir No. 2, on "The Architectural Refinements of St. Mark's at Venice," in the series of Memoirs of Art and Archæology now in course of publication by Macmillan for the Brooklyn Institute Museum, has come to my attention. Your suggestion is especially noted and gratefully appreciated, that a monumental and complete publication on the mediæval architectural refinements is to be desired.

Will you kindly allow me to say that subscribers to these Museum Memoirs will

to some extent at least (if my life is spared) be able to obtain for themselves such a complete publication? Although these Memoirs are simply announced, so far, as serial publications, appearing at irregular intervals, and although the one you have just noticed, on St. Mark's at Venice, is the first of any great extent, they are intended to form a connected publication, the parts of which may be bound together in one or more volumes, and which will supply such a complete publication as you suggest.

This explanation anticipates the issue of a circular by the Macmillan Co. calling attention to the two memoirs already published, and announcing others as in preparation. As I have absolutely no financial interest in these publications, which are made in the cause of archæologic science, and as part of my routine work as a curator in the Brooklyn Museum, I trust that you will publish this announcement, which is made on behalf of the Director of our Museum, and by his authority.

Very truly yours, WM. H. GOODYEAR.

BROOKLYN MUSEUM, May 30, 1903.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. have in preparation a translation of Bismarck's Letters to his wife during the war of 1870-71, which have just appeared in Berlin.

For current issue Charles Scribner's Sons promise 'Our Feathered Game: A Handbook for Sportsmen,' by Dwight W. Huntington; 'Introduction to Classical Greek Literature,' by Prof. William Cranston Lawton; 'Our Government, National and Local,' by Profs. James A. James and Albert H. Sanford; 'Intarsia and Marquetry,' by F. Hamilton Jackson, and 'The New Life' of Dante, containing the Italian text with an English translation, edited by Luigi Ricci.

Macmillan Co. publish directly 'The United States' volume in the Cambridge Modern History series, and announce for the autumn a biography of John Fiske; 'Boston, the Place and the People,' by M. A. DeWolfe Howe; and the first two volumes of Herbert W. Paul's 'History of Modern England.'

John Lane is about to publish Shakspere's Poems in one volume, uniform with the thirty-six volumes of the Vale Press edition of the Plays; 'Life in the Mercantile Marine,' by Charles Protheroe; and a new and revised edition of Dr. Richard Garnett's 'Twilight of the Gods.'

'German Ambitions as They Affect Britain and the United States of America' is an immediate addition to Messrs. Putnam's "Questions of the Day" series.

'Mr. Chamberlain: His Life and Public Career,' by S. H. Jeyes, is in the press of E. J. Clode, No. 156 Fifth Avenue.

Professor Hoppin's book, 'Great Epochs in Art History,' was duly reviewed in these columns a year and a half ago. A second edition (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) shows that the subjects treated have a general interest, and that the treatment of them has given pleasure to many readers. It appears that the book has not been changed since the first edition, except in having been carefully revised. As we turn the pages anew we note the very interesting discussion of sacred, or religious, or Biblical painting which comes naturally into the article on "Italian Religious Painting." A singular confession of timidity and lack of artistic purpose is put into the mouth of the Englishman Millais (p. 51), and a more extended examination of this paper reveals a great deal of that most important knowledge for the traveller—the information given by guide-books modified by the reasons for choice of place to visit, choice of paintings to study, and choice of masters to follow.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn's second monograph on the Concord philosophers, 'The Personality of Emerson' (Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed), is again an equal revelation of his own personality and personal history, which supplies the chronological progression of an otherwise rambling discourse, with some repetitiousness. The lights and sidelights on Emerson, however, are numerous, and the essay will be prized. There are some instances of Emerson's not happy judgment on his own verse in emendation or omission upon republication. The story, which he refused to believe, of John Adams's calling Washington a dolt recalls an anecdote, perhaps relating to a different occasion, of Adams's saying of the Father of his Country, "That old muttonhead made his reputation by keeping his mouth shut." Neither true, nor handsome; but such were the animosities of the time. The book is elegantly printed, but the Scott portrait, so highly praised by Mr. Sanborn, should have been better engraved or simply photographed. Compare, for example, the fine photograph (from life) prefixed to the second edition of Mr. John Albee's 'Reminiscences of Emerson' which we praised two years ago (New York: Robert Grier Cook).

We are tardy in noticing, with the praise which it deserves, Alice Bertha Kroeger's 'Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books,' one of the A. L. A. series of Annotated Lists (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It passes in review the best encyclopædias, dictionaries, concordances, year-books, anthologies, etc., etc., in a classification which is made readily available by an exhaustive index of twenty pages in triple columns. Here one may find the books which indicate the best reading for children, and at the end a suggestive list of 100 reference books for a small library. There is frequent evaluation of the works enumerated, original or selected from critical authorities, and a helpful discourse relieves the barrenness of a bare catalogue. Librarians liable to be pestered by recurrent questions—as from school children set to investigate some subject—are recommended to keep their answers in readiness for fresh use; and we are told that "in many public libraries it is necessary to keep a card index of titles of poems" to meet inquiries.

'Gleanings of Virginia History,' by William Fletcher Boogher (Washington), is made up partly of notes and documents of the Colonial and Revolutionary period, and partly of genealogical records of well-known Virginian families. For students of Virginian history and genealogy it should have considerable interest, and it has the merit of being carefully indexed.

The Proceedings of the Vermont Historical Society for 1901-2, while they reveal the inert condition of this institution, possess no little intrinsic interest. There is a biographical sketch of the late Benjamin F. Stevens, with a portrait like enough to the late Charles A. Dana; a paper, by Dr. D. S. Kellogg, pretty well fortified, on "Early Mention of Events and Places in the Valley of Lake Champlain," and another, justifiably laudatory, on "Ethan Allen's Use of Language." This forcible if ungrammatical writer, speaking, in one of his pamphlets, of the lynching of the agents of the land-jobbers, says the Green Mountain Boys "chastised them with the whips of the wilderness, *the growth of the land which they coveted.*"

There is no lack of vitality in the Virginia Historical Society, to judge from the April number of its *Virginia Magazine*, completing the tenth volume. Publication from the State archives proceeds copiously along with Mr. Withington's "Virginia Gleanings in England," including Mr. Waters's unpublished store for this colony, and a further account of the Farrar Papers at Magdalene College, Cambridge, with a facsimile of John Poey's autograph, 1619, he being the Secretary of Virginia and Speaker of the first House of Burgesses. The John Brown correspondence is continued, and contains two sound prophecies from opposite sides—one, of the condemned Copeland, Brown's associate—"It is true that the outbreak at Harper's Ferry did not give immediate freedom to the slaves of this country, but it is the prelude to that great event"; the other, of one Snow, a Kentuckian with a very heated imagination, in Detroit, telling of plans to liberate Brown—"Unless the South is warned and armed in time, we shall have one of the most terrific civil wars that ever disgraced the annals of history, ancient or modern." We remark further a ghost story on page 437 which is accredited as telepathic by reference to "the art of photography and wireless telegraphy in the physical world." Finally, we must draw attention to the frontispiece view of "Bewley," in Lancaster Co., Va., the seat of the Ball family, a fine and individual specimen of Southern architecture, with an unusual double rank of dormer windows in the high-pitched roof. The detached servants' quarters add to the picturesqueness of the view.

From Randolph-Macon College comes in final form the annual publication of "The John P. Branch Historical Papers" (No. 3), consisting of "short biographical sketches of men who have had great influence in shaping Virginia's history," almost exclusively prepared by college students. This is an interesting experiment and must furnish excellent discipline. It is announced that the historical resources of the college library are inadequate, and friendly aid in repairing this deficiency is bespoken by the editor, Prof. William E. Dodd. Ritchie of the *Richmond Inquirer* of ante-bellum days, and Secretary Upshur, one of the victims of the gun explosion on the *Princeton*, are among the notabilities commemorated in the present issue. George Mason and George C. Dromgoole will figure in next year's. Some inedited historical matter, chiefly correspondence, ekes out a pamphlet of 100 pages.

The twenty-seventh annual report of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts fitly opens with a memorial sketch of the late director, Gen. Charles Greely Loring. His successor, Mr. Edward Robinson, and his associates have to tell of the creation of a

department of Egyptian Art, with a full curator, more than half the collection of antiquities proceeding from the Egypt Exploration Fund; of the appointment of an assistant curator of classical antiquities, and of a keeper of paintings, who has rearranged the galleries most satisfactorily; of the loss, also, by ill-health, of the curator of the department of Japanese art. His colleague, Professor Morse, keeper of Japanese pottery, announces that the Museum's duplicate collection, "in provinces, potters, and signatures, far outnumbers the largest collections of Japanese pottery in Europe as represented by their published catalogues." The chief addition to the paintings has been a small canvas by Paul Veronese; but a painting heretofore ascribed to Rembrandt and bearing his name and date seems, after removal of the varnish, convincingly his. A notable bequest has been the William Arnold Buffum collection of objects in amber; and by the courtesy of the Berlin Museum a full-size cast of the Colleoni equestrian statue in Venice has been procurable by a private donor. The curator of the print department calls attention to its collection of 3,400 Daumier lithographs.

The annual report of the curators of the Bodleian Library tells of recent purchases having given this institution "an entirely new and important position as a depository of Sanskrit MSS. of high antiquity"; also, the earliest signature of Sir Thomas Bodley which the library possesses; and, most singular of all, "the first and fourth leaves of the Life of S. Petronylla, printed by Richard Pinson about 1495. The Library already possessed the second and third leaves among the 'Douce fragments'; the purchase of these other two makes the work complete; it is not in the British Museum." Attention may be drawn to the acme of close yet accessible storage devised in the Old Ashmolean basement, which was "divided into two storeys, with an open iron lattice-work floor, and fitted up with iron wheeling cases, which were filled with closed sections of fiction removed from the Bodleian and Sheldonian basement."

"The Restoration of the Ancient Irrigation Works on the Tigris; or, the Recreation of Chaldea," was the subject of an address before the Khedivial Geographical Society by Sir William Willcocks recently published in Cairo. With plans and diagrams are described the two great irrigation systems of the ancients on either bank of the river, which, in a length of some 240 miles, must have sufficed to irrigate nearly 2,000,000 acres of extremely fertile but now waste land. Sir William ascribes their ruin not to the devastations of barbarians, but to the sudden shifting of the bed of the Tigris. According to Arrian, however, many of the irrigation dams were cut by Alexander in order to improve the navigation of the river. Among historical allusions is the interesting suggestion that "Nebuchadnezzar erected his golden image probably to commemorate a thorough restoration" of the Nahrwân Canal. While much of the Mesopotamian land has become too saline to repay any outlay on its improvement, there still remain some 2,800,000 acres which might profitably be reclaimed and cultivated. The expense of canalization, earthworks, and weirs is estimated at $100,000,000, but it is believed that the return would be $300,000,000. "These figures may seem large," the lecturer adds, "but we are in one of the most famous agricultural tracts in the world, a tract whose past history justifies us in expecting that great results will follow if we bring to the solution of our problems the same wisdom which the wise men of Chaldea brought to the problems of their day."

The *Annales de Géographie* for May opens with an appreciative and extended notice of Mr. F. S. Hall's census report on the localization of industries in the United States. The report's peculiar interest to the student lies in its enabling him to measure the influence of the historic factor in "human geography." In America, "we always know the date at which, the form under which, this historic factor has manifested itself. We know that in such a year [1750] a Welsh shoemaker laid the foundation of his industry at Lynn; we know exactly when the first refrigerator car left the stock-yards of Chicago for the port of Boston, and what has been the influence of this new fact on the localization of meat-packing." The other important articles are upon the régime of the Vistula, and the Sahara Oranais in southwestern Algeria. In this region are still to be found traces of the great Jewish population of the fifteenth century. Most of the inhabitants now are negroes, but it is uncertain whether they are the descendants of an aboriginal race or were brought thither as slaves. Professor A. Lacroix describes the last eruptions of St. Vincent in March, 1903, with some striking photographs.

An interesting ethnological experiment is the attempt which is being made in Germany to reawaken in the Jews their long-dormant love for the cultivation of the soil through an agricultural school. It was opened ten years ago at Ahlem, near Hanover, with nine pupils, who have now increased to more than one hundred, ninety-two boys and twenty-six girls. The instruction up to the age of fourteen is that of the elementary schools, and then follows, for the boys, a three years' course in horticulture and agriculture. According to Mr. Jay White, our consul at Hanover, "a number of the students after leaving Ahlem have found good positions as gardeners near New York and Philadelphia, and their employers are reported to be well satisfied with their services."

—The leading article of serious interest in the June *Scribner's* is Brig.-Gen. William H. Carter's account of the War Department, on the side of its military administration. The administration of civil government by the War Department is reserved for a future article by Judge Charles E. Magoon. Gen. Carter sketches the work of the Department rapidly from the beginning down to the present time, naturally dealing more fully with the past five years. He admits the failure to rise to the occasion at the beginning of the war with Spain. "Tampa will always be to the army and the people a synonym of blunder and reproach." He admits, also, that the army has not come unscathed out of the discussion of its conduct in the Philippines, but intimates quite clearly that continued Republican successes at the polls are sufficient to wipe out the stain. Noticeable is the apparent assumption that McKinley's actions after the disaster to the *Maine* were intended merely to gain time for preparation for an inevitable conflict, and not to secure a peaceful settlement; also, in the closing paragraph, the assumption that the great wave of prosperity which the country has enjoyed for the past few years is simply a result of the Spanish war—no particulars given. Edward Whymper contributes a well illustrated account of his adventures among the Canadian Rockies, in the Banff region, where he spent the summer of 1901, accompanied by four professional mountaineers from Europe. Russell Sturgis considers the proposed building for art exhibitions in New York city, pleading for such a structure as will furnish ample room for special exhibitions of individual societies, occasional general displays, and comfortable quarters for the various societies in their routine work as organizations.

—The *Century* and *Harper's* each have a morsel for the archæologist in their June *menu*. In the latter we have a detailed description of the methods by which the successive strata of Tel el-Jezair are being excavated and studied by Alexander Macalister, under the auspices of the Palestine Exploration Fund. The results indicate that six different cities have occupied the site, and that it became substantially a *tabula rasa* during each intervening period. The oldest occupation left a record of semi-savage conditions, showing no trace of the use of metals. In the second stratum, flint and bone implements and ornaments are mingled with copper and bronze. Rectangular houses were constructed, though of uncut stone. The third layer shows improvement in buildings, tools, and ornaments, presenting types which seem to relate it to the period of the middle empire in Egypt. The inhabitants of the second and third cities are supposed to have belonged to the earliest waves of Semitic immigration, the ancestors of the tribes in possession at the time of the Israelitish invasion. The fourth stratum shows traces of the use of iron, but in the art of building is not abreast of the third. Ægean influences appear in the pottery. The parts of the two upper strata so far uncovered are not of great importance, and further work is at present delayed by an outbreak of cholera. In the *Century*, Howard Crosby Butler describes the deserted cities of Northern Central Syria, a region about as large as the State of New York, which has been apparently almost entirely uninhabited for thirteen centuries, and as yet scarcely touched by modern explorers. The problem of the desertion of this region, after it had been for generations the seat of an advanced Greek and Roman civilization, Mr. Butler answers tentatively, but with considerable confidence, on the hypothesis of a wholesale destruction of its forests for timber, by which the soil was exposed to such disastrous erosion that it was finally abandoned.

—The pen of Goldwin Smith was never more effective than in his paper on the "Cult of Napoleon," in the June *Atlantic*. The world's debt to Napoleon is a vast recrudescence of militarism, with its attendant barbarities; Cæsarism, with its dead-level equality beneath the Cæsar in lieu of real freedom; above all, a "dazzling example of immoral success and renown." The one lasting benefit of his career is to be found in the fact that the final ruin of his schemes

cut away from his country the territorial accessions of the whole Revolutionary period, thus leaving France within bounds too narrow to endanger the balance of power. Oswald Garrison Villard contributes a paper on the "Negro in the Regular Army," showing from the facts of our own military history since the outbreak of the Rebellion that the negro can be depended upon as a courageous, intelligent, and loyal element in our armies. A notable fact in connection with apologies for lynching is the freedom of our colored troops in the Philippines from participation in the notorious water-torture. Dr. John Bascom writes of "Changes in College Life," devoting himself largely to the effects of the multitude of new studies which have been crowding into the college curricula during the past few decades. A key to much that he has to say in this line may be found in the words, "An institution whose ostensible purpose is to teach a young man anything he may wish to know, may mean an institution a large per cent. of whose members learn very little to any purpose." President Eliot's suggestive address at the Boston Emerson Centenary, as well as the ode for the same occasion by Professor Woodberry, is reproduced in this issue. The orator strains the comparison of Emersonian ideals with the recent trend in their direction, and in some particulars does not exalt his subject. A signal instance of this is his showing that Emerson twice, as an Overseer of Harvard College, voted against abolishing compulsory prayers. This is flatly unthinkable.

—The architecture of the Renaissance in England has been very fully covered in such admirable old books as Nash's 'Mansions' and of late in Gotch's monograph on the earlier part of the period, and in Belcher and McCartney's equally excellent work upon the latter part, and especially in Blomfield's History of the whole period; yet, curiously enough, no book has hitherto been devoted to the interior woodwork of the style, and this in spite of the fact that the woodwork is highly characteristic of its several periods. 'English Interior Woodwork of the XVIth, XVIIth, and XVIIIth Centuries,' by Henry Tanner, jr. (London: Batsford; New York: Scribner), was undertaken in order to exhibit the best examples of chimney-pieces, panelling, staircases, doors, screens, etc., by measured drawings and descriptive notes. The drawings are skilfully presented, and are made with such accuracy as to be of use not only to the student of the style, but to architects generally, and indeed to that ever-increasing class which takes a more than casual interest in architecture and the arts associated with it. The examples chosen illustrate the more important phases of the style, as, first, the very beautiful woodwork made by Italians in England at the time of Henry VIII., work which left singularly little impress on the native art; second, Elizabethan and Jacobean woodwork, in which classic models, coming by way of Germany and the Netherlands, were so perverted as often to be scarcely recognizable; third, work of the time when Inigo Jones rescued the style from its crudities, and when Wren carried it to its culminating point, when woodwork, adorned by the carvings of Grinling Gibbons, reached a higher level than ever before or since, in England. Mr. Tanner's book will hold an honorable position among those of the most serious character devoted to the architecture of the long period between the last of the Henrys and the first of the Georges.

—The great 'Dictionary of National Biography,' brought to its successful completion by Mr. Sidney Lee, has just been capped by a conformable volume called an "Index and Epitome" (London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan). The inconvenience of putting your hand on any one of sixty-six volumes in a split alphabet is already considerable, but a further labor awaits the attempt to track the desired personage, especially when the name is a common one and is illustrated by a great number of individuals. Again, we may be seeking a hasty identification, and must find our clue in incident or publication among, say, all the Joneses or Robinsons, or such of them as have the same prenomen. To bring the whole body of the Dictionary, then, within the compass of 1,456 pages effects at once an enormous saving in handling, and vastly facilitates comparison for the purposes just named. Inclusion and omission are revealed at a glance; and all those vexatious cross-references from titled name to family name have their sting deftly extracted by being lodged between two covers. Finally, there is the gain of having the sub-entries brought up into the main alphabet. Take at random the wood-engraver John Thompson (1785-1866). The article devoted to him in volume 56 includes his younger brother, Charles, and son, Charles Thurston. Both these were properly entered in the index to the volume in question; but in the "Index and Epitome" they are accorded the same independent prominence as John Thompson or any of the greatest names on England's beadroll. The result is a work of reference eminently desirable to possess apart from the major collection, since, with all the compression of particulars, "room has been found for all memorable achievements with the dates of their accomplishment, for titles of an author's chief books with dates of publication, for notices of scientific inventions, for dates of institution to offices, and detailed particulars of education." Each name has a reference to volume and page of the parent work. The reduction has had for its norm the proportion of 1 to 14, and has been remarkably carried out for the longer biographies. Leslie Stephen's compact Carlyle, for example, in thirty-four columns, is here condensed into half a column (of fine type). We must remind our readers once more that to a large extent this Dictionary embraces the elder American worthies, like Gov. Bradford and his namesake the New York and Philadelphia printer; Myles Standish, John Harvard, Roger Williams, the Mathers, the Winthrops, Thomas Hutchinson, Sir W. Pepperell, and many more.

—As we summon the nations to celebrate with us the centenary of the Louisiana Purchase, we are apt to forget that to one of the invited guests the anniversary recalls anything but cheerful memories. In the May number of *La España Moderna*, Sr. Jerónimo Becker, Archivist of the Ministry of State, gives the history of the cession from a Spanish point of view. He rehearses in detail the familiar story of the transfer of Louisiana to Spain in 1763, in compensation for the loss of Florida to England, and of the tricky bargain by which Napoleon recovered the Territory, with six men-of-war to boot, in return for the bestowal upon the Duke of Parma of the improvised "Kingdom of Etruria"; Napoleon pledging himself never to alienate the Territory to a third Power. According to Sr. Becker, Talleyrand even went so far as to assure the Spanish Government, in return for the sum of $1,000,000 duly paid and another million promised, that the cession was to be merely ostensible, and that Spain might keep her province, after all! Three years later, the unscrupulous First Consul had sold Louisiana to the Americans; the Americans were laying claim to the Floridas as a part of their purchase; and the "Kingdom of Etruria" was still dominated by French bayonets. No wonder that Sr. Becker calls our joyful anniversary "a very sad date." A curious sequel to the story is that, in 1815, the Spanish Ministry entertained hopes of regaining Louisiana by the action of the Congress of Vienna. Labrador, the Spanish emissary, was urged to make every effort for restitution. Of this project he easily saw the futility, but he devised an ingenious plan of recovery of his own. The English, he wrote on February 13, were now in possession of New Orleans (or so it was believed in Vienna), and thereby virtually in occupation of the entire Territory. Though they were bound by the Treaty of Ghent to respect the American possession of Louisiana, this must be distasteful to them, and perhaps they would prefer to hand it over to Spain. The Duke of Wellington, he added, had personally expressed his approval of this arrangement. Of course, when this scheme was broached at London, it led to nothing. Sr. Becker has not forgiven France, but he nowhere expresses any resentment at the conduct of America. A curious limitation in his treatment of the whole historical question is that he seems to regard it solely as a matter of diplomacy and of documentary title, and closes his eyes to the fact that, whether Spanish rulers and statesmen were weak or strong, foolish or wise, their authority within the present boundaries of the United States was inevitably destined to be swept away by the tide of American expansion.

A GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY OF THE MEDITERRANEAN EAST.

The Nearer East. By D. G. Hogarth, M.A., Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. London: William Heinemann; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

This volume forms one of a series of geographical handbooks to (or rather, perhaps, monographs on) different regions of the world, the first of which, that on the British Isles, by Mr. Mackinder, the editor of the series, was noticed in these columns a few months ago. The idea of the series is excellent. It is to present a compendious account of the physical phenomena of various parts of the earth's surface as an introduction to, and preparation for, the study of their history, describing each department of these phenomena with an eye to the influence which they have respectively exerted on the progress of the various races of man which have there grown up. Nothing is more characteristic of the new direction given both to history and to geography in our time than the sense

which has begun to pervade the students of each subject that the relation between them is intimate and pervasive. Geography is now rightly regarded as one of the foundations, and indeed the chief foundation, of history; history as the crown of geography, because it gives to geographical facts a deeper significance, and suggests aspects which geographers themselves had formerly overlooked. This point of view is rigorously adhered to in the present volume. Though more than four-fifths of it is occupied with matters which belong to the sphere of physical geography, it is not a treatise on physical geography, for it handles the facts of that science, not in and for themselves, but only in so far as they directly affect the life of man. Both in the scheme and in the execution of the book the clearness with which the writer has conceived his theme and the rigor with which he has adhered to the lines prescribed are conspicuous, and witness to the solidity of his mind.

The scheme has, however, some defects. To begin with, the area selected is an arbitrary one. It is not a natural area, *i. e.*, one clearly demarcated by natural boundaries, for it excludes the valley of the lower Danube, which cannot be separated from the Balkanic masses that bound it on the south; and it excludes Russian Transcaucasia, whose natural affinities are with the mountain lands that lie to the south of it. The omission of these two regions suggests that political limits have been regarded in the determination of the space covered by the book, and that the term "Nearer East" is meant to include only what may be called the Turkish and Persian East. Yet in point of fact the book does not include the whole Turkish East, for it omits (quite rightly from a geographical point of view) Tripoli, and it covers (also quite rightly) something more, viz., the kingdom of Greece. All divisions of the earth's surface which are not marked out by oceans must no doubt have a certain element of the arbitrary, but here the omission of Bulgaria and Transcaucasia is really unfortunate, when the ethnographic and political aspects of the subject are considered.

A more serious defect is in the distribution of the matter of the book. The "Nearer East" is divided into five districts: "The Balkans Belts," "The Asian Ascent" (Asia Minor), "The Central Upland" (Armenia and Persia), South Western Plains, Egypt. Each of these is treated separately under the head of area and position, again under the head of structure (*i. e.*, geological structure), again under the head of climate, again (in Part II,) under the heads of "Distribution of Man," "Grouping," "Products," "Communications," and "Conditions of Life." The heads are ingenious and suggestive, but the general purpose would, we think, have been better served by beginning with a general view of the whole "Nearer East," then dealing with each of the five districts in all its physical aspects considered together, and finally connecting the treatment of the five by a broad and summary review of the area called the "Nearer East" as a whole. As it is, the reader is carried so often from one district to another that he finds it difficult to get a clear view of the physical conditions of each one of them and of the conditions of the whole area in their totality.

As will have been gathered from the outline we have given of its arrangement, the book is careful and thorough. The author knows a considerable part of the area, including Greece, Egypt, and Asia Minor, from personal observation. He has taken great pains to reach and profit by the best printed sources of information. He is diligent, learned, and accurate. He is scientific in the German sense of the word, and indeed so scientific as to be almost needlessly technical. The treatise is full of knowledge, solid, relevant, well digested, and stated with force and precision. It is, however, decidedly hard reading, partly, perhaps, because it is so concise, partly because the writer disdains what may be called the arts and graces of description. He assumes in his readers not only a good deal of knowledge, but also a capacity for extracting all the significance from his pregnant phrases. So a reader may call it either interesting or dry according to his own tastes and the measure of his own familiarity with the *præcognoscenda* of the subject. The latter half of the book, where man is dealt with, contains many suggestive passages, some of which are expressed with trenchant vigor. Take, for instance, this upon the Arab nomads:

"The distinguishing Bedawin characteristic is, in a word, that of his land, Meagreness. Meagreness of osseous, starved frame, short of stature, and doomed to early decay; meagreness of sensory faculties, eyes and ears dull of hearing and sight, except in tracking a foe; meagreness of mental qualities, issuing in unstable, shifty conscience, in easy cowardice, in absence of religion, in gusty passions, and in swift deterioration upon contact with civilization. The man of the Arabian desert is an ineffective animal, bad shot, bad rider, bad fighter, bad breeder, and, when brought out of his steppes, as bad a cultivator as a citizen; but for all that an attractive animal. Take him on his own high and open desert, the product of its keen air and clean, non-verminous soil. He has all the outward charm which purity of race and freedom from servitude and menial toil through many generations confer all over the world. His shape, his bearing, his social code are alike noble. A guest need not ask what relation there may be between his theory and his practice, nor try him long or hard, but, wandering as the Bedawin does, he may admire the simplicity, frugality, and patient obedience of successive camps, himself possessed by the indefinable exhilaration of the Waste. And should he wish to stay long in the desert, he must be sure he has in his own nature more than a little sympathy with indolent, unreflective quietism, the Eastern, not the Western, type of mind, which can empty itself at will of all thought and all desire of action."

These broad, sometimes half-paradoxical statements may need a little qualification, and may seem scarcely self-consistent; but they are illuminative to those who have only the conventional notion of the Arab, drawn from poetry or romance, or read into the narratives of the early Muslim conquests. So, too, the observations upon the Albanians and the Greeks are not only penetrating, but in the main just. There is no sentiment about the author's handling of these themes, and indeed when he comes to treat of the Christian population of Asiatic Turkey, he shows a deficiency of sympathy with their position that somewhat affects the value of his judgment. Seeing their faults, as a Western traveller naturally does, he seems to realize inadequately how hardly their misfortunes have borne on them, and the possibilities that might open before them if once the Turkish rule were removed. Not that he confines his view to the present. In one of the most instructive chapters of the book, that entitled "World Relation," he describes with great precision and insight the salient feature of the place which the "Nearer East" has come to hold during the last hundred, and still more distinctly during the last forty years. This region has become significant, not so much for its own intrinsic worth, which is at this moment comparatively slight (though capable of great development), as because it offers a land route from civilized and populous Europe to the Further East, populous, productive, and either possessed by, or overshadowed by, great European Powers. It is, as Mr. Hogarth justly says, a Debatable Land, "distracted internally by a ceaseless war of influences and only too anxious to lean, in one part or another, upon external aid." It is, moreover, already largely de-orientalized, and likely more and more to pass under European influences. What has befallen Egypt must before long befall Syria, Palestine, Mesopotamia, and a large part of Asia Minor. The political obstacles are plain enough, but political obstacles yield in the end to economic and social forces.

The really critical event in the history of the Nearer East is an event which happened in the Further East, viz., the English conquest of India. Napoleon's expedition to Egypt in 1798 was the first palpable recognition of the importance of southwestern Asia as a line of passage to those remoter regions which the English had won and held, owing to their command of the long ocean route. The making of the Suez Canal was a natural consequence. The project for a railway from Konieh to the Persian Gulf, which would be the first half of a railway to India, is a further and not less legitimate result. This project, which, suggested more than fifty years ago, has so perturbed financiers and politicians in Germany and England during the last few months, is certain, despite the temporary check it has received, to be carried out at no distant date; and it may probably bring Germany as a fourth political influence into regions where, fifty years ago, France, Russia, and England were already watching one another with a jealousy which was one of the causes that produced the Crimean war. And though (as our author observes) it is chiefly as a land of passage that the Nearer East now draws the attention of Europe, no one can doubt that the opening up of communications through it must eventually change both its economic and its political conditions, developing those fertile parts of it which have lain long neglected, and fusing into larger bodies those races and sects, and sections of races and sects, whose divisions and reciprocal antagonisms have made it for many generations a prey to weakness and unrest.

FIVE NOVELS.

Youth. By Joseph Conrad. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The Private Papers of Henry Ryecroft. By George Gissing. E. P. Dutton & Co.

His Daughter First. By Arthur Sherburne Hardy. Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.

The Conquering of Kate. By J. P. Mowbray. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Wee Macgreegor. By J. J. Bell. Harper & Brothers.

At the time when Mr. Joseph Conrad began to write tales of adventure in the Southern Pacific, novelists were much concerned about getting local color into their work. They searched the earth for geographical novelty and linguistic eccentricity, and concentrated their attention on those superficial attributes and traits of humanity which are developed by climate, association, and local habits. There was little then in Mr. Conrad's work to indicate that he had any profounder reason for writing fiction than that suggested by the chance of first-hand acquaintance with scenes lying out of the beaten path of travel and people born or banished beyond the reach of social or moral law. Gradually, however, he has shown himself to be one of nature's licensed story-tellers, holding a warrant to explore the heart of life and to discover some of its mystery and pain. His latest volume, entitled 'Youth,' places him unmistakably among the best imaginative writers of his period. Objectively, the tales are realistic, sometimes violently realistic like Kipling's, but the record of action of particular things done and suffered is united with the universally human by a great imagination and a temperamental impressionability rich as Pierre Loti's, yet saved from sickliness by an Anglo-Saxon sanity. The easily named qualities that count are observation and knowledge of men, of affairs, of places; abundant resources for action and for variety of people to carry it on, and a power of expression so fluent and intense that it often runs into prodigality. Yet these qualities are only slaves of the lamp, doing perfectly the master's bidding, while themselves ignorant of magic and possessing no power to work enchantments. The enchantment worked by Mr. Conrad's imagination is the elevation of all sorts of facts, the common and unusual, the sordid and picturesque, the heroic and ignoble, to an atmosphere charged with emotion at a very high pitch.

The first tale narrates the adventures of the *Judæa* carrying coal from London to Bangkok. The *Judæa* was old and utterly unseaworthy; the captain was old, the mate was old, and they may have been spurred to their perilous venture by the reflection that, after all, they had not much of life to lose. The second mate was a boy of twenty, and the adventure of the battered ship and the ancient mariners is so suffused with his emotion that literal account of disaster and failure becomes a lyrical expression of the hope and courage and joy of youth.

"Heart of Darkness" vibrates with loathing of a land where primeval nature assumes the functions of a vengeful fate, and either kills invaders of her awful solitudes or reduces them to the condition of brutes. It is a dreadful and fascinating tale, full as any of Poe's of mystery and haunting terrors, yet with a substantial basis of reality that no man who had not lived as well as dreamed could conjure into existence. The tale is told by a young man whose business in Africa was to navigate a river steamboat. One quotation may give a notion of the author's realism and impressionability. The young man had arrived at the first trading station and already supped full of horrors:

"I went to work the next day, turning, so to speak, my back on that station. In that way only it seemed to me I could keep my hold on the redeeming facts of life. Still, one must look about sometimes; and then I saw this station, these men strolling aimlessly about in the sunshine of the yard. I asked myself sometimes what it all meant. They wandered here and there with their absurd long staves in their hands, like a lot of faithless pilgrims bewitched inside a rotten fence. The word ivory rang in the air, was whispered, was sighed. You would think they were praying to it. A taint of imbecile rapacity blew through it all, like a whiff from some corpse. By Jove! I've never seen anything so unreal in my life. And outside, the silent wilderness surrounding this cleared speck on the earth struck me as something great and invincible, like evil or truth, waiting patiently for the passing away of this fantastic invasion."

The third subject is in a way an easy one for exciting tearful sentiment. The average heart may be touched by any sort of description of a man who in old age is forced to begin again the struggle for existence with all the odds against him. Mr. Conrad gets emotion to the heart-breaking moment as much by repression of the sentimental attitude and appeal as by the splendid delineation of old Capt. Whalley facing with fortitude and equanimity disaster after disaster, until he comes to "the end of the tether" and goes down with his ship. There is no strained heroism, nothing ever so slightly improbable or artificial in the portrait of Capt. Whalley. He is just an honest, strong, invincibly proud old man, fighting fate single-handed, and determined to fight to a finish. This sort of fight is never really a matter for tears; it seems to reflect a glory on the human race, and establish a ground for the desire for immortality. There are two sorts of Englishmen who command the world's admiration—the English adventurer and the English poet. Mr. Conrad is a rover and a poet, so the great qualities of his brood are in his work, which can hardly fail to take a permanent place in the national literature.

In the preface to 'The Private Papers of Henry Ryecroft' it is assumed that Mr. Gissing found the papers after the writer's death, and published them thinking that they might be valuable, at least for their sincerity's sake, to those "who read not with the eye alone, but with the mind." They are interesting and valuable for frank expression of unpopular truths, but still more, to some interpreting minds, for a naïve revelation of abysmal selfishness which Mr. Ryecroft (who looks like Mr. Gissing in thin disguise) seems hardly ever to have recognized as a possible constituent of his make-up. At the age of twenty, Ryecroft, possessing a genuine passion for letters and a fine capacity for ranging himself with the opposition, stumbled into London, unknown and poor, intending to write for a living. For a few years he remained very poor, but he did gradually get on; so well, indeed, that for twenty years he supported himself, his wife, and daughter, even managing "now and then to earn a little more money than his actual needs demanded, and thus was enabled to see something of foreign countries." At the age of fifty, when death had disembarrassed him of his wife, and marriage separated him, seemingly as irrevocably, from his daughter; "when his health had begun to fail and his energies to show abatement," a friend bequeathed to him a life annuity of three hundred pounds. In the luxurious seclusion of a country house, to which he at once retired, these papers were written. True, his career had not been glorious, but, considering his very poor equipment for succeeding in a profession that demands a rather eager interest in life, and the tact and skill to lead those whom one may privately despise, he had not done badly; therefore his wailing about the hideousness of poverty, the awful waste of his peculiarly promising youth, the constant and hateful toil of his middle years, strikes us as unseemly, as not the utterance of a man who could have deserved much consideration from his fellow-men or with whom a wife and daughter could ever have lived comfortably. His female impedimenta are mentioned directly only in the preface. Ryecroft shrouds them in decent silence. But he probably had them in mind when he wrote that most men's experience would justify them in declaring that, on the surface of the habitable globe, there is no house in which words of anger are never heard, where no unkindly feeling ever exists between the inmates. A state of squabble is to him the normal domestic state. "Quit the home," he reflects, "and quarrelling is less obvious, but it goes on all about one."

His affection for the peaceful home in which he writes is distinctly an affection for the house, the long-dreamed-of haven where he has his own way, beautifully, autocratically. This affection he extends to the very weeds of his garden and to the adjacent villages. "I find myself reading with interest all the local news in the Exeter paper. Not that I care about the people; with barely one or two exceptions, the people are nothing to me, and the less I see of them, the better I am pleased." If Mr. Gissing should edit the reciprocal feelings of the people of Exeter, the volume might be a lively commentary on Ryecroft's. Once in a while a habitually introspective person does catch a glimpse of his real self, and Ryecroft does not entirely escape this depressing accident of self-examination. Writing about his lack of friends during his very hard times, he remarks: "The truth is, I have never learnt to regard myself as a member of society. For me there have always been two entities —myself and the world—and the normal relation between these two has been hostile." But the consistency of Ryecroft's illusions is not often marred by such reflection. All his thoughts and opinions express the man who has cared only and cared profoundly for himself, relied on his own judgment, his own point of view, receiving nothing from the life around him, and giving it neither understanding nor sympathy. If that is the sort of man Mr. Gissing meant to delineate, he has done him with scrupulous fidelity. Such persons have a certain pathos, because, while they cry with truth that life has yielded nothing but stones, they cannot believe that it is because they never knew how to ask for bread.

'His Daughter First' is an innocent work of fiction. The author cannot long think harm of any one. Though he tries to endow some of his people with defects, such as craftiness and insincerity, his attachment to the square thing gets the better of him; so they all decide for virtue and get happily married. The tale is a tale of lovers (six of them), and the reader does not readily keep them properly sorted. The most interesting pair are Mr. Heald and Miss Temple, perhaps because they are at least tempted by Satan. Miss Temple yields so far as to write a spiteful letter to a widow whom she properly suspects of wishing to marry her father, John Temple, of course a widower. Mr. Heald plunges deeper in sin, and is really implicated in several shady transactions. Insignificant as the story is, it prompts an interesting inquiry, why Mr. Hardy chose to reappear in fiction with nothing of interest or importance to communicate. The only discoverable reason is a desire to depict the manners of a group of people representing New England's "nice" or "best" people—people not notable for stormy passions, and evolved beyond the temptation of vulgar impulses. These admirable persons have already received considerable attention in fiction, and their charming way of receiving guests, of greeting each other at breakfast, their tea-drinking and dining—the whole record, indeed, of their day's adventure, has been long consecrated to the genius of the society reporter. Even such esoteric information as that rich daughters of the republic have maids to lay out their clothes, do their hair, perform the solemn office of "preparing a bath," hardly requires confirmation by a novelist. We could never have doubted that Mr. Hardy's ladies were properly washed and combed and hooked. There was a time (within the memory of man) when they might not have been—the time when the New England conscience was a power and learning in high repute. A good time is never recognized till it is past, and as we reflect on Mr. Hardy's well-turned-out ladies, we feel certain that the good time for converting the women of New England into interesting reading was the time of moral rigidity and mental earnestness; the time when whatever care the body may have received was bestowed in secret, and deemed, if not among the unmentionable subjects, at least among those "not fit for publication."

The scene, plot, and characters of the 'Conquering of Kate' are very familiar to novel-readers. Scores of tales have been written about Southern ladies of long descent reduced to poverty, immensely proud and insolent, determined to defend to the death the family mansion and the family estate from seizure by unfeeling creditors. When a good-looking young man, hateful emissary of hated enemies, rides up to the door, politely inviting the ladies to a business consultation, the train and issue of negotiations are at once foreseen. The young man is received in the parlor by a maiden aunt, who regales him with a history of the family, declines to consider any business, and shows him the door. But the young man has come to stay. He bears affronts with dignity, patiently returns good for evil, does wonderful things with the "property," is at once so firm, so self-effacing, and so useful that the hard heart of the loveliest and most insulting of the ladies is softened and she consents to become his bride. Mr. Mowbray's version of this ancient legend is readable, includes several diverting episodes, and one character who is quite fascinating because of his comprehensive unlikeness to the thing he is supposed to represent. Mr. Journingham, the English aspirant to the honor of Kate's hand, is the Englishman imagined by a good American who has never known a specimen of the island race, but always in perfect good faith hated the very thought of one. It is long since he ceased to appear in American fiction, and to meet him again surrounded by old and rather tedious friends is to add to the sentiment of the occasion a touch of welcome hilarity.

Any one who understands Lowland Scotch may get an hour's amusement out of 'Wee Macgreegor.' The inquisitive child and his doting parents are Glasgow folk drawn from the life and to the life. If they are exceptional at all it is in possessing more leisure and good temper than most Scotch families of the lower class. Mr. Bell's method is strikingly clever. The sketches are done in dialogue almost without description or explanatory comment, yet the Robinson family's characteristics are clearly revealed, and though the reader feels the presence of ironical humor, the author preserves gravity, never appearing to know that he is in the least funny. The few passages written in English show that Mr. Bell can use that language effectively both for plain statement and for humorous satire.

RECENT POETRY.

'The Poems and Verses of Charles Dickens,' edited by F. G. Kitton (Harpers), is a handsomely printed volume of which the binding is unquestionably the best part, while the prefaces of the editor rank next to it. The book is chiefly interesting as affording an evidence of that revival of Dickens about which the newspapers tell us so much, but do not make it clear that we are to gain greatly by the revival. Israel Zangwill's 'Blind Children' (Funk & Wagnalls) is, like all his books, interesting as a branch of personal biography; and while in these pages he can scarcely be said to give us grace or music anywhere, yet there is plenty of the pungency with which the readers of his prose are familiar.

'Love's Old Sweet Song,' by George H. Ellwanger (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is a reprinted and imperfectly revised edition of a previous work called 'Love's Demesne,' by the same author. It is a tolerably miscellaneous collection from different sources, but of course includes many good poems, and a curious preface in which a dozen or more living English poets are mentioned with enthusiasm, while not an American name appears in the introduction. There is a paged index of first lines, but no paged index of poems by their titles. With these drawbacks, the book affords a pleasing selection. A like criticism applies to a work in many respects admirable, entitled 'The Posy Ring: A Book of Verse for Children, Chosen and Classified by Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora Archibald Smith' (McClure, Phillips & Co.). Here the paper, type, and mechanical execution are altogether delightful, and the selection is fairly good, but there is no alphabetical index at all of authors or of first lines. Mr. S. B. Herrick has added to the too numerous collections of miscellaneous sonnets a beautifully printed volume called 'A Century of Sonnets' (R. H. Russell), fairly good in the selection, though not especially so, and with an elaborate preface. Aldrich's fine sonnet at page 50 is an elder or later version, varying in many particulars from that contained, under the name of "Miracles," in the fine "Paint and Clay Club" edition of 1882. On the whole, the later form may be regarded as an improvement.

'The Black Prince, and Other Poems,' by Maurice Baring (Lane), consists mainly of a dramatic poem which has the unusual quality of weaving in songs much better than the text, the usual practice being quite the other way. The Nurse's Song, for instance, above the deathbed of the Black Prince, has a distinctly weird and original cadence (p. 139):

From the bleak sand and the grey sand
(O son o' mine, good-bye),
To the shore of gold and the cornland
To conquer or to die.

The low cloud and the grey cloud
(O son o' mine, good-bye),
It hangs and lowers like a shroud
Across the blood-red sky.

The soft sound and the loved sound
(O son o' mine, good bye):
"Mother, I have a mortal wound,"
It is my own son's cry.

The horn call and the glad call
(O son o' mine, good-bye):
"Now dig the grave and weave the pall,
For I am soon to die."

The lone bell and the sad bell
(O son o' mine, good-bye):
"Tell me, mother, before I fell,
That I fought gallantly."

'Lyrics of Love and Laughter,' by Paul Laurence Dunbar (Dodd, Mead & Co.), are a pleasing variation, in one respect, from his earlier poems, in that they rely less on the African dialect and are stronger in other directions, although the "dialect poems" still predominate. The following, for instance, has in it a touch of what is, after all, Walt Whitman's masterpiece, "The Song of the Open Road," although it produces no effect of imitation (p. 3):

TO THE ROAD.

Cool is the wind, for the summer is waning,
Who's for the road?
Sun-flecked and soft, where the dead leaves are raining,
Who's for the road?
Knapsack and alpenstock press hand and shoulder,
Prick of the brier and roll of the boulder;
This be your lot till the season grow older;
Who's for the road?

Up and away in the hush of the morning,
Who's for the road?
Vagabond he, all conventions a-scorning,
Who's for the road?
Music of warblers so merrily singing,
Draughts from the rill from the roadside upspringing,
Nectar of grapes from the vines lowly swinging,
These on the road.

Now every house is a hut or a hovel,
Come to the road:
Mankind and moles in the dark love to grovel,
But to the road.
Throw off the loads that are bending you double;
Love is for life, only labor is trouble;
Truce to the town, whose best gift is a bubble:
Come to the road!

'A Wanderer's Songs of the Sea,' by Charles Keeler (San Francisco: Robertson), have the double benefit of southern and northern explorations, and we not only get from him such deep-water chanties as "Aye, aye, aye, Mr. Storm Along!" and "Down, down in the doldrums down!" but love songs with such a wonderful vocabulary as that of "A Song of Bering Sea." Mr. Robert Loveman, author of 'The Gates of Silence, with Interludes of Songs' (Knickerbocker Press), is a poet of Western birth and Southern residence, who has won a modest success very easily, having been

compared at different times by rather exuberant editors to Wordsworth, Tennyson, Poe, Aldrich, Lovelace, and Henley. His brief poems have become somewhat monotonous, and perhaps the best are now the most daring, as the following (p. 19):

"I want no trickster God—
No cunning, crafty spook—
Who smites a people or a rock,
Or one who writes a book.

"For me a God who flings
Out of His spendthrift hands
The whirling worlds like pebbles,
The meshed stars like sands."

'Puerto Rican and Other Impressions,' by William James (Putnams), is one of the first of that long series of literary works which our new tropical possession may call forth; and the illustrations at least are, for that reason, very effective. From page 44 we select:

THE PINK PALACE.

This house is called a palace, but to me
Far more it is a fortress, with huge walls
Of sturdy grandeur and vast echoing halls.
On mighty ramparts near the fern is free
To nod in answer to the phantasy
Of ancient echo whensoe'er it calls
To mediæval ghost the past enthralls,
But cannot keep—nor yet will quite set free.

To-day a garden smiles where warriors strode;
To-day the stalls are empty; where the steed
Of Andalusia's swart hidalgo rode
Now gentle mosses bloom and weed rejoices.
Near by a chapel stands; where wounds did bleed
There soft-eyed nuns now sing with softer voices.

There is a distinct and steady revival of purely dramatic poetry, as in 'The Canterbury Pilgrims: A Comedy,' by Percy Mackaye (Macmillan); 'The Princess of Hanover,' by Margaret L. Woods (Holt); 'David and Bathshua,' by Charles Whitworth Wynne (Knickerbocker Press); and 'Two Masques,' by Oswald Crawfurd (London: Chapman & Hall). The most original, not to say promising, of these dramatic compositions is the first named, a really remarkable achievement. It is no slight test of an author's resources to produce before our eyes and ears, in good lively dialect and with inexhaustible vivacity, all that range of visitors whom Chaucer has ventured to group together at the Tabard. Mr. Mackaye has unflinchingly given us the grotesqueness, the vigor, the coarseness of the Elizabethan age, often coming near the very verge of peril, but never getting beyond the safeguard of the "Whoop! do me no harm, good man" which formed in that period the line of safety. So many people of varied types are crowded into this book, and with such sustained animal spirits, that it sends a reader back not merely to his Chaucer, but to his Shakspere, with renewed power to get behind the scenes.

'Pompeii of the West, and Other Poems,' by John Hall Ingham (Lippincott), is a book of modest claims and really noble attainments, with much of strength both of spirit and of expression. The title poem is a fine memorial of the great Chicago Exposition and its palaces, and the following is one of the best contributions to the new Emerson anthology which is this year so rapidly rolling up (p. 20):

A CLIFF VISITOR.

Deep-blue with autumn blasts the billows rolled
Before us as we scanned on open page
The rarest spirit of our clime and age,
When from the rocks above us, gray and cold,
A feathered glint of emerald and gold
Flashed on our sense—as though the Concord mage
Had sent a winged thought—a heritage
Of finer truth than written word could hold.
A hummingbird it was: fearless it flew
And struck the scarlet robe beneath our feet
In hope of honey. Man and Nature drew
Once more into communion strange and sweet,
And, for the moment, rock and bird and sea
The poet's magic made humanity.

A DIPLOMAT'S WIFE.

Letters of a Diplomat's Wife. By Mary King Waddington. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903.

Among the spirited portraits which Madame Waddington sketches with so light and free a touch, not the least interesting is the incidental one of herself. Belonging to a family whose social and political importance dates from the earliest days of the republic, she inherits as a matter of course a certain point of view. In the world of principalities and powers—Vanity Fair and *là haute politique*—she is breathing her native air, whether her place of abode chance to be France or Russia, England or the United States. In addition to inherited adaptation, Madame Waddington possesses as her personal endowment a charming gayety of temper, an insatiable interest in everything which goes on around her, and a quick wit. After reading her letters—the most entertaining which have appeared since Lady Granville's—one is left with the cheerful impression that, in a world of misfits, here at least was the right person in the right place. The astonishing thing is that any one who, by her own account, dislikes writing, should have written such letters. More than once she plaintively says, "I hate so to write."

"Ink all over me," she exclaims, "fingers, hair, etc. I can't say, as Madame de Sévigné did, 'ma plume vole,' for mine stops and scratches, and makes holes in the paper, and does everything it can to make my writing difficult. I wonder why I hate it so—I do; as soon as I sit down to my writing-table I want to go out or play on the piano, or even crochet little petticoats—anything rather than write."

The letters are informal. Hastily dashed off while the impressions which they record were still fresh, they have, fortunately, not been greatly revised.

M. Waddington, whose distinguished career is briefly outlined in an introductory note, was sent as Ambassador Extraordinary to represent France at the coronation of the Emperor Alexander III. at Moscow, in May, 1883. Since none of the prophesied misfortunes occurred, it is difficult to realize, particularly at this distance of time, how seriously the dangers of the coronation were regarded. The appalling assassination of Alexander II. was still fresh in men's minds. Madame Waddington says of the appointment:

"I was too bewildered at first to take it in, and I must frankly say I was wretched. . . . Of course it will be a magnificent sight, but I am a perfect poltroon—I am so afraid they will take advantage of that crowd to blow up everybody. However, if that should happen it would be better to be blown up together, but I really am nervous, (I am not usually such a coward, but Russian Nihilists and dynamiters are terrible elements to contend with), and wish they hadn't asked him to go."

We get a vivid picture of days filled with the bustle of preparation for high festivities—gala carriages, court dresses, jewels ("I have taken everything the family own"); and nights made uneasy by apprehension. A guardian was appointed for the boy, and affairs were put in order—"cheerful preparations for a festive journey." From Moscow Madame Waddington writes; "It is curious to live in such a highly charged atmosphere, and yet I am less nervous—I wonder why; the excitement, I suppose, of the whole thing." There is a thrilling account of the Emperor's ride through the city to the Kremlin. It is a capital description and we can quite see it all: the crowd—"such pale, patient faces, but so *un*joyous"—kept back by the triple row of soldiers; the gorgeous, semi-barbaric procession; the bells, the music, "the steady tramp of soldiers and the curious, dull noise of a great crowd of people." Then the Emperor, "riding quite alone in front on his little white horse which he had ridden in the Turkish campaign"; and the Empress, with her little daughter, so far behind and with so many troops between, that the Emperor might easily have been killed, she knowing nothing of it.

"Every ear was strained to hear the first sound from the Kremlin. When the cannon boomed out, the effect was indescribable. All the Russians embraced each other, some with tears running down their cheeks, everybody shook hands with everybody, and for a moment the emotion was contagious. The extraordinary reaction showed what the tension had been."

The coronation, of course, is described in all its pomp, and the writer afterwards speaks of what was to her the most striking thing in all the ceremonies: "First, the moment when the Emperor crowned himself, the only figure standing on the dais, and afterwards when he crowned the Empress, she kneeling before him." The life of the Ambassadress was arduous; up betimes in the morning, riding about in the state carriage, which, with its swinging motion, was provocative of seasickness, and standing for hours at a time. Dinners and balls in the evening, and making one's manners all day. One day she writes: "I am just alive, but nothing more, having performed five Grand Duchesses." The Empress said to Madame Waddington that the day of the coronation would be

"very long and tiring, particularly beginning so early in the morning, that she was very *matinale*; was I? 'Fairly—but I hadn't often been up and dressed in full dress and diamonds at seven in the morning.' . . . We talked a little about Moscow and the Kremlin. She asked me what I had seen. When I spoke of the church and the tribunes for the Corps Diplomatique with *no* seats and a very long ceremony, she was quite indifferent; evidently didn't think it was of the slightest consequence whether we were tired or not; and I don't suppose it is."

Later we read: "How hideous the life of the Emperor and the Empress must be. They say they find letters on their tables, in their carriages, coming from no one knows where, telling them of all the horrors in store for them and their children." In this light, the Empress's indifference over the fatigue of the Ambassadors seems natural. The detective attached to the French embassy feared some great demonstration of the Nihilists on the gala night at the opera. "It would be such a good opportunity to get rid of all the Russian princes, to say nothing of the foreigners. He and Pontécoulant suggested to W. that I should be left at home, but I protested vigorously. If they all go, I am going too." And go she did.

After his return from Russia, M. Waddington was appointed Ambassador at the Court of St. James, and remained in that position for ten years. Fortunately his wife, who still declared that she hated writing, had many members of her family to write to. The story of her life goes on with equal vivacity and freshness. In an

earlier letter she had said that she sometimes asked herself if she were "the same little girl that used to run wild in the country at home with a donkey cart and a big Newfoundland dog." We seem to get a glimpse of that little girl when she says, after an exceptionally frivolous outing, "I think in her heart Jean was rather shocked at the Aquarium performance—didn't think it was exactly the place for me; that was the reason I liked it, I suppose. I am so often now in the place where I ought to be."

The letters are chiefly taken up, however, with dignified functions, and a long series of the most interesting personages of modern times pass before us, made lifelike by the vivid style of the narrator. Of the Queen, and, indeed, of all the royal family, we get an exceedingly pleasant impression. "She was unfailing to us both from the first moment, always welcomed us with the same smile, was always inclined to talk about anything, and to understand and smooth over any little difficulty or misunderstanding. I think she is a wonderful woman and a wonderful Queen." And at the jubilee:

"It was most interesting to see her come up the aisle—quite alone in front—her three sons, Wales, Edinburgh, and Connaught, just behind her. . . . As she reached the dais she stepped on it quite alone, and, advancing to the front, made a pretty curtsey to the assembled Royalties. Then came a long procession of family princes, headed by the Prince of Wales and the German Crown Prince, who looked magnificent in his white uniform, and the Princess of Wales and the German Crown Princess. They all passed before the Queen, and it was most striking to see her seated there, a quiet figure dressed in black, very composed and smiling, yet *émue*, too, as the long line of children and grandchildren, representing all Europe, passed to do her homage."

At the end of her stay in England, Madame Waddington was able to say that "they had been ten perfectly happy years," and, as she adds, "ten years is a good piece out of one's life." Among the last ceremonies that she records is the farewell dinner which was given for M. Waddington at the Mansion House and which she saw from the gallery of the Banqueting Hall.

"There was a blaze of light and at first I couldn't recognize anyone, and then I saw W. standing, drinking out of the loving cup, with the Lord Mayor on one side and Rustem on the other, and gradually I made out a good many people. There were two long tables besides the *table d'honneur*, and they told me about 300 guests. All the representative men and intelligence of England assembled to say God-speed to the departing Ambassador. The Speaker and Lord Herschell (Presidents of the two Houses) were both there, and men of every possible coterie from Lord Lorne to James Knowles of the *Nineteenth Century*. As soon as the regular toasts had been drunk, there was a pause, and then came the toast of the evening, with 'bumpers,' 'The French Ambassador.' There were roars of applause when W. got on his legs, and I must confess to a decided choke in my throat. W. spoke (in English, which they had asked him to do) very simply and very well, going back to his early days. When he said that he had done his best always to keep up good and friendly relations with England, and that he had had much sympathy from all sides, he was much cheered; but much more when he said that perhaps what had given him more friends in England than any of his public acts as a statesman, was the fact that he had rowed in the University eight at Cambridge. Then there were roars of applause, and he heard quite distinctly the people below saying, 'He is quite right, we always remember it.' He was quite *ému* when he came to the end; his voice taking that grave tone I like so much when he said 'goodbye.' One heard every word. He was much cheered when he finished. . . . He hasn't always had an easy time with his English name and his English education. Of course, it has been very useful to him here, as he has been thrown with all sorts of people, and could understand the English point of view, but in France they were always afraid he was too English. I think when he has gone they will realize at home what good work he has done here *because* he understands them."

One closes the book wishing it were longer, which proves perhaps that it is about the right length.

The Souls of Black Folk: Essays and Sketches by W. E. Burghardt Du Bois. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Mr. Du Bois has written a profoundly interesting and affecting book, remarkable as a piece of literature apart from its inner significance. The negrophobist will remind us that Mr. Du Bois is not so black as he has painted himself, and will credit to the white blood in his veins the power and beauty of his book. But the fact is, that the features of Mr. Du Bois's mind are negro features to a degree that those of his face are not. They are the sensibility, the tenderness, the "avenues to God hid from men of Northern brain," which Emerson divined in the black people. The bar of music from one "Sorrow Song" or another which stands at the head of each chapter is a hint (unintended) that what follows is that strain writ large, that Mr. Du Bois's thought and expression are highly characteristic of his people, are cultivated varieties of those emotional and imaginative qualities which are the prevailing traits of the uncultivated negro mind. Hence one more argument for that higher education of the negro for which Mr. Du Bois so eloquently pleads. Such education of ten thousand negroes would be justified by one product like this.

The book will come as a surprise to some persons who have heard Mr. Du Bois speak upon his people's character and destiny, and, finding him coldly intellectual, have not been at all prepared for the emotion and the passion throbbing here in every chapter, almost every page. It is almost intolerably sad. "Bone of the bone and flesh of the flesh of them that live within the veil," the writer manifests throughout an aching sense of the wrongs done to his people, heretofore and still. But those will greatly misconceive who think that we have here merely an outburst of emotion. Back of this there is careful knowledge of past and present conditions in the South, clear insight into their meanings, a firm intellectual apprehension of their tendency, which is something to be reckoned with by every citizen who has at heart the welfare of his country, inseparable from the welfare of the colored people. The perfervid rhetoric will seem extravagant to the dull and cold, but, though it sometimes obscures what it would fain illuminate, it is the writer's individual form, it is not the substance of his protestation, which is compact of intellectual seriousness and moral truth.

The initial chapter is of a general character, setting forth the spiritual strivings of the negro—to be at once a negro and an American; "to be a co-worker in the kingdom of culture, to escape both death and isolation; to use his best powers and his latent genius," which have heretofore been so wasted, dispersed, and forgotten. A second chapter takes more definite shape, telling the story of emancipation, what it meant to the blacks, and what happened in the days of the carpet-bagger and his coadjutors in the Reconstruction period. The emphasis is on the Freedmen's Bureau, whose merits and demerits are considered in an impartial manner. There is an eloquent tribute to "the crusade of the New England schoolma'am" in the South, which in one year gave instruction to more than one hundred thousand blacks. There is a fit rebuke for the cheap nonsense, of which we hear so much, concerning the enfranchisement of the negro. There was no choice, we are very properly assured, between full and restricted suffrage; only a choice between suffrage and a new form of slavery. It is conceded that a race-feud was the inevitable consequence of the choice the North was forced to make.

But the most concrete chapter in Mr. Du Bois's book is the third, "Of Mr. Booker T. Washington and Others." Mr. Washington's ascendancy is designated as "the most striking thing in the history of the American negro since 1876." Entertained with unlimited energy, enthusiasm, and faith, his programme "startled and won the applause of the South, interested and won the admiration of the North, and, after a confused murmur of protest, it silenced if it did not convert the negroes themselves." The merits of that programme are detailed with warm appreciation, while at the same time a criticism is made upon it so thoughtfully conceived that it deserves the attention of Mr. Washington's best friends and the best friends of the negro and the white people of the South. The criticism will be resented with bitterness by those for whom Washington's attraction is the concessions they suppose him to have made, and with hardly less by many who are convinced that he has solved the race problem in a completely successful manner. There are those who seem to regard any criticism of his programme as only a less malignant form of lese-majesty than criticism of the war programme of a President. But he is strong and wise enough to welcome any honest difference from his own views and aims. The criticism is that Mr. Washington asks the negro to surrender, at least for the present, political power, insistence on civil rights, the higher education. Advocated for fifteen years, triumphant for ten, this policy has coincided with the disfranchisement of the negro, his relegation to a civil status of distinct inferiority, the impoverishment of institutions devoted to the negro's higher education. That here is not merely coincidence, but effect, is Mr. Du Bois's contention. Also, that Mr. Washington's desired ends cannot be reached without important additions to his means: the negro may not hope to be a successful business man and property owner without political rights, to be thrifty and self-respecting, while consenting to civic inferiority, to secure good common-school and industrial training without institutions of higher learning. "Tuskegee itself could not remain open a day were it not for teachers trained in negro colleges, or trained by their graduates."

It is not so clear to us as it is to Mr. Du Bois that Mr. Washington has made the base concessions here ascribed to him. We recall passages in his books and speeches and letters that point a different moral. We recall his protests sent to the disfranchising conventions in Alabama and Louisiana. It may be that of late he has become more subdued than formerly to those he has worked with, some of whom have the habit of giving his programme the color of their own exaggerated caution and timidity. Then, too, Mr. Du Bois, while acknowledging that Mr. Washington's programme is provisional, does not make this acknowledgment with sufficient emphasis. But this third chapter as a whole, and the expansion of its prominent details in the succeeding chapters, deserve the carefullest consideration. Their large intelligence and their lofty temper demand for them an appreciation as generous as the spirit in which they are conceived.

Where all is good, it is invidious to select, but the chapters "On the Training of Black Men" and "Of the Sons of Master and Man" merit, perhaps, particular attention. The pathos of the chapter called "The Passing of the First Born" is immeasurably deep. It will appeal to all who have a human heart. It tells the story of a baby's life and death, the joy his coming meant; the "awful gladness" when he died: "Not dead, but escaped; not bond, but free." Clearly the burden of Mr. Du Bois's complaint, not explicitly, but implicitly at every turn, is made more grievous by the denial of social equality to himself and his people. In the urgency of this note is there not possibly a lack of the profoundest self-respect? If Mr. Du Bois can sit with Shakspere and Plato, and they do not wince at his complexion, why should he care so much for the contempt of Col. Carter of Cartersville? Why not trample on it with a deeper pride? A society based on money values may reject such a man as scornfully as one based on the tradition of slavery, but a society based upon character and culture will always welcome him though he were blacker than the ace of spades, not as showing him a favor, but as anxious to avail itself of his ability.

Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology. By James Mark Baldwin. Vol. II. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Royal 8vo, pp. 892.

Many evidences of different kinds reach us of the good service that this work is already rendering, notwithstanding the imperfections inevitable in any such composite book, and notwithstanding its lack of those formal perfections and uniformities upon which our American dictionaries and cyclopædias are apt to insist to the neglect of the weightier matters of the law, to the point of leaving them dry, innutritious, and unvitalizing. Professor Baldwin, in the preface of this concluding volume (of the Dictionary proper), puts forth more an excuse than a defence for one of the few features of it that have been disapproved in almost every quarter; urging that the diminutive biographical notices which he has scattered through the vocabulary are that half-loaf that is said to be better than no bread. This hardly meets the stricture commonly made, which was to the effect that the entire omission of these supererogatory crumbs would have left room that might either have been filled to better purpose, or to better purpose have lightened the avoirdupois of the volumes.

But a more interesting question suggests itself. Upwards of seventy of the most reputable philosophers whose services a distinguished editor could secure, have here set down their opinions upon the special points of philosophy of which they are reputed best qualified to treat. They have not argued their doctrines, since this is a dictionary, not a cyclopædia; but they have defined them. All the principal groups of schools are more or less represented in the assemblage of contributors; even the idealists, whose showing is probably the least adequate. One naturally peruses their utterances to see what impression one can derive from them as to the prevalent tendencies of philosophy at the opening of the twentieth century; for surely this is an aspect under which it may be hoped that this dictionary will never lose its interest.

The most prominent of the philosophical signs of the times, as here displayed—so it strikes us, at least—is the manifest strenuous endeavor of the students of every department of philosophy to impart a "scientific" character each to his own particular branch, *i. e.*, to make it conform to the conditions which have caused the success of the modern acknowledged sciences. The progress is satisfactory. At least one branch of psychology has already taken its place among the special sciences, whose array others are well upon the way toward joining. The movement is not confined to psychology. There is much of a scientific character in ethics; and the critical part of logic has, in some hands at least, come to submit itself to the same criteria as those that have long been acknowledged in science. There seems every reason for hope concerning metaphysics and other branches.

Another mark of our philosophy is the disposition to make psychology the key to philosophy — categories, æsthetics, ethics, logic, and metaphysics. Something of this has existed since Descartes; but since about 1863 every student of philosophy, even though he be one of those who consider the present psychological tendency excessive, has placed a new and higher estimate than before upon the scientific value of psychology. Here was seen one science, than which no branch of philosophy, in the days when men disputed about the *primum cognitum*, was more enveloped in metaphysical fog, which yet almost suddenly, that mist lifting, had come out bright and clear as a June forenoon. How could it but happen, as it certainly did, that men should think that the best way to resolve any problem of philosophy would be to reduce it to a question of psychology? The future must determine precisely what the value of this method may be. It has its opponents. For some years after the movement once became general, no strong voice was raised against it; and ten or fifteen years ago psychologists of the first rank could dream of establishing the truths of their science without any metaphysical assumptions whatsoever. Some writers use such language even yet; but careful examination has convinced the better part that even physics has its metaphysical postulates, and that psychology is peculiarly dependent upon them. If that be the case, the philosophical sciences and psychology would have each to be built upon the other, if the psychological method is to be maintained. They must collectively form an arch—or, rather, a Saturn's ring, for an arch has the ground to rest upon. Whether that can be sound logic or not is a question to be carefully examined.

Another symptom of the philosophy of the day which is interesting to the general public is a very appreciable reaction against the whole family of opinions that are nearly related to agnosticism—some of them as little fond of others as any cousins in the world. A logical scruple seems to be the motive of this reaction. It is felt that the only possible justification for so much as entertaining a hypothesis must be that it renders the facts comprehensible, and that a theory which substantially amounts merely to supposing facts to be incomprehensible, fails to render any facts comprehensible. But if one once admits this, he can hardly stop at this point. It would seem that his further reflections must result in something like a resuscitation of the Scotch philosophy of common sense. Accordingly, some writers who used (justly or otherwise) to be regarded as skeptics, are now instancing the stress put upon the light of nature by Galileo and other authors of modern physical conceptions, and virtually even by Faraday, Kelvin, etc., as helping to show that a belief akin to Reid's is an essential condition of progressive science.

One other lineament of contemporary philosophy is called to our attention in turning over the leaves of this volume. It is surprising to see how readable it is—a result due, no doubt, in part to editorial skill, and partly to the writers not having to enter into all the details of argumentation. It is infinitely more agreeable to read than any of the recent philosophical works which betray literary ambition. Metaphysicians are a slow-thinking breed; but they seem duller than ordinary not to perceive that a literary style in philosophy is an incongruity whose days are numbered. Soon the majority of contributions to philosophy will begin to take the form of memoirs, like those to other sciences, such as mathematics, which is no more special than is philosophy. Now a scientific memoir written in any but the most severely unadorned language could not be more ridiculous if it were set in hexameters like the contributions of those eminent savants Parmenides, and Empedocles. It is a truism to say so; and this truism enwraps another, which is that there is such a thing as a good style and a bad style for philosophy grown science. A good style is one which approximates as closely as possible to a self-explaining diagram or a tabular array of familiar symbols. In short, it will be necessary for philosophers to awake to the fact that there is such a thing as the ethics of words, which for them should be about the most sacred part of the moral law; and the sooner they begin to turn their attention to this, the sooner they will experience the satisfaction of the scientific man's conscience, who is faithful to his duty of gathering premises as the basis of inferences which only distant generations can draw, and in drawing will first discover what scrupulous pains have been taken to make those premises accurate.

The Groundwork of the Leschetizky Method. By Malwine Brée. G. Schirmer.

Die Hand des Pianisten. Von Marie Unschuld von Melasfeld. Breitkopf & Härtel.

For nearly half a century Franz Liszt devoted a considerable part of his time to giving free instruction to young pianists. This accounts for the enormous number of his "pupils" up and down the world; a list of them takes up six pages of Göllerich's biography of the great pianist. But Liszt died in 1886, and the young women and men had to look about for another instructor. Rubinstein never took many pupils, and died, moreover, eight years after Liszt. The great successor of these masters, Paderewski, has had no time to give lessons; but it so happened that in the days of his youth he was a pupil of Leschetizky, and when he became leader among the pianists of our time, students began to flock to his teacher, in the hope of discovering the secret of his success. Thus it came about that Leschetizky became the successor of Liszt as a teacher of nearly everybody who is anybody among the younger pianists. His house in Vienna is frequented by a vast number of young students, most of them foreigners, particularly Americans; the Viennese, indeed, speak of his "American colony" at Währing. In many things Leschetizky is unlike Liszt: he charges for his lessons and he teaches technique, two things which Liszt never did. He resembles Liszt in being a genuine artist; a mere pedagogue could not have got and retained his vogue.

Leschetizky never published a "method" for the use of his pupils and others; but lately two of his pupils have endeavored to put on paper some of his most important principles of instruction. Neither of the books mentioned at the head of this review contains anything to indicate that his method differs radically from that of other eminent teachers; and both are somewhat disappointing because they do not include detailed criticism of individual composers and pieces in the teacher's own words, after the manner of Theodor Pfeiffer's delightful 'Studien bei Hans von Bülow. But there is much of genuine value in both the books. They resemble each other in having abundant illustrations of hand postures; Leschetizky's own hand having been photographed for Mme. Brée's book (which has been admirably Englished by Dr. Theodore Baker), while Mme. von Melasfeld adorns hers with pictures of her own hand in various positions. What will our young ladies say to Mme. Brée's assertion that "the pianist must renounce the so-called aristocratic hand, slender and gracefully formed, with well-kept nails"? To which she adds that "a thoroughly trained 'piano-hand' becomes broader, supple in the wrist, and muscular, with broad finger-tips." The same writer does not hesitate to declare that "the pedal, for most good people and bad players, is an instrumentality for trampling on good taste." Mme. von Melasfeld quotes Rubinstein's saying that "good pedalling is half the play." Her instructions on this topic are particularly clear and suggestive, and so are her remarks on memorizing pieces of music. They are summed up in the words, "Play less, think more." It may be added that there are plentiful illustrations in musical type in each of these books, and that both are commended by Leschetizky himself.

Heredity and Social Progress. By Simon N. Patten. Macmillan Co. 1903.

The conclusions reached in this book differ from those previously maintained by the author because he has altered his premises. Formerly he thought that if life were freed from its restrictions, we should have "a pleasure economy, and a normal order of progress. The natural curve of thought would move from concrete economic events upward to its highest forms." Reflection suggested that this concept overlooked the influence of heredity. "Character, in the sense of inherited traits, has its curve of thought." Thought, then, must have two curves, and nothing is normal until it reveals the movements of both. Further reflection has convinced the author that the normal is to be sought in a new direction. He now perceives that it is fallacious to suppose that nations have a period of youth, maturity, and old age. "Death is an accident to life, not a necessity." Emotional changes must be recognized; and "thought must therefore have an emotional as well as an economic curve."

For the development of these theories the author has prepared a logic of his own, some of the canons of which are as follows: "The presumption of a general law is in favor of a hypothesis as soon as single instances of its operation are discovered." "Links missing in the verification of a chain of reasoning do not render a hypothesis improbable." "Whenever a specific form is found, variations from this form may be assumed." "A law having parallel expressions in two fields has greater validity than a complete induction in one field." It is speaking within bounds to say that natural science has not employed canons so loosely expressed, and that this *novum organum* may be perverted by mischievous or weak-minded persons unless it is carefully explained and guarded.

When man is considered in his relations to nature, continues our author, he is found to face a law of diminishing returns. Since the natural surplus produced by conscious effort falls off, it cannot be a source of social progress. To make progress secure, the temporary surplus must be transformed into permanent conditions, or into mental traits; it is the latter that constitute the real source of progress. So in biology, acquired characters become natural; and biology and economics are parallel, like mind and matter. Economics, therefore, may be comprehended through biology, and the bulk of this essay is biological in character. Conscious acts precede those that are unconscious, and this is the order of nature, and must prevail in lower life. Acquired characters are not inherited; but they cause children to develop increased energy, and hence progress results. The same is true of organs. The tooth, the nail, the wing, etc., are at first merely expressions of surplus energy. "Animals do not develop teeth because they eat hard food. They eat hard food because they have teeth. Nor do they develop hair because they go into cold regions; they go north because they have hair." But as progress is due to surplus energy, arrest of development comes from emotions, which, however, may aid those who change their environment. The explanation of these statements occupies too much space to be adequately discussed here. Reduced to a simple form, the theory here adumbrated appears to make progress begin with the creation of a "social surplus," while "current biology and classical economics unite in making a deficit the initial force in progress." Prosperity creates energy, adversity lessens it. But progress is blocked unless the strong protect the weak. "The initial step in progress is protection, and a flow of income from the strong to the weak." Hence, a backward race or class need not be radically altered to fit it for civilization. Provide a surplus, and spontaneous changes will reorganize society.

There are many Delphic utterances in this book, and it can hardly be called well reasoned. Nevertheless, we can heartily approve the spirit of a disquisition which contains these precepts: "The more freely we give to the weak, the more is gained by the strong. The morality of similar men is embodied in the Golden Rule, but for dissimilar men the law of service is yet higher. Do unto those unlike yourself what they cannot do for themselves. Let your surplus energy go out through your natural character for the benefit of those who have it not."

Life and Letters of Brooke Foss Westcott, D.D., D.C.L., sometime Bishop of Durham. By his son, Arthur Westcott. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co., 1903.

Certain episcopal biographies of recent years appear to have been written chiefly to show that bishops are men of like passions with others. The present memoir suggests no such explanation, for the whole of its subject's career was spent outside that atmosphere of diplomacy and intrigue in which too many princes of the church appear to breathe most freely. Westcott, though he occupied for more than a decade one of the most exalted positions in the English hierarchy, will not be remembered especially as an ecclesiastical dignitary, but as a scholar and teacher. His earliest aptitudes, shown when a boy at King Edward's School, Birmingham, marked him out for distinction as a student. At Cambridge he was Senior Classic, and swept the board of the various classical prizes and scholarships. At the same time, lest his studies should be "selfish," that is, too directly aimed at prize winning, he made a point of working also at botany, geology, architecture, and other subjects. This breadth of interests does not reflect itself in the letters of this period, which are pietistic in the extreme.

It was during the years spent as assistant-master at Harrow (from 1852 to 1869) that Westcott's abilities as a critic and expositor of the New Testament text began to be generally recognized. Dr. Butler, then head-master, testifies that Westcott became a real power in the school, where his house was pre-eminent for its intellectual and general vigor. For himself, however, he found teaching schoolboys too exhausting to be combined with the studies on which his heart was set, and he was glad of the relief afforded him by an appointment to a Cambridge chair. He was more at home in lecturing to candidates for holy

orders, though his belief in the scholarship of his pupils was sometimes too much for their self-control. Canon Scott Holland, for instance, recalls his disappointment at their not recollecting the use of a certain verb in the Clementine Homilies, whereas at the moment they had but the dimmest conception of what the Clementine Homilies might be. Cambridge, too, gave him an opportunity of closer association with Lightfoot and Hort. He had begun his collaboration with Hort on a recension of the New Testament text as early as 1853, when twenty-eight years of age. Comparatively little is told us here of this great undertaking, as the biographer prefers to leave the mass of correspondence affecting it to be dealt with later by a specialist; but, amid all the changes in Westcott's outward career, we are conscious of his steady, persistent devotion to this task until the book is given to the world in 1881. One's admiration of his labors is increased by the discovery that they were not in every respect congenial. "Generally," he remarks in one of his letters to his colleague, "I feel very great repugnance to the whole work of revision. . . . I cannot express to you the positive dislike—I want a stronger term—with which I look on all details of spelling and breathing and form." In another letter he says, "Grammar I simply hate."

After 1890, when he was made Bishop of Durham, Westcott made few contributions to scholarship. At the same time his scholarly training and habits made his new activities as a preacher and church leader differ widely from those of the average bishop. It is significant to read of his sermons and addresses during this period, (which often produced a unique impression), that they were a terror to the reporters, not because of rapidity of utterance, but because the thoughts were expressed in unfamiliar phrases. Westcott took, we learn, no delight in generalship. He felt so burdened by responsibilty that when a diocesan living fell vacant he would feel greatly relieved if he found from the calendar that the patronage was not in the bishop's hands. Yet his sense of duty was so keen that on occasion he would seek responsibilities from which most men in his position would think themselves excused. Such an occasion was the painful miners' strike of 1892, when his intervention brought the conflict of employers and employed to an end. This was but one of many services rendered to industrial concord and social progress which justified the application to him, in a chapter contributed by Thomas Burt, the miner M.P., of the title of "Everybody's Bishop." He had, indeed, been true to his consecration vow to maintain and set forward, as far as in him lay, quietness, love, and peace among all men.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Broome, E. C. A Historical and Critical Discussion of College Admission Requirements. (Columbia University Publications.) Macmillan.
Cairns, John. Principal Cairns. (Famous Scots Series.) Scribners. 75 cents.
Cartwright, Julia. Isabella d'Este, Marchioness of Mantua, 1474-1539: A Study of the Renaissance. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. $7.50.
Chesterton, G. K. Robert Browning. (English Men of Letters.) Macmillan.
Clark, T. M. Building Superintendence. A Manual. 13th ed. Macmillan. $3.
Danby, Frank. Pigs in Clover. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Delitzsch, Friedrich. Babel and Bible: Two lectures. Edited by C. H. W. Johns. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Dictionary of National Biography: Index and Epitome. Edited by Sidney Lee. Macmillan.
Encyclopædia Biblica, Vol. IV. Edited by T. K. Cheyne and J. S. Black. Macmillan.
Gogol, Nikolai. Evenings in Little Russia. Translated by Edna W. Underwood and W. H. Cline. Evanston (Ill.): W. S. Lord.
Holden, E. S. The Sciences: A Reading Book for Children. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Holder, C. F. The Big Game Fishes of the United States. Macmillan. $2.
Hudson, T. J. The Law of Mental Medicine. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.20.
Jones, Alice. Bubbles We Buy. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co. $1.50.
Lamb's Biographical Dictionary of the United States. Vol. V. Edited by J. H. Brown. Boston: Federal Book Co.
Lowell, Percival. The Solar System. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Lynch, Gertrude. The Fighting Chance. Smart Set Pub. Co.
Meade, L. T. Stories from the Old, Old Bible. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Moulton, R. G. The Moral System of Shakspere. Macmillan.
Oppenheim, E. P. A Prince of Sinners. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Roberts, W. K. Divinity and Man. Revised edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Robinson, C. M. Modern Civic Art. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Royce, Josiah. Outlines of Psychology. Macmillan. $1.
Sanborn, F. B. The Personality of Emerson. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $5.
Scott, F. J. Portraitures of Julius Cæsar. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Seligmann, T., Torrilhon, G. L., and Falconnet, H. India Rubber and Gutta Percha. Translated from the French by J. G. McIntosh. London: Scott, Greenwood & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Smith, F. B. How Paris Amuses Itself. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.50.
Smith, W. H. A Political History of Slavery. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50.
Steuart, J. A. The Samaritans. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Steel, Flora A. In the Guardianship of God. Macmillan.
Stine, M. H. Baron Stiegel. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Stoddard, C. W. For the Pleasure of his Company. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson.
Stratton, G. M. Experimental Psychology and its Bearing upon Culture. Macmillan. $2.
Stratton-Porter, Gene. The Song of the Cardinal. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co.
Streamer, D. Perverted Proverbs. R. H. Russell.
Stuckenberg, J. H. W. Sociology: The Science of Human Society. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Taylor, E. R. Visions, and Other Verse. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.25.
The Centenary Edition of Ralph Waldo Emerson's Complete Works: (1) Essays: First Series. (2) Nature Addresses and Lectures. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
The International Year Book. Edited by F. M. Colby, H. T. Peck, and E. L. Engle. Dodd, Mead & Co.
The Kempton-Wace Letters. Macmillan. $1.50.
The Portuguese Expedition to Abyssinia in 1541-1543. Translated by R. S. Whiteway. London: The Hakluyt Society.
The Prose Works of William Makepeace Thackeray: (1) The Book of Snobs; (2) Cornhill to Cairo, etc. Edited by Walter Jerrold. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1 each.
Thirteen Satires of Juvenal. Translated into English by S. G. Owen. London: Methuen & Co. 2s. 6d.
Tissier, P. L. Pneumotherapy, including Aërotherapy and Inhalation Methods and Therapy. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.
Villa, Guido. Contemporary Psychology. Translated by Harold Manacorda. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. New York: Macmillan.
Waddington, Mary K. Letters of a Diplomat's Wife. Scribners.
Wasson, G. S. Cap'n Simeon's Store. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Williams, F. H. The Roentgen Rays in Medicine and Surgery. 3rd ed. Macmillan. $6.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 18, 1903.

The Week.

On June 10 the Federal grand jury at Montgomery asked Judge Jones of the United States Court for a construction of the act of the Alabama Legislature known as the Criminal Contract law. It is partly under the provisions of this statute, enacted in the session of 1901-1902, and cunningly designed to operate solely against ignorant and friendless negroes, that a great deal of the iniquity has been practised. It is entitled, an act "to punish any person who has contracted in writing to labor or serve for any given time . . . and who, before the expiration of such contract and without the consent of the other party, abandons such contract," etc. This is the statute which Judge Jones decided yesterday to be in conflict with the Federal Constitution, and therefore null and void. How great a blow this will be to the defence in the peonage cases will be understood by any one familiar with the method pursued in reënslaving the negroes. Arrested and fined, often illegally, for trivial offences, they are then "sold" as convicts. The purchaser goes through the form of making them sign a contract for a year's labor—or for two or three, as the case may be. They agree to work as directed, consent to be under armed guards, and to be locked up at night, and to submit to whatever discipline their employers (or owners) may see fit to inflict. Any impartial court would hold, we suppose, that all such contracts, manifestly made under duress, were invalid. But Judge Jones has gone further and struck at the Criminal Contract law itself. This he declares unconstitutional, as being in conflict with the Constitutional guarantees against imprisonment for debt. The result can only be to weaken if not destroy the defence which the Alabama slave-drivers expected to set up, and to make the prospect of conviction brighter.

The decision by the Supreme Court of Tennessee that the "Jim Crow" car law of 1903 is unconstitutional, ends one attempt to force a street car company to discriminate between blacks and whites. The Memphis *Commercial-Appeal* says that the law was conceived under circumstances "which had best not be related at this time," that it was "almost surreptitiously hurried through the Senate of the last General Assembly," and that it is now declared "invalid, illogical, unjust, and unconstitutional." There was strong opposition to the bill in Memphis, not because of any dislike for the principle involved, but because it was certain to work hardship to the travelling public, particularly as the bill called for a division of the cars, and not for separate ones for blacks and whites. The company never attempted to obey the law, and was warned by white people that if it did its officials would be enjoined. The matter was finally tested by two citizens asking for the indictment of the officials for failure to enforce the law, which resulted in a fine of $200. The Supreme Court remits the fine and quashes the indictment. So sweeping is the victory that there is a general belief that the subject will be let alone for some time to come. In the few places where the Jim Crow law has been applied to street cars, it does not work well from any point of view. The head of the New Orleans railways was, we believe, recently fined for failure to obey the law. One of the main obstacles to its extension is the increased running expenses involved. In the South, as elsewhere, racial prejudices usually disappear when to insist upon them means that the "superior" race will be out of pocket thereby.

New definitions of "business" are offered every day. Whenever Walking Delegate Parks said to his callers, "Now talk business," he meant, "Now produce your bribes." Much the same idea of practical affairs seems to have pervaded the gang of post-office thieves. The evidence taken at Baltimore on Thursday was highly significant. When the innocent contractor proposed to furnish to the Government for 60 cents mail pouches which cost him 35, the purchasing agent at once indignantly remonstrated that there was no "business" in that. "Take my advice and put in a bid at 90." Said and done, and the 40 per cent. "rake-off" to the agent was the fit reward of his talent. But the transaction was only sneak-thief robbery compared with the illustrations of the same principle in 1898. We were credibly informed of one shipowner who wanted to sell some vessels to the Government for $1,250,000, but was told by the official go-between that he might just as well ask $3,000,000. He declined to go into the fine speculation, apparently believing that, though Tacitus called money "the nerves of war," it required too much "nerve" to rob the Government of so great a sum.

Things are indeed coming to a pretty pass in the postal scandals when both Mr. Thomas C. Platt and the Grand Jury are credited with a sudden interest in the developments in the New York Post-office. We are not so base as to join some of our contemporaries in believing that Mr. Platt's trip to Washington was solely for the purpose of preventing a further inquiry into Mr. Van Cott's office in order to protect the local Republican machine from certain revelations bound to come if there were a careful investigation. No, indeed. We firmly believe that Mr. Platt went to tell Mr. Roosevelt that his machine had nothing to fear from the most relentless probing into its relations with the post-office, and that he hoped no guilty man would be allowed to escape. It will make no difference to his fearlessly upright soul whether it is or is not shown that Perry S. Heath approved the violation of the civil-service laws which made possible the appointment of Postmaster Van Cott's son. Mr. Heath, by the way, is beginning to deserve the title of the "ever-present Mr. Heath." Probe into the office of the Attorney-General for the Post-office and Mr. Heath bobs up serenely. Look into Mr. Machen's charges, and behold, you run across Perry Heath. Investigate the allegations in regard to the Salaries Division, and there is our brave Mr. Heath once more. Even in New York as well as in Cuba and Porto Rico, the far-reaching influence of this peerless Indiana statesman apparently made itself felt.

Fresh revelations regarding the walking delegate, Parks, tend to contradict his statement that the money he extorted from the Hecla Iron Works was used by him to compensate the workmen for their lost time; but even if he had used it for that purpose, the crime would have been the same in the eye of the law. A strike had been ordered by Parks on the ground that the works had non-union men in its employ. That was a false charge: there were no such men in the company's employ. When this was proved so that Parks himself could no longer deny it, he demanded pay for the time the men had lost while the investigation was going on. Obviously, Parks himself was the person to make good this loss to his followers, because he was the one who had caused it, but he had a club in his hands with which to enforce his orders, and he used it. This was blackmail. In contemplation of law, it was extortion. It was immaterial whether the Hecla people had non-union men in their employ or not. It made no difference whether Parks divided the money with his underlings or not. If he turned it over to the treasurer of the union it could be recovered at law, and all the parties who received it knowingly, whether in a

fiduciary capacity or otherwise, would have been guilty and liable to punishment. As Mr. Jerome says, it would help Mr. Parks's case in its moral aspects if he had turned the money over to the men, but his liability to the penalties of the law would not have been lessened thereby.

To continue the lockout in the building trade until the unions give evidence of complete reformation is merely good business. This action puts the unions where they belong—on the basis of corporations or individuals whose commercial credit is bad. With such customers a prudent concern deals strictly on a cash basis, refusing long contracts and extended credits. Similarly, the contractors would be foolish to come to any permanent agreement with ill-disciplined bodies and their corrupt officials. Organized labor cannot complain of being treated according to its works. In fact, such an attitude as that of the Employers' Association should be welcomed by unionism generally; for the present lockout is accompanied by the statement that the employers have no other expectation than to deal indefinitely with labor unions. All that their action amounts to is simply a challenge to the demoralized unions of the building trades to purge themselves of corrupt and frivolous practices, and to assume the responsibility properly exacted of all who have large business operations in charge. It is clear that those unions which, accepting the challenge, offer, instead of the old sentimental plea for labor's rights, the inducement of proved honesty and common sense, will be greatly the gainers.

The tremendous flood losses in the valleys of the Kaw, Des Moines, and lower Missouri Rivers ought to awaken the people of the West to the magnitude of the problem confronting them. The destruction of property running into tens of millions, together with the hundreds of fatalities accompanying the mad rush of waters, teaches a lesson that should not be forgotten. Though the floods wrought desolation throughout a wide territory, extending as they did from central Kansas to the Mississippi far below St. Louis, they had but one origin. Like conditions of rainfall prevailed over all their different sources, widely separated though they were. It is estimated that fully $30,000,000 will be needed to replace the ruined structures, the railway bridges, the manufactories, and dwellings—not to mention the crops destroyed or badly damaged. The West does not often have such a flood as this, but it does have floods nearly every year—these overflows alternating, apparently, with periods of drought that are far more destructive in property value, though, of course, not attended by the element of personal danger. The amount of this one season's loss, spent in the conservation of the natural rainfall in the prairie region, would go far to prevent floods. The configuration of the sharply sloping plains, while it lends itself to the rapid accumulation of a vast tide of flood water, is also favorable to its impounding. An early effort should be made, beginning with the country at the foothills of the mountains, and extending through the entire arid and semi-arid belt on the eastern slope of the Rockies, to catch the water in reservoirs and canals in such a way that even the deluge of the past fortnight could be held, and its force distributed through many days or weeks. Furthermore, the impounded waters might be used for irrigation, thus adding to the wealth of the localities where it is most needed. This question of the control and utilization of the natural waters is now upon the country.

In a review of the wool trade, for the annual report of the Chamber of Commerce, Mr. Louis Windmüller draws attention to the fact that the price of carpet wool has been rising during recent years, in consequence of the great demand for carpets in the United States. These wools are not and cannot be produced in this country. The supply comes mainly from Turkey, India, China, and other half-starved countries. The Dingley tariff provides that wools costing not more than 12 cents per pound at the place of exportation shall pay a duty of 4 cents per pound, or 33 per cent., ad valorem. If valued at more than 12 cents per pound, the duty shall be 7 cents per pound, or about 60 per cent. ad valorem, Hence it comes to pass that whenever the demand for carpets carries the price of the raw material above 12 cents, the Government advances the duty to almost double the former rate. And this is by way of encouraging manufacture and protecting American labor! There ought not to be any duty on these wools, or on any wools for that matter; but if there is to be such a duty it ought not to increase merely because the foreign price rises.

With all Senator Lodge's eminent ability, he lacks fervor and conviction as a eulogist. Readers of his praise of President Roosevelt in the Boston *Post* will not fail to note that the phrases are cold and perfunctory. To say that when President McKinley was snatched away from "important duties then unsettled," Roosevelt "continued that policy," is perhaps an infelicity due to the reporter; to add that the President has not "disturbed conditions," is at best negative praise, and we can imagine that the author of the anti-Trust campaign will hardly desire such a certificate of innocuousness. Trying to warm up, Senator Lodge remarks: "I have seen many Presidents in my time and numerous candidates, but President Roosevelt is the most wonderful of them all, in my experience"—with more to the same purport. Of this nothing is to be said except that it lacks the lyric cry. To realize its inadequacy, one has only to imagine the situation reversed, and the President praising Lodge. What colloquially affectionate, perhaps genially profane phrase Mr. Roosevelt would have found for the man who admits that he is the President's closest friend, we dare not imagine, but this is certain, that no *raison d'état* would have tied him down to the academic frigidity of the junior Senator from Massachusetts. All of which goes to show that there are diversities of gifts, and that the simple geniality which a laudator of President Roosevelt should command is not compatible with supreme ability at pulling convention wires and strangling infant treaties in the dark.

Following closely upon the organization of a General Staff for the army comes the proposal of a similar body in the navy. In that service the need of such a staff has by no means been as urgent as in the army. In the latter the bureau chiefs were until lately appointed to hold office until death or retirement. In the navy they are selected for a period of four years, and, acting together, have of themselves formed a General Staff which showed its usefulness and foresight in the war with Spain. But the navy now seeks another arrangement, not being satisfied with the addition of a General Board, over which Admiral Dewey has presided for three years, or with a board which deals with the construction of vessels and their armament. The new plan is an unwieldy one, yet it retains the principle of centring responsibility upon one officer, who, like the army chief of staff, is to be the real commander of the navy. The proposal contemplates the retention of the General Board, which is to advise the Secretary on such matters as the country's naval policy, the increase of the fleet, etc., and is also to have a power of revision in connection with war plans. There is also to be an "Executive Committee of the General Staff," whose duties will comprise the formulation of war plans and the direction of all the general staff work. There are to be, in addition to these groups of officers and the chief of staff, chiefs of the three sections into which the General Staff itself is to be divided. Among these sections are to be apportioned the questions of plans and manœuvres, the organization of fleets, and matters of government of the personnel, now chiefly vested in the Bureau of Navigation. The material side of the navy is still to be in the

hands of the present staff bureaus as now organized.

The general effect of the plan, as it presents itself to the lay mind, is one of top-heaviness, and of calling for a large number of cooks to stir the naval broth. It is true that the chiefs of sections of the General Staff figure also as members of the Executive Committee and of the General Board, but the necessity for this board is certainly not apparent. Its advisory functions would seem to belong properly to the General Staff. Hitherto the General Board has been a most mischievous body, being responsible for much loose talk about the numerous ships needed and the necessity for outstripping Germany and other "dangerous" countries. As is the case with the army, the navy General Staff may be either a most useful or a most harmful body. If it confines itself to its proper functions it will doubtless add to the navy's efficiency. If it imitates the General Board, and embarks upon a policy of unlimited naval expenditures so that we may have a fleet calculated to "whip all creation," it is likely to become a nuisance and a serious menace.

The killing of the King and Queen of Servia, along with the Queen's brother and several of the King's Ministers, hardly finds a parallel in countries called civilized except in the later years of the Roman Empire, or in Russia in the century following Peter the Great. It appears that the murders were the work of the army. So it was the Pretorian Guard that ordinarily made away with the Roman emperors, and it was the Russian army, led by its highest officers, that dethroned and killed Peter III. and put Catharine II. on the throne. The recent fantastic doings of the young King of Servia has amused rather than excited the organs of public opinion in Europe, and did not prepare us for his tragic end. Servia has a constitutional government modelled on that of France under the Second Empire, with a Senate and a Council of State in addition to the Skupshtina, or national parliament. This constitution was adopted in 1901 at the instance of King Alexander, but he suspended it, on his own volition, a couple of months ago, long enough to get rid of the legislative body, which was disagreeable to him, and then put it in operation again. Now the first act of the new Government is to proclaim the constitution in full force and to summon Parliament.

Peter, by the grace of massacre and the vote of the new Skupshtina, King of Servia, announces that he will accept the throne, much as he deprecates the means by which it comes to him. That he had anything to do with plotting the murders, he vehemently denies. This may be easily believed. Still, can Christian Powers, it is asked, by recognizing his Government, admit the legitimacy of a régime built upon slaughter? But no such question really arises under international law. The duty of one Government towards a change of rule in another country is exhausted, so far as the matter of recognition is concerned, when it has been ascertained that the latter is securely a *de facto* government. If it holds the capital, has the backing of the army, and exercises governmental functions throughout its territory, then there is nothing for other nations to do but recognize it, no matter if its credentials are blood-stained. We may think what we please, or must, of the new rulers, but if they are the real rulers of the land, then it is with them, officially, that all our public dealings must be had. Even the September Massacres did not make the French Republic any the less supreme *de facto;* and though they shocked the friends of France and of humanity, like Fox and Romilly, did not alter the diplomatic situation. No more can the murders at Belgrade really affect the status of the new Servian Government in the eye of international law.

Mr. Balfour has decided, of two evils, to choose—both. On the one hand there was the mischief of a Cabinet containing members at daggers drawn; on the other, that of a Prime Minister who does not know his own mind on a question of vital interest to the country. Both calamitous conditions are to be preserved, Mr. Balfour says, if enough Conservatives, with the Irish members, will stand behind him to make his Government possible a little while longer on such terms. Office has been said to be an acquired taste, but, once indulged, we see how difficult it is to shake it off. The crisis is smoothed over, for the present, but Mr. Balfour's Government has received a mortal hurt. It has lost prestige irrecoverably, and that is worse than losing votes.

Mr. Chamberlain's preferential tariff ideas got cold comfort in the Lords on Monday. What little could be added to the hostile arguments recently advanced in the Commons was contributed by that veteran financier, Viscount Goschen, who demonstrated cogently that the proposed Zollverein would put the Treasury first under the will of the colonies, next at the mercy of wholly uncontrollable trade movements. Before venturing upon so hazardous an experiment, he urged his party to consider, first, that should protection prove financially disastrous, Great Britain could return to free trade only with the consent of the colonies, while, second, under the proposed tariff especially framed to stimulate importation from the colonies, the very increase of such imports would reduce in equal measure trade with non-British countries—in other words, would greatly diminish the amount of dutiable imports, and hence the Treasury receipts. Aside from Viscount Goschen's neat demonstration of the financial vicious circle into which Mr. Chamberlain is trying to draw his guileless countrymen, the interest of the session was personal, and lay largely in the contrast between the speeches of Lord Lansdowne and the Duke of Devonshire. Lord Lansdowne's attitude was very much that of his chief. With Mr. Balfour, his was the open-minded way. A tariff union would probably plunge the Empire into an embarrassing series of tariff wars, instancing Germany; but then, there were worse things than a show of force. Marching among those who wore revolvers, England might at least buy a revolver and display it. Being interpreted, this meant it was perfectly safe and politic to talk tariff union in the teeth of protectionist nations, and perhaps expedient to continue the talk indefinitely in a Parliamentary commission. Like Mr. Balfour, Lord Lansdowne studiously avoided criticism of Mr. Chamberlain.

German newspapers report another extraordinary occurrence in naval circles at Kiel, where Ensign Hüssner recently murdered an old schoolmate for failure to salute him properly. It seems that two ensigns, while out walking recently, met a crowd of drunken sailors and disorderly characters. Rather than invite trouble by passing them, the officers turned down a side street. A drunken sailor pursued them and struck Ensign Von Abel on the back of his head. The ensign controlled himself, and at once reported the case to his superiors. What was said to him by them is not known. It is a fact, however, that this latest victim of the barbarous Prussian "code of honor" went directly to his rooms and there killed himself. As he was otherwise of excellent reputation and standing, the unavoidable conclusion is that he was censured and reprimanded for his failure to purge his wounded dignity by the use of his sword. It is hardly surprising that, under these circumstances, young officers believe that "blood must flow" whenever they draw their swords, as Ensign Hüssner put it, and that they conceive it to be their duty to use their weapons whenever they fancy themselves insulted. Both Hüssner and Von Abel are to be pitied, for they are the victims of an atrocious system which flourishes because the older officers and the Emperor believe in it. The light sentence given to Hüssner—imprisonment for four years and one week—is fresh proof of this. And it is generally expected that he will be pardoned and allowed to wear the uniform again long before that period is over.

"HIGHER UP."

Postmaster-General Payne, returning from the Hanna wedding, has had to decide how far the investigations into the activities of his private clerk, Mr. Rand, shall go. That he now has ample reasons for such an inquiry is perfectly plain. Mr. Rand, it seems, not only has been interested in selling Mexican mining stock to his fellow-employees, but has also had a purely disinterested connection with a Virginia marble quarry which might be of great value to the Government in its future building operations in the District of Columbia. Unfortunately, there is every inherent probability that Mr. Rand has been "hustling for himself" in the manner indicated. It is a far too common occurrence, and Mr. Payne has another opportunity for public service by probing carefully into the conduct of his friend of thirty years. He has not yet given out Mr. Bristow's report upon the Tulloch charges. Mr. Bristow's findings, it is hinted, will be very interesting reading for Mr. Perry S. Heath. Fortunately for the country, Mr. Bristow is apparently not to be influenced by any party or political considerations. His work in Cuba showed him to be a man of unusual ability and determination. The reports of his activity and remarkable skill in going to the bottom of things are the most refreshing news that now comes from Washington.

Quite the rudest blow yet given to the Postmaster-General's complacency, in the face of the postal frauds, is that delivered by the Civil Service Commission on Saturday. In an official report it more than makes good some of the ugliest of the Tulloch charges—the very ones, in fact, which Messrs. Payne and Heath had treated with the loftiest contempt. With a full array of evidence, specifying names and dates, the Commission declares that the post-office in Washington was stuffed with favorites and incompetents, illegally appointed; in a word, that "the Department used the Washington post-office for political and personal purposes to an extent which left the authority of the postmaster in transfers and appointments but little more than nominal." As if to be perfectly explicit, and to leave no doubt at all where the blame must ultimately fall, the Commission adds that its investigation shows with absolute clearness that "most of the irregularities" were "directed by the Department, or requested or suggested by high Department officials."

Here we have the demand to go "higher up" met with a vengeance! The theory that there were only a few dishonest subordinates at once collapses. There was systematic violation of the law. The very men who were set to guard against what the Commission euphemistically calls "irregularities," were themselves the leaders in irregularity. It seems as if we were plunged back into the days of the star-route scandals, with their famous countersign, "Do this. Brady." The man who gave the orders in the later debauch of the public service was evidently First Assistant Postmaster-General Heath. He was directly charged with violations of the civil-service rules by Mr. Tulloch. It is beyond reasonable doubt that, when the Commission says a high official, it means Heath. His limping and evasive letter of denial really heightened the suspicion under which he rested. The interview with him, in which he deprecated the whole investigation, on the ground that it might implicate "the National Committee," was tantamount to confession. His guilt is made practically certain by the report of the Civil Service Commission. Mr. Tulloch's "hot air," as Mr. Payne called it, with incredible levity, has come to appear something very like the cold truth.

That there was, in fact, a conspiracy, or copartnership, of officials and politicians and Congressmen, to use the Post-Office for plunder, is now pretty clearly established. The official records in regard to the free-delivery routes are telltale. Their words "have fingers," and the fingers point straight to the leading managers of the Republican party. How did it happen that 3,792 out of the total of 11,199 rural routes in the whole United States were allotted to the four States of Ohio, Indiana, Iowa, and Illinois? Can we resist the conviction that there is a direct connection between that fact and the other fact that the most powerful Republican politicians and Congressmen come from those States? These things occurred under the soothing and blessed Administration of McKinley. Ohio was then in the saddle, and that skilled horseman, Senator Hanna, held the reins. It was also the time when Indiana was a power. Perry Heath was not the ingrate who would refuse to do what Hanna asked, or leave his own State out in the cold. Illinois and Iowa had great weight in committee and Cabinet, and weight meant nothing if not a disproportionate share of the spoils. It was evidently a merry time for the corruptionists. The country was too busy freeing Cuba from the corrupt rule of Spain to pay attention to our own Governmental get-rich-quick syndicates. So the work of exchanging personal favors—for such Heath and Machen were accustomed to call their appointments to office—went on at a great rate; Congressmen got money and offices for their local machines; in return they voted larger appropriations and higher salaries for the officials whom they at once bled and fed.

There is no longer any denying that the scandal was one of huge proportions. Its investigation has only begun. It has evidently been taken out of the hands of the nerveless Payne. He is now only a clerk to execute the President's orders. And that Mr. Roosevelt is bound, both by his personal character and his political interests, to tear away every veil that hides a guilty man, is obvious. The frauds had their origin before his accession to the Presidency. Whatever responsibility may rightly be attributed to him for not having unearthed them, will, in the popular judgment, be entirely forgotten if he now makes the work of exposure and punishment unsparing. And he could not stop it now, if he wished. The thing has got beyond suppressing. In self-defence, the Administration has but one course before it—to pull the cover off the cesspool, once for all, and to do the necessary disinfecting with a rough and thorough hand.

As for the rest of us, we must make our rulers, from the President down, understand that such crimes in the public service hurt us and make us angry. They are a national disgrace, which the people must resent. Any man who would excuse or shield a single guilty official or politician, we must make feel the weight of our displeasure. And, for the future, we must all insist, not merely upon a wholesale transfer of the detected rascals from office to jail, but upon new safeguards, new checks upon Congressional greed, new courage on the part of the Chief Executive, which will make the recurrence of the great national shame more difficult, if not impossible.

CURRENCY REFORM BACKWARD.

A financial journal published at Washington city has an article giving an outline of what are supposed to be the views on currency reform of some important banking interests in Wall Street. According to this authority, we need, for the purpose of securing an elastic currency, about $100,000,000 of new national banknotes "resting for security on high-class corporate bonds, and taxed heavily enough to make redemption of the varying issues immediately imperative in times of an excess of currency." The advantages of this scheme would be, says this writer, that "when it was no longer profitable for the banks to keep the issues outstanding, the much-needed contractability would be secured."

The Aldrich bill, which was introduced in the Senate in the last month of the last session of Congress, proposed to authorize the deposit of public money in national banks on the security of certain State, municipal, and railroad bonds. Simultaneously with its introduction, there were rumors in circulation that it was merely preliminary to a more important measure for the acceptance of the same kind of securities for the issue of national banknotes. Of course, arguments for the one might be asserted valid for the other. As the Aldrich bill will probably be reintro-

duced in the next Congress, it may be reasonably inferred that, if it passes, the project outlined in the Washington financial journal will shortly follow.

Before looking at the scientific aspects of this plan, it is worth while to glance at its probable influence on current financial operations—that is, upon the stock market. The first effect of the measure would be to elevate the prices of the securities accepted as the basis of banknote circulation to figures approaching those of Government bonds. This would itself constitute a boom in stocks, but it would have another effect quite as notable. It would clear the market of $100,000,000 or more of securities now held by the investing public, transferring them to the Treasury vaults as security for banknotes, and making room for an equal amount of the newer stocks which the issuers have been vainly trying to float for some time past. That is a dazzling prospect in itself, apart from any effect which the measure might have on the currency.

As to its influence upon the latter, we must repeat what we have said many times before, that a currency secured by bonds lodged in the Treasury, whether Government or corporate bonds, never can be an elastic currency, since the element of bank credit does not enter into it. The banks in that case do not "issue" notes, they buy them from the Government, and then make such use of them as they can. Whether the notes are based on bonds of the United States or on those of railroads makes no difference so far as elasticity is concerned. More profit may be made from issues of the latter sort, but the principle is not altered in any way by the substitution of the one kind of security for the other.

Upon this point there is an important communication from Mr. James B. Forgan in the current number of the *Bankers' Magazine*, in which he shows what is meant by an elastic currency, and how alone it can be attained. The common belief is that elasticity means expansion. Mr. Forgan shows that it means contraction also, and that the two processes must go together in order to have any beneficial effect upon commerce. Bankers make a profit on their circulation only when it is out. When it will no longer stay out, but returns to them, it represents a net loss if it has been bought from the Government. On the other hand, if it has been issued by the bank on its own credit, then when it returns it costs nothing for the bank to hold it unused in its vaults until the public demand calls for it again. Currency issued as a part of a speculation in bonds does not have any necessary relation to the demands of general business. It rises and falls in volume according to the state of the bond market, quite irrespective of seed time or harvest or other emergencies of trade.

A striking illustration of these principles was supplied last year when Secretary Shaw sought to apply artificial stimulants to the national bank circulation, in order to meet a real need. He first ordered the Bureau of Engraving and Printing to prepare some $60,000,000 to $70,000,000 in national banknotes for some of those banks which had not yet availed themselves of their full privilege of circulation. When the usual fall stringency became marked, the Secretary went over a list of national banks holding public moneys, and whenever a bank had not yet taken out what he judged to be a reasonable amount of circulation, he intimated that it ought to do so.

Having the notes already printed, he was able to respond at once to applications for them made as the result of his suggestion. Next he increased the number of bank depositaries and, in some instances, the amount of depositary accounts already existing, upon the express condition that the banks thus favored were to take out at once an amount of circulation equivalent to the amount of public moneys so deposited with each. And lastly, he permitted the depositary banks to substitute municipal and State bonds as security for public deposits, provided the banks so making substitution would immediately pledge the United States bonds thus released as security for additional circulation.

By all these means, extraordinary in character and quasi-coercive, Secretary Shaw added to the national bank circulation some $25,000,000. This was not a net increase, however. The addition barely sufficed to overcome the tendency to retire circulation which was manifest last year. The new circulation taken out exceeded the amount of circulation retired by only $2,000,000 to $3,000,000, showing in the clearest manner that the present banknote system can furnish no relief to the money market, however great the stringency may be. Changing the kind of security while retaining the system would not perceptibly better the present condition.

BLACKMAIL.

Mr. Jerome's probe has already struck deep into the abscess. The account which he gave out last week of the way in which extortion, bribery, and blackmail have been preying upon the building trades in this city is of the deepest significance. Both employers and men are involved. A suspected but hitherto unexplored world of "graft" is thrown open to our gaze. As is always the case when revelations of this sort once get going, they thicken even while we are looking. Guilty men take fright. Informers seek to make their peace. Victims pluck up courage to narrate their wrongs. It was so in St. Louis when Mr. Folk got his first briber in the toils; it was so in Washington when the earliest postal rogues were caught; it is so, and will be increasingly, as Mr. Jerome's inquiries and legal proceedings continue. The arrest of Parks was the bold act which let loose the avalanche. The rest will come of itself.

It is a depressing story. The manhood, courage, and honesty of neither masters nor men appear in a happy light. One scarcely knows which more to blame—or pity. As for the trades-union side, what we have is simply the sorrowful old tale over again. The labor leaders have neither ability nor character commensurate with the tasks they undertake, or the irresponsible power that is put into their hands. We admit that there are exceptions. It was cynically said last summer that John Mitchell was only waiting to be bought. Apparently he could not be. Doubtless there are other men prominent in the labor movement who are filled with a fiery enthusiasm for their work and their class, and who are fanatical in their honesty as in their other qualities. But faith in them will be rudely shaken, even if unjustly so, by the disclosures in connection with the New York walking delegates. The proved corruption of these men, their greed, their recklessness, their cruel deceit of the very workmen upon whose weakness and credulity they wax fat, will discredit their whole order.

In so far as this may result in opening the eyes of the laboring classes and of the entire community to certain fundamental truths of human nature and of morality, it will do good. Wise leadership cannot be improvised in a trades union any more than in a college or church or government. You cannot take the first man you meet in the street and give him power without accountability. If you do, the weakness of mortals being what it is, the chances are ten to one that the temptation will be too strong for him. He will, as we see that the man Parks did, grow arrogant with his opportunities and use them for base ends. Only the rare leader, the selected and tried man, is fit to be given such unlimited power of oppression as Parks enjoyed. This is the thing for workingmen everywhere to take to heart. They must be on their guard against foolish and venal leaders. How incredibly stupid the management of the building trades unions has been in all this vicinity may be seen by any one who will look about him. Building has been brought practically to a standstill. No one contracts for so much as a dog kennel unless compelled. But this is, for the building trades, to destroy the chief benefit of prosperity. That consists more in steady employment than in high wages. But the labor leaders have wantonly thrown it away, and have plunged thousands of carpenters and masons into distress. The demand

for more mind and better character on the part of the men who control the policy of trades unions could not well be put in higher relief.

But what of the employers who meekly submit to blackmail, who secretly pay bribes, who craftily make arrangements with the walking delegate whereby they think they will get an advantage over their rivals? Well, we scarcely know whether to exclaim at their folly or grow indignant at their wickedness. Any man who surrenders to a blackmailer is a fool. That is a truth established by the well-nigh universal experience of mankind. When you begin to pay extortion money, you never know where you will end. Once in the power of a blackmailer, your blood will be sucked. The daughter of the horseleech was not a circumstance to the insatiate greed of a man who lives by blackmail. That is a general principle; and any employer, or corporation, that stoops or cringes before a blackmailer, thinking the thing can be done just for that once, is really inviting renewed assaults, and is guilty of the most glaring disregard of his own ultimate interest.

Even if it were not so, it would be the duty of every honest man and good citizen to refuse to pay one cent to the blackmailer, whether he came in the guise of a walking delegate or a Tammany agent. If extortion is a crime—as the Penal Code declares—no man can submit to it and remain innocent. The whole transaction is necessarily tainted with fraud, and, in strict morals, if not in law, the powers that pay are fully as guilty, fully as dangerous a class, as the powers that prey. This truth it is just as essential to preach among corporations as it is to indoctrinate labor unions with the gospel of mental and moral capacity. We have no patience with the men who weakly give in to the blackmailer, or with the excuses offered for them. In most cases, they could defeat the blackmailer and land him in jail by expending half the money they give in bribes; and even if they could not, it is their duty to fight blackmail to the death, and see their business go to ruin, if necessary, rather than strike hands with criminals, or pay one penny for corrupt purposes.

THE SHIPYARD SCANDAL.

The question of the Shipyard Trust's collapse is now before the courts, where it undoubtedly belongs. There are some phases of this financial scandal—destined, very likely, to become famous in the history of the recent bubble-blowing period—on which we feel justified in commenting, even before the courts have handed down their opinion on the question of outright fraud. President Schwab of the Steel Corporation, whose relations to the Shipyard promotion are made a part of the complaint in the pending suit, makes his own answer out of court. In the suit for a receiver, instituted last week, it was alleged that the purchase of the Bethlehem Steel Company from Mr. Schwab was made by the Shipyard promoters after their associates had "underwritten" the original Shipyard combination, and was made without their knowledge. Further, it was asserted in the complaint that Mr. Schwab was reimbursed for an original outlay of $3,000,000 in the Bethlehem property by receiving $10,000,000 bonds of the Shipyard combination, $10,000,000 preferred stock, and $10,000,000 common.

The burden of the complaint is, that Mr. Schwab, through this immense inflation on a paper basis, received such preferential treatment over the rest of the Shipyard security-holders that he was able eventually, when the bubble burst, to assert the power to control the whole. This power, it is shown, is conceded by the plan of reorganization, which offers to Mr. Schwab, in exchange for his $10,000,000 holdings of old bonds, new bonds covering all the Shipyard properties, while asking other present first-mortgage bondholders to take new stock instead. It supplements this part of its complaint by charging that buyers of the Shipyard bonds and stock, outside of the block of securities issued to Mr. Schwab, were induced to buy through "gross and persistent misrepresentations by the organizers" as to the company's assets, earnings, and condition.

This last allegation no one appears to dispute. The reorganization circular, in proposing settlement with Mr. Schwab, admits it. Instead of earning, as the original prospectus promised, interest on bonds, 6 per cent. on preferred shares, and a handsome surplus over, the reorganizers say:

> "By reason of excessive mortgage obligations of the United States Shipbuilding Company, its borrowing capacity and credit have become so seriously impaired that outstanding notes are being pressed for payment, and the making of further loans is rendered impossible."

The $10,000,000 bonds, issued as part payment for the Bethlehem Steel Company, make up 40 per cent. of these "excessive mortgage obligations."

Mr. Schwab's narrative of his own part in the "deal" lacks clearness in some respects, especially as regards actual ownership of the Bethlehem property before its sale to the Shipyard combination. The Shipyard promoters went to Schwab with their proposals, supposing him to be the owner. So every one else in Wall Street had supposed, from a statement publicly given out in September, 1901, that most of the Bethlehem Company's $15,000,000 stock had been purchased at $24 per share, through Drexel & Co. of Philadelphia, by Charles M. Schwab. Mr. Schwab, however, according to his own story, informed the Shipyard people, when they came to him some months later, that J. P. Morgan & Co. controlled the Bethlehem stock. In other words, it had apparently been turned over by Mr. Schwab, but in a curious way; the banking house, Mr. Schwab explains, having "acquired the Bethlehem Steel Company for the original Steel Corporation syndicate." This strikes us as a little odd, and probably will so strike subscribers to that syndicate.

Passing that, what happened in the trade with the Shipyard combination? Mr. Schwab tells us:

> "I called upon J. P. Morgan & Co., and after several conferences they decided they would be willing to sell and dispose of the stock of the Bethlehem Steel Company provided payment therefor were made in cash. I communicated to Messrs. Nixon and Dresser the conclusion of Morgan & Co., and the former then wanted to know if I would be willing to assist them in securing the funds. As they had closed their underwriting for the shipbuilding company, I entered into negotiations with them looking to my furnishing the necessary cash requirements. . . .
>
> "We finally agreed that I should secure for them the stock of the Bethlehem Steel Company and furnish the money necessary to make payment therefor to J. P. Morgan & Co., and in consideration thereof I should have the benefit of the accumulations since I first bought the property, and receive $10,000,000 in bonds and $10,000,000 in each kind of fully paid stock.
>
> "Thereupon I took up the matter with Morgan & Co., who insisted that they must have in addition to the cash invested 25 per cent. of each kind of stock which I was to receive, and which I agreed I would be willing to have Messrs. Nixon and Dresser deduct from the $10,000,000 of each kind of stock they had agreed to give me, so that Morgan & Co. might receive it as additional payment for the Bethlehem stock."

Mr. Schwab contends that his actual outlay in the matter must be ascertained by adding to his cash payment to the bankers the accumulated earnings in the hands of the Bethlehem Company. But if he was buying the property from one owner for the benefit of another, we fail to see what claim he had upon it, save for the actual purchase price. Mr. Schwab's explanation shows that his personal interest in the Bethlehem transfer was the advancing of $9,000,000 cash, for which he received the $10,000,000 Shipyard bonds and $20,000,000 stock as above described. He asserts very positively that he believes himself to have been a loser by the operation. This is possible, when at the present time the Stock Exchange bids 1 cent on the dollar for the Shipyard common stock, and 3 for the preferred. But we do not regard that fact as conclusive in the matter. We cannot see that even Mr. Schwab's frank proposition, to take back the Bethlehem property and restore to the Shipyard Company the securities received for it, helps the matter very greatly. The question is, whether paper inflation of this sort was the kind of business in which these gentlemen had any right to be engaged.

As the affair turned out, efforts to unload the Shipyard shares on the public very generally failed. It did not, how-

ever, fail for want of false statements to the public. What we feel bound to ask is, what Mr. Schwab would have done with his $10,000,000 common and $10,000,000 preferred if the fish had swallowed the bait. Let us imagine the simple public bidding for Shipyard stock at a valuation fixed by belief in the organizers' prospectus; what then? To us, the most serious thing about this whole financial scandal is the easy conscience which it shows financiers in places of great trust to have possessed in their attitude towards the public. It is conceivable that Mr. Schwab, like many others of our newly made "multi-millionaires," shared in the late delusions regarding paper capital, and really believed that riches could be got overnight, without hurting anybody else, by merely substituting thirty for nine millions in a balance sheet. We observe a good deal of apology, by projectors of this and similar enterprises, on that ground; they being simple people and not used to figures. We scarcely think the excuse will be accepted. It is at all events a sort of simplicity which we should greatly regret to see becoming general among the practical leaders of American industry.

THE SHERMAN STATUE.

NEW YORK, June 10, 1903.

No event has ever taken place in this country of equal artistic importance with the unveiling, two weeks ago, of the heroic equestrian statue of General Sherman by Augustus Saint Gaudens. Our public monuments are not always such as a civilized nation should be proud of, but we have unquestionably produced, both in painting and in sculpture, much respectable and some excellent work. In the Sherman statue we have much more than this—we have, in an American city, a monument which, in conception and in execution, is among the half-dozen masterpieces of its kind in the world. The history of such a work must always be interesting, and it is well to set down now, before they are forgotten, the main facts and dates of its production.

Eleven years elapsed between the commissioning of the statue, in 1892, and the unveiling on Memorial Day, May 30, 1903. Undoubtedly, the time seemed long to the committee in charge of the work, but Saint Gaudens is one of those artists for whom it is worth while to wait. During three of the eleven years his work was much interrupted by a grave illness; during the other eight years he was more or less constantly at work upon the group, and he estimates that it cost him about three years of actual labor. His infinite painstaking, his constant revision, his inability to rest satisfied with anything if he could conceive of a possible betterment, spread the three years out over the eight.

The sketch was completed in a few months and accepted by the committee; in it the essential features of the group were fixed, and they have not been materially altered. This is important as showing that the conception of the Victory-led rider antedated by some years any possible knowledge of the somewhat similar conception of Begas's "Emperor William" in Berlin. By a strange coincidence, then, the same idea, wholly new in art, seems to have occurred at about the same time to two artists widely distant in space. In the intervals of other work, during the next five years, the horse and rider were modelled on a small scale and the Victory was studied in the nude. In 1897 Mr. Saint Gaudens went to Paris and there began the full-sized group, devoting most of his time to it, and in 1899 the horse and rider, without the Victory, were exhibited at the Salon of the Champ de Mars. The merit of the statue was at once recognized, and it was given a place of honor and greatly praised by artists and critics. At the Paris Exposition of 1900 the whole group, in plaster, was seen for the first time, and for it and a group of earlier works the sculptor was awarded a *grand prix*.

In spite of this success, he was not satisfied with the work. It was to be cast in Paris, but returning, seriously ill, to this country, he brought a plaster cast with him, built a studio near Windsor, Vt., in which to set it up, and began making changes. He remodelled the head of the Victory, her wings and palm branch, the cloak of the rider, and various smaller details, and sent the remodelled parts to the bronze-founders in Paris. The group, with these changes, was then sent, still in plaster, to the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, where it was the principal cause of an extraordinary honor to the artist. The jury of the section of Fine Arts, composed of painters, sculptors, and architects, unanimously recommended that a Special Diploma and Medal of Honor, apart from and above all other awards in the Exposition, be created for Mr. Saint Gaudens, and the recommendation was adopted by the general jury, and the award was made. This success, like former ones, seems to have been a signal to the artist to recommence his struggle for perfection. The bronze was brought to Windsor and set up in the open air, and experiments in gilding and toning were begun, while the base was remodelled and twice cut in granite. Finally, in the spring of this year, the work was ready to be shipped to New York and placed upon its pedestal in the Plaza, near the entrance to Central Park.

The type of artistic temperament which leads to continual changes and reworkings is not without its special dangers which a more positive and self-assured mind—what the French call an "esprit primesautier"—escapes. It has even happened to Mr. Saint Gaudens to produce a work the final form of which he would now admit to be inferior to the original conception. When, however, the original conception is clear and tenaciously held, the revision of details tends only to greater purity and beauty of statement, as it has done in the present instance. Sherman had seemed to the boyish Saint Gaudens the typical American hero; to the matured artist he had sat for an admirable bust. When the sculptor was called upon to prepare the monument to the great soldier, he was equipped with a knowledge of his subject which the designer of a posthumous statue rarely possesses, and with a genuine enthusiasm for his task. His idea came to him in such definite and vigorous form that his subsequent labor was but the refining of details; he was sure of his masterpiece from the start.

The Sherman monument is the latest term in the long evolution of a remarkable talent. In its earlier stages this talent might have seemed more decorative—almost more pictorial—than purely sculptural. To many it appeared that Saint Gaudens's best things were his dainty portrait reliefs of women and children, his exquisite caryatids and angelic figures; wonderful play of line and a delicate caressing of surface seemed his most notable characteristics. These characteristics he has retained, but in one after another of his more important works he has shown an ever-increasing grasp of structural form and a steady growth in masculine vigor of conception, until he has revealed himself a great sculptor in the stricter sense, as he was already a great artist.

The group is about twice the size of life in each dimension, so that the figure of the General, if standing, would be about twelve feet high. Tall and erect he sits his horse, his military cloak bellying out behind him, his trousers strapped down over his shoes, his hat in his right hand, dropping at arm's length behind the knee, and his bare head, like that of an old eagle, looking straight forward. The horse is as long and thin as his rider, with a tremendous stride; and his big head, closely reined in, twitches viciously at the bridle. Before the horse and rider, half walks, half flies, a splendid winged figure—one arm outstretched, the other brandishing the palm—Victory leading them on. She has a certain fierce wildness of aspect, but her rapt gaze and half-open mouth indicate the seer of visions: peace is ahead and an end of war. On the bosom of her gown is broidered the eagle of the United States, for she is an American Victory, as this is an American man on an American horse; and the broken pine bough beneath the horse's feet localizes the victorious march—it is the march through Georgia to the sea.

One of the most remarkable things about the group is the extraordinary sense of movement and of irresistible force conveyed by it. The gait of the horse is only a quick walk, but horse and rider and striding Victory move onward with a rush, and one feels that nothing can arrest their progress. The base of the statue is not of bronze, as is usual, but is cut in a pinkish granite like that of the pedestal, and, though it has been gilded like the figures, the difference in color and texture which remains seems to aid the sense of motion by separating the figures from the ground which they move over rather than grow out of. The whole treatment of color and texture is rather daring and altogether successful, and gives the monument a decorative beauty and splendor which does not detract from its inherent gravity. The Greeks, builders of chryselephantine statues, would have appreciated this. A most interesting artifice, not found in the original sketch, is the change of level in the base. The ground slopes slightly upward from the rear until it is highest just in front of the forefoot of the horse, then falls rapidly to the front. This gives greater height to the figure of Sherman, while increasing the sense of strain and push in the hind quarters of the horse; but its most remarkable effect is in giving a sort of downward flutter to the Victory, so that, though marching on the ground, she seems newly lighted there from a previous aerial existence.

From every point of view the composition builds up superbly. The flow of line in wing and limb and drapery is perfect; the heads are magnificent in characterization; the anatomical structure, human and equine, is thoroughly understood; and the surface modelling is beautiful in the extreme.

The finest equestrian statue of modern times is undoubtedly the earliest of all in date, the "Gattamelata" by Donatello in Padua. In serene dignity and restrained strength it has never been approached, and is perhaps unapproachable. Its air of quiet courage and determination makes the picturesque swagger of Verocchio's "Colleoni" at Venice seem almost theatrical by comparison. We can only guess what Leonardo would have done or what Michael Angelo might have done, and there are really no more equestrian statues of high rank until our own day. Artists even forgot how a horse walks, and critics still repeat that the gait represented by Donatello and Verocchio is an "amble." Of more recent works the two finest seem to me to be the "Jeanne d'Arc," by Frémiet, in the Place des Pyramides, and the other "Jeanne d'Arc," by Paul Dubois. Frémiet's statue, in its earlier form, was infinitely charming rather than great. He has remodelled it, and the general opinion seems to be that the added robustness of the figure has not attained to grandeur, while there has been some loss of charm. Dubois's Jeanne is also a slim and dainty figure, with a certain quaintness of attitude and a quality of spiritual beauty. Both of these statues are, technically, masterpieces, but they are not more masterly in execution than is Saint Gaudens's Sherman, and they are, perhaps, less imaginative and original in conception, and have certainly less of heroic grandeur. Before them both, and immediately after the Colleoni, if after it at all, I should be inclined to place the most recent of the world's great equestrian statues.

KENYON COX.

THE PALACE OF MINOS.—II.

CNOSSOS, April 24, 1903.

When we came down from the heights of Phaistos reluctantly, we felt that after this anything else, even Cnossos, must be an anticlimax; and although we gained time, by our all too early departure, to explore the so-called Labyrinth of Gortyna and have another period of two hours at the great inscription, we were not consoled. Our hasty departure was caused by the need of getting along to a place where we could secure luncheon. It was scandalous that for such a reason we gave only little over an hour to that splendid palace.

On our long circuit from Phaistos to Cnossos, among many places of absorbing interest there was none more interesting than the cave at Psychro, in the flank of Mount Dicte, which overlooks the Lasithean plain, a great lake bottom in the heart of Crete. There can be no doubt that for ages the water stood five hundred feet deep up to the mouth of this cave, which served as an overflow pipe until a lower opening was forced through. Then the cave became a sacred grotto, rivalling in renown the two great sacred caves on Mount Ida. It was cleared out by Mr. Hogarth, formerly director of the British School at Athens, about three years ago; and, in spite of the quantity of votive offerings that had already been found and sold by peasants, an astonishing amount was discovered by Mr. Hogarth—bronze and terracotta figurines, vases both Mycenæan and of the older kind now known as Kamares ware, from the great find in the cave on the south slope of Ida above the village of Kamares. Double axes, knives, and other objects of bronze were found in considerable abundance. But the cave itself, which runs down deep into the mountain, and in one part by its stalactites and stalagmites is made to look like a vast organ, is well worth a long journey. In the crevices between some of these stalactites some of the most interesting figurines were found. There is little doubt that many more have become embedded in them by the slow deposit of centuries of dripping.

When, having traversed our great circle, we came back to Herakleion, we had two days and a half for Cnossos and the museum. Towards the evening of our last day's ride we passed the low hill of Cnossos with the British flag waving over it, and still thought of it as in some respects likely to prove an anti-climax to Phaistos. But a visit to this low hill the next day removed this misgiving. The site of the palace of Phaistos is superb, and the palace itself grand; its plan is clear, and coincides in so many points with that of Cnossos that it throws great light on the latter. It is great good fortune that the excavations of the two were partly synchronous. But it is Cnossos that is the more important.

Mr. Evans gave the whole forenoon to a systematic explanation of the palace and its contents. He then constrained us to stay with him to luncheon, after which he stood ready to answer the questions with which we plied him. After that, since the eye is never satisfied with seeing, we looked at detail after detail until the approach of evening warned us that it was time to return to Herakleion. Not short of the compass of a big book can one fully describe even the *important* features of this palace. In an article like this, one must make a selection.

The question of chronology is apt to be uppermost in archæological matters, and one always seeks to get clear on this point. Evans early observed that, back of the present form of the palace was an older one, many blocks of which had been used in the construction of the new. The later palace may from its structure and contents be placed in the bloom of the Mycenæan period, say 1400 B. C., but the older one, to which many of the gypsum door jambs and other blocks of the earlier may belong, goes back into the Kamares period, and may be assigned to 2000 B. C. But not even the older palace represents the oldest settlement on this spot. Pits have been sunk through the palace floor to a depth of seven metres, where pottery of the neolithic period is found; and the various strata show that age succeeded age, making a mound where there was once practically level plain. There seems no reason why this particular spot should have been chosen, except perhaps the fertility of the surrounding fields. It was in no sense dominating—in fact, it was dominated by hills nearly encircling it. But, whatever the chance may have been that led to the original settlement, the spot was clung to most tenaciously. There are no signs of a fortification wall for either palace. Since both of these point to prosperity and luxury which always excite to attack and plunder, the occupants of the palace must have felt themselves in secure possession by powers of their own. This could not be simply because they dwelt in a seagirt isle. They must have controlled the sea also. With this fits the oldest traditions in regard to Crete, that King Minos of Cnossos was the first to establish a sea-power. That Thucydides (i. 8) apparently put this event before the Trojan war seems to fit well into the chronology as shown from existing remains. It may be a question whether the first or the second palace was that of Minos; but as his appears to have been the great age of Crete, we may with some confidence take the present great palace as his.

To one who may be disposed to believe that all chronological conclusions in regard to these remote times are structures built on sand, the following incident may be worth relating. The veteran Egyptologist, Flinders Petrie, who was stopping at our hotel and with whom I drove out to Cnossos, had brought with him a piece of dark plain pottery which he pulled out of his pocket at the sight of something similar in Evans's great piles of sherds. After one or two fairly good matches, he came to a considerable part of a vase which was so much like his fragment that it seemed as if the two might well have belonged to the same vase. He then said to Evans, "Where do you date your piece?—for I can date mine exactly." Evans replied without hesitation that he put it in the neolithic period, about 4000 B. C., whereupon Petrie said, "That is exactly where I put mine, for I found it in a tomb of the first dynasty."

The palace is quite as large as that of Phaistos and in some respects better preserved, inasmuch as we have considerable remains of a second story. That there was in at least a part of the palace a third story is shown by a grand quadruple staircase in the eastern part, two flights to each story. One of the most impressive portions is a long gallery near the western side, to the west of which were nineteen long and narrow storerooms. These were full of *pithoi*, of about a man's height, arranged along the walls, while in the middle were crypts under the pavement. Nothing important has been found in these crypts, but the great *pithoi* were, in all probability, for the most part filled with oil. Such enormous quantities of oil (one store chamber contained thirteen of these *pithoi*, which may be compared to hogsheads) could hardly be meant for home consumption, and probably point to traffic with Egypt. One *pithos* contained barley, which may also have been exported to Egypt to make beer.

There were numerous frescoes on the walls of the palace, the best of which have been removed to the museum at Herakleion. There are so many fine ones that it is invidious to make distinctions. One of the finest is that of a cupbearer standing very erect and holding a long slender vase pointed at the bottom, resembling in shape

many vases of alabaster that were found in the palace. The favorite theme seems to be the bullfight. In one case a woman appears to take part in this performance. Evans has even suggested that the tribute of youths and maidens exacted by Minos from Athens may have had some connection with this amusement. There is an ivory figurine also of an athlete who seems to be engaged in a similar action, who had locks of bronze wire coated with gold foil inserted. The bullfight everywhere comes to honor, making the Tiryns bullfighter, in the same attitude, seem like a waif from Crete. One of the most conspicuous finds was a relief in *gesso duro* of the head of a bellowing bull affixed to a wall. Of the dreadful Minotaur there are no traces except on gems; and, but for the presence of these, we might consider the whole legend of the Minotaur as a distortion of the cruel use made of the Athenian captives. It may be added here that long, deep subterranean rooms have been classed as dungeons, which the Athenians may have shared with other unfortunates.

This palace of Cnossos was known in antiquity as the Labyrinth. This word is doubtless derived from *labrys*, meaning an axe. The palace was then called "the palace of the double axe," and very properly; for everywhere, sometimes mixed up with other signs, is cut on the stones of the palace this double axe, thus: ⋈. That it could be a mere mason's mark is precluded by its very frequent occurrence, as well as by its appearance on vases and other objects. There can be little doubt that it was a sacred symbol representing the unseen god; as such it appears on the seal ring from Mycenæ, above referred to. Another such symbol, of somewhat frequent occurrence, is "the horns of consecration." There is a shrine in the palace, now roofed over and enclosed for protection, in which these horns of terracotta, shaped thus: ⋃, stand with a few votive figurines of worshippers grouped around them. That these are "the horns of the altar" of the Old Testament seems beyond doubt. They also appear on the little gold shrines from Mycenæ. How pure and exalted the religion of the period was, we cannot say; but it is certain that idols were unknown. One likes to think that the worshippers saw in these symbols a suggestion of an unseen but everpresent divinity.

Not far away from this, the so-called throne room has in like manner been provided with a new roof and with columns of the Mycenæan style, tapering downward. Against one of the walls is a finely carved chair of alabaster with a back, which may be taken without much hesitation as the seat on which the lord of the palace, whether he were Minos or called by some other name, sat in state, with his counsellors on benches around about him. This work of preservation is a sort of restoration; but it is certainly not only a more proper restoration than that so long practised on statues in the museums of Italy, whereby the original parts were disguised beyond recognition, but it is also a work of necessity to save from destruction what one has uncovered. When one sees how much of Evans's work is done by masons and carpenters, one must not accuse him of building the palace which he now presents. Some considerable lines of wall are absolutely necessary to hold in position parts of the palace which would otherwise become a shapeless mass. Great props of wood which support thresholds and staircases of upper stories are extremely ugly; but what can one do? And, after all that has been done, the larger question arises, How long will all this last? There is no doubt—it is a question of years—that, when exposed to constant rains, the palace will disintegrate. It is an oft-repeated saying in Greece that excavation is destruction (*ἀνασκαφή, καταστροφή*). I have heard one of the foremost of excavators say that the proper treatment of Olympia would have been to make the most careful plans, and then cover everything up again. But even in that case what is covered up is lost to the world. It is a difficult question, the proper treatment of important buildings once excavated. For a decade or two, according to the present practice, one gets at least the sight of them. In Cnossos the splendid gypsum blocks are already attacked by the weather. One must make his visit without too great delay, to get the full enjoyment of this perhaps the most splendid of all excavations.

To facilitate the observation of the whole palace from one point of view, it is proposed to build a wooden tower from fifty to a hundred feet high at a point near the centre of the palace. That this will be extremely unsightly is conceded by everybody; but in this point it may be well for æsthetic considerations to give way to utility.

However tempting it may be to describe others of the magnificent objects of art that have found and are finding their way from Cnossos into the museum at Herakleion, rapidly making it one of the world's most important museums, I must refrain, and content myself with this general reflection: When one considers the splendid naturalness and almost perfection of much of this art—for example, the fresco with dolphins swimming among a shoal of little fishes—one feels the pity of it that all this bloom was wiped out, and that the Greeks had to begin all over again, and toil up to the heights once attained centuries before.

RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

Correspondence.

AMERICAN STUDENTS IN THE ORIENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While I have not the slightest sympathy with Buddhistic or with so-called "Theosophic" propaganda in the Occident, I am nevertheless convinced that the teachings of Buddha and the genuine Theosophy of the Upanishads have lessons of great value for us restless and hurrying Americans. The interpretation of the best thought of the East into terms of Occidental thought is at present the most practical work that an Indianist can undertake. If he can make the wisdom of the Wise Men of the East available as an influence upon the leaders of the religious life and thought of our time, he will accomplish something analogous to the work of the student of foreign systems of national government or of municipal administration: there is surely no antidote for either political bigotry or its twin sister, religious bigotry, so potent as is the study of the religious or political institutions and achievements of other lands and ages.

For the right comprehension of the religions of ancient India there is needed not only the broad technical training of the best universities of Europe and America, but also that facile command of the Sanskrit language which is hardly to be acquired outside of the best native schools of India itself. Our honored countryman, the late Dr. Fitzedward Hall, whose remarkable erudition in another field has so often adorned your columns, was doubtless the first American to become a learned Sanskritist by actual residence and study in India. That began, to be sure, nearly fifty-seven years ago (the year of his graduation at Harvard with Professors Child and Lane and Norton and Senator Hoar), and he paid for his bold venture by shipwreck at his journey's end, off the mouth of the Ganges. Escaping with naught but his life, he reached Calcutta, penniless, although the son of a man of wealth, and, after experiences of greater interest than many a romance, he removed to Ghazeepoor, and thence, shortly afterward, to Benares, the Athens of India. His progress in the acquisition of several of the Indian languages was such that he was soon advanced to the position of Anglo-Sanskrit professor in the Government College of Benares. His 'Atmabodha,' and 'Tattvabodha,' two introductions to the Vedanta philosophy, appeared in 1852, and were the first Sanskrit texts published by an American. His valuable collection of Oriental manuscripts and books, which he gave to his alma mater, are a precious memorial here of his life and learning.

Only four years ago, the principal of the Oriental College at Lahore, Dr. Stein, on his promotion to Calcutta, wrote to Professor Bloomfield, to me, and doubtless to others, asking for nominations to fill the vacancy at Lahore caused by his promotion. The successful candidate was again an American, Professor Bloomfield's pupil, Dr. Alfred W. Stratton. To onerous administrative duties he added the work of instruction. A part of the teaching was in Hindustani, and he had, besides, to be able to converse with the pandits in Sanskrit. His career was one of unusual achievement and of brightest promise; but it was cut short, alas! by his untimely death in the summer of 1902.

During the academic year now closing, two other Americans have been pursuing their studies at the College in Benares. One was Dr. James H. Woods of Boston, in 1901-02 an instructor in the Department of Philosophy at Harvard. In the summer of 1902 he had the privilege of working in close personal relations with Deussen of Kiel, confessedly the greatest master of Indic philosophy in the Occident; and since then he has been studying under the pandits of Poona and Benares and Cashmere. Hall's loss of his bills of exchange in 1846 was a disaster, remediless for many weary months of hardship and ill-treatment; to-day it would be only an inconvenience, remediable within twenty-four hours: a contrast of which I am forcibly reminded by the receipt, before nine o'clock this morning, of a cable message from Dr. Woods relating to his plan of work, and dated this day at Srinagar, the capital of the storied Vale of Cashmere, beyond the first great range of the Himalayas!

Schwegler's 'Handbook,' famous in my college days, says, "With us, as with Aristotle, the history of philosophy begins with Thales." "The Oriental (Chinese and Indian) so-called philosophy (rather theology or mythology) . . . falls outside of our undertaking." Professor Royce, in his Gifford lectures ('The World and the Individual'), has devoted one or two of his retrospective chapters to an analysis of the Indic mysticism; and it remains to be seen whether Dr. Woods or any other student will grasp the essential features of the great Indic systems, Sankhya and Vedanta and the rest, with such power, and present them to the thinkers of the West with such effectiveness, as to compel the practical admission of the fact that the history of philosophy no longer begins with Thales.

The other of the two American students at Benares was also a Bostonian, David Brainerd Spooner. He is a graduate of Stanford University; went out to Japan, where he was at once a student and a teacher; and was attracted thence to India, to continue (for several years, as he hoped) his Sanskrit studies begun at Palo Alto. Private resources, however, unexpectedly failing him, he relinquished his plan and prepared to return home. Meantime, moved by strong testimonials from the authorities of Stanford and others, some friends of Harvard gave to the University the funds for the maintenance of her first "Travelling fellowship in Indic philology" for 1902-03, and this young man was appointed thereto. I have never seen him; but evidence from independent sources seems to justify the exceptional proceeding of the University in this case. The *Pioneer* is a daily published at Allahabad, and is a journal of highest standing in the Anglo-Indian press; and I should be glad to have you reprint from its issue of April 27, 1903, the following extract:

"The results of the Benares Sanskrit College examinations, which are published in the last *Gazette*, contain a feature of peculiar interest. Among the list of candidates who have passed the whole of the Madhyama (Intermediate) examination occurs the name of Mr. D. B. Spooner of the Harvard University. Not only has this American scholar passed the entire examination, which is usually taken in parts extending over four years, at one attempt, but he stands fifth in order of merit among the fifteen students who have achieved this feat. The examination is one which is conducted solely on the lines of Indian scholarship, without any introduction of Western comparative methods of philology. Not only have all the candidates hitherto been invariably Hindus, but an overwhelming proportion of them are Brahmans. Mr. Spooner's success illustrates alike the strong hold which Eastern studies have taken in the far West, and the thoroughness which characterises his countrymen in all their undertakings."

The above facts are no less significant for the progress of Indology in America than is the establishment of the schools in Palestine and Rome and Athens for that of Semitic and classical studies. Modern discoveries in astronomy, physics, chemistry, and the like have relegated whole libraries of mediæval and even of comparatively modern theology and speculation to the rubbish heap. The intelligent and sympathetic disclosure to the Occident of the best life and thought of the Hindus may do much to relegate our self-centred assumption of superiority to them in all things unto that "limbo large and broad," the "Paradise of Fools," of whose inmates alone it is worthy.

India's saints have had wonderful visions of God; to her sages have been given strange previsions of some of the most marvellous results of modern science; never has the antithesis between religion and dogma been set forth better than it was by the gentle Gotama; never were the precepts and example of that great teacher (supplementing and reinforcing, as they do, those of Jesus), more timely and pertinent than they are to-day. For better, for worse, the East and the West are coming into ever closer relations. Young men there are of linguistic training and endowments, and (what is vastly more) of endowments that may ripen into that breadth of vision which discerns how the past may be made to teach the present, and how the abounding strength of one race may be brought to help the weakness of another. Who of those youths will come forward to guide these hoary strangers of the centuries, the East and the West, into the paths of mutual understanding and blessing, and so at last into the cheerful highway of a brighter hope?

CHARLES R. LANMAN.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, June 4, 1903.

DR. ENGELMANN ON RACE DECLINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While quite agreeing with Dr. Engelmann's assertion (in the *Popular Science Monthly*) that education is not the cause of race decline, a study of the United States census report for 1900 convinces me that race decline has been greatly exaggerated, and that it is possible, on the basis of facts, to take a much more hopeful view of the case than does Dr. Engelmann. His statistics are drawn from six "representative States" which, with the exception of Massachusetts, he does not name. But neither Massachusetts nor any other North Atlantic State can, according to the last United States census report, be considered representative. On page c, volume i., twelfth census, 1900, we find the following statements (italics mine):

"There has been an increase during the decade in native-born of 12,081,650, or 22.5 per cent., and in foreign-born of 1,151,981, or 12.4 per cent. The population as a whole increased during the same period 21 per cent. The increase in foreign-born since 1890 has been small as compared with the increase in the native element, and a glance at the figures presented in table xliii for the several States and Territories makes it apparent that, aside from the increases shown by a few of the North Central and Western States and Territories, practically *all the increase in the foreign-born element is confined to the North Atlantic States.*"

Dr. Engelmann says:

"Important as is the fact of our racial decline, bearing as it does upon our future as a nation, it has not been observed because of the fair general rate of childbirth due to the much greater fecundity of the foreign element, which is from 2 to 2½ times that of the native, bringing the total birth-rate of the State to an equality with that of France—22.4 per thousand living population—or above it."

In comparison with this statement I present a few facts from the United States census which show that Dr. Engelmann's six States cannot be considered representative for the birth-rate of the native-born American population as a whole. In 1900 there were in the United States 41,053,417 native whites of native white parentage, and of these 1,158,585 were under one year of age, thus giving to each member of this class of the population a yearly average of over .028 children, which, multiplied by 1,000, gives an average of more than 28 surviving children per thousand, and a birth-rate as much higher as the added mortality would give—a factor which is unfortunately not obtainable. Of native whites of foreign parentage there were at the same date in the United States 15,687,322, and of these 504,466 were under one year of age, giving an average of more than 32 surviving children per thousand for native whites of foreign white parentage (twelfth census of United States, vol. ii., p. 3). It is evident from these data that the estimate of the fecundity of the foreign population as 2 or 2½ times that of the native does not hold true for the population at large, nor does it even approximate the estimate given by Dr. Engelmann for Massachusetts of 17 births per thousand for native white, and 52 per thousand for foreign white, population.

The estimate of eight children per family for the time of Benjamin Franklin, quoted by Dr. Engelmann, while probably correct, should, as you intimated last week, be coördinated with the fact that the mortality of that period in large families, according to the data given in Mr. Dexter's 'Yale Annals and Biographies from 1701 to 1763,' frequently reached 60 or 70 per cent.

To encourage those who are inclined to take a gloomy view of the future of the native American population, the following facts are presented. By the twelfth census of the United States the white population of the mainland in 1890 was 55,101,258. The gross increase in white population from 1890 to 1900 was 19,056,281, the elements of which were distributed in the following proportions:

Native white children of native white parentage (under ten years)	10,649,101	= 55.8%
Native white children of foreign white parentage (under ten years)	4,719,616	= 24.7%
Immigrants, white parentage (all ages)	3,687,564	= 19.3%
Gross increase	19,056,281	
Deducting the net increase of whites, 1890-1900	11,707,938	
Leaves the total loss by death and emigration	8,348,243	

Assuming that this loss was equally distributed among the different elements, and that 55.8 per cent. of the total loss by death and emigration occurred among native whites of native white parentage (an estimate too large because of the greater mortality among those of foreign parentage, and the fact that the loss by emigration occurs almost entirely among this class), there still remains after this reduction of 4,658,319 a net gain of 5,990,782 due to native white children of native white parentage, or a gain of 10.8 per cent. on the total white population of 1890. The total white population in 1900 was 66,809,196 (twelfth census, vol. ii., p. xvii); 10.8 per cent. of this is 7,215,393, which, multiplied by ten, gives a total increase of 72,215,393 for the next one hundred years, thus more than doubling the white population exclusive of any foreign aid, and, if reckoned by the usual method of compounding every ten years, more than doubling the *entire* popu-

lation by means of native children of native parentage alone.

THEODATE L. SMITH.

CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS., June 8, 1903.

Notes.

Longmans, Green & Co. have nearly ready a drama in three acts, entitled "Mors et Victoria," the scene being laid in France shortly after the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

E. Belfort Bax's 'Rise and Fall of the Anabaptists' and Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer's 'Robert Morris: Patriot and Financier' are forthcoming from Macmillan Co.

Sir Henry Burdett's year-book, 'Hospitals and Charities,' for 1903 (London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners), continues to present the fullest and most accurate statistics of philanthropy obtainable, prefaced, as usual, by fresh discussion of current problems. It is especially strong in regard to the economy and finance of the institutions it deals with, and practical views are everywhere taken. We may instance the chapter on the hospital construction of the past year as having an obvious utility by reason of the select particulars. The United States charities are embraced in the same view with those of Great Britain and her colonies. The Annual is now in its fourteenth year.

'The International Year Book' for 1902 (Dodd, Mead & Co.) offers a sufficient account of last year's main occurrences, and, while maintaining the plan and standard of preceding volumes, has aimed at "a greater degree of compression" and an advance "in concise and logical treatment." Such topics as the Russianization of Finland, the coal strike, and the Arbitration Commission are handled without fear or favor. Notable among the illustrations are some of the portraits, especially that of President Palma of Cuba. Cecil Rhodes, we are told, "had implicit faith in his intuitions, and that sublime courage and steadfastness which often come from lack of a higher education; . . . a vast, rugged, unlearned simplicity was the basis of his nature," and was shown in "his disregard for the finer problems of ethics" and "his incapacity for deep analytic reasoning." No less free are the comments (pp. 405-6) on Mr. Henry James, who "has steadily cultivated a wilful obscurity of style, a verbal eccentricity. . . . He excels in the art of leaving a thought half uttered, of implying rather than expressing, of analyzing human motives down to infinitely small quantities—the differential calculus of the emotions." This is not the old dry-as-dust cyclopædic manner.

Volume V. of 'Lamb's Biographical Dictionary of the United States' (Boston: Federal Book Co.) pursues the even tenor of its undistinguished way through 666 large pages, from Leaming to Newton. To those who hold that in books of reference we want simply to get the facts, and not to see how well the editors and contributors can write, this work should be acceptable. Yet if facts have souls as well as bodies, a less objective and literal method might sometimes be enlightening. The sketch of General McClellan gives no hint of the doubts and heartburnings which made the autumn of 1862 so critical a time; and that of President McKinley mitigates the tragedy of September 6, 1901, by quoting a whole column from his speech made the day before. Apparently these biographers have found no heights to climb, no rugged ravines to cross; all varieties of character and fortune merge into a level road for their easy pacing. Minor worthies, legislators and pastors otherwise forgotten these fifty years, are here embalmed beside their betters; they all alike were born, did something, held places, and died; and their tale is told in a spirit of plain democracy, neither with undue compression nor with an eye to commercial values and results. Two more volumes (unless the subject grows out of hand) should complete this honest and kindly series, in whose placid pages the toilworn may seek an antidote to the fevered haste of our unresting age.

Mr. T. M. Clark's 'Building Superintendence,' which has kept the field since 1883, has just been revised and republished in a fifteenth edition (Macmillan). Novel in particular is the chapter on the construction of a steel-frame building. The work is designed to be a manual for young architects, students, and other interested persons. It is illustrated by diagrams.

The demand for Dr. Francis H. Williams's solid work, replete with figured and photographic illustrations, on 'The Roentgen Rays in Medicine and Surgery, as an Aid in Diagnosis and a Therapeutic Agent,' is evidenced by its passing to a fresh edition every year. The third edition now comes to us from Macmillan, with an enlarged appendix, which strives to keep pace with the rapid development of the therapeutic uses of the X-rays, particularly in skin disease —a great boon, as the illustrations "before and after" strikingly reveal; and cancer is included.

Another edition of Gilbert White's 'Natural History of Selborne' (Cassell & Co.) tends to stretch out the line towards a hundred. Richard Kearton, F.Z.S., is the present editor, and lays less stress on his notes than on his 123 photographic illustrations from nature. These are all helpful, many of them admirable, and add a grace to the simple and compact letterpress. We have, besides the natural history, views of Gilbert White's country, home, sundial, and gravestone.

J. F. Taylor & Co. begin out of chronological order with 'Hereward the Wake' a new uniform "Library Edition" of Charles Kingsley's Works, manufactured at the Cambridge (Mass.) University Press. This historical romance requires two volumes, 16mo, bound in wine-colored cloth and adorned each with three illustrations of moderate excellence. The series will embrace only the novels and the poems, with 'Letters and Memories of Kingsley's Life,' edited by his wife, and will be under the supervision of Maurice Kingsley, who here furnishes two brief introductions. The whole get-up is quiet and unpretentious.

Washington Irving's 'Astoria' and 'Adventures of Captain Bonneville' have been abstracted to make up the small volume in the Knickerbocker Series styled 'The Fur Traders of the Columbia River and the Rocky Mountains' (Putnams). A useful table of important events has been prefixed, an index provided, and a certain number of illustrations sprinkled up and down, mostly photographs from nature or from old prints. Needless to say that the patchwork is good reading.

Helen Milman (Mrs. Caldwell Crofton), compiler of 'My Kalendar of Country Delights' (John Lane), admits that she has to "run the gauntlet of being called sentimental," and she has not contented herself merely with other men's poesies in decking out her calendar. She trails a running commentary of her own through verse and prose selections, drawn wholly from past authors except for some anonymous inedited verse, and from many rare books. She is careless about indicating her sources either at all or precisely, but her taste is good and her effusiveness not unbearable. The book is very pretty.

The American Sportsman's Library has recently added two volumes to its list, 'Big Game Fishes of the United States,' by Prof. C. F. Holder, and 'Bass, Pike, Perch, and Others,' by Dr. James A. Henshall. It must have been a severe trial to Dr. Henshall, so enthusiastic a devotee of the black bass for these many years, to treat his favorite fish merely as one of so miscellaneous a haul. About eighty-five different species are described, only a small fraction of which could get credentials from the average angler as genuine game fish, and some of which, as the rock bass, are regarded as nuisances by the angling fraternity with almost complete unanimity. No doubt some such round-up was necessary, but it seems a pity that the grayling, the mascalonge, the black bass, and Dr. Henshall should be sacrificed to this necessity. Professor Holder has also to deal with a large and miscellaneous list, though they all possess sufficient size and strength to bring the angler's muscles into strenuous play. Professor Holder stands up vigorously for tarpon and tuna fishing as a high type of sportsmanship, comparing it to the hunting of the lion and tiger. It may be questioned, however, whether the sport in which the fish is sacrificed merely for the sake of the victory in physical strength and skill, with the attendant exercise, stands ethically as high as that which brings a legitimate and healthful article of food to the angler's table. The book is amply illustrated, largely from the originals in the well-known Government report of Dr. G. Brown Goode; but in the six or eight attempts at illustration in color the result is invariably a fish "that never was, on sea or land."

A translation from the Dutch of Holleman's 'Organic Chemistry,' by A. J. Walker and O. E. Mott (John Wiley & Sons), calls for special mention as giving a good outline of the subject in one volume, wherein the reasoning by which chemists have been led to the constitutional formula of each class of bodies is set forth with a lucidity, cogency, emphasis, and prominence that one will seek in vain in any other text-book of organic chemistry. Great logical ability, good judgment, and skill in presentation have gone to the making of this book, which will take rank as a classic.

Ladenburg's 'History of Chemistry since Lavoisier' has been translated by Dr. Leonard Dobbin, with the addition of two new chapters by the author, who has taken great pains with the revision of this English edition. The great convenience and value of the work, especially for its references, are well known (University of Chicago Press).

Considering the advanced state of as-

tronomy in this country, and the distinction of our mathematicians—Bowditch, B. Pierce, G. W. Hill, Newcomb—in this department, it is remarkable that there has been no modern 'Introduction to Celestial Mechanics' in our language. This want has at length been supplied by Dr. F. R. Moulton of Chicago in a work bearing that title (Macmillan Co.), composed with remarkable good judgment, and indispensable to all students of the subject.

A text-book out of the common is the 'Elementary Calculus' of Prof. William H. Echols of the University of Virginia (Henry Holt & Co.). It is the first which, while remaining elementary, easy, and thoroughly practical, makes a serious and well-studied endeavor to put the student in possession of the ideas now generally entertained by up-to-date mathematicians concerning the logic and fundamental conceptions of the subject, no teacher of which should neglect to examine this original and valuable presentation of it.

The eighth volume of the series "Our European Neighbors," 'Danish Life in Town and Country' (Putnams), by Jessie Brochner, is a chatty and careful account of a very interesting little country. The author evidently knows her subject thoroughly, and shows good judgment in the selection of material. We have discovered no serious errors of fact or conclusion. The statement, however, on page 142, that "the new Government readily granted to him [Georg Brandes] that professorship which had been so long withheld," is misleading, as Brandes received, not the professorship of æsthetics, which was already filled, but the honorary title of professor. So, too, the description of the Danish cloisters as "'convents of nobility' for the first three classes" is inaccurate, as Vallö, the most important, admits only daughters of the nobility without regard to other class distinction. The first name of Dalgas is not Ernesto, as is stated in the index, but Enrico. As a rule, the Danish forms, of which there is a large number, are given correctly, and most of the slips in spelling that we have noted are probably printers' mistakes. Among the topics treated in the twenty chapters special mention may be made of the general characterization of the Danish people, which is sympathetic without being unduly laudatory; public education, a particularly timely topic; the position of women; and agriculture. A valuable feature is the set of fifteen illustrations, seven of which deal with Copenhagen. The choice of subjects is excellent, and the execution leaves little to be desired. The only obvious omission is that of Kronborg. The index is inadequate.

Carl Johan Gustaf, Count Snoilsky, the foremost Swedish lyrical poet of his generation, died at Stockholm, May 19. Snoilsky, who wrote under the pen name Sven Tröst, was born at Stockholm, September 8, 1841. After studying at the University of Upsala, where his lyrical talent first found expression in a students' literary club, he entered the Foreign Office. He was rapidly advanced, and in 1876 was elected a member of the Swedish Academy. In this latter year appeared his translation of Goethe's ballads. In 1879 he resigned office and exiled himself for ten years. To this period belongs the most important body of his poetical work, consisting of three volumes published in 1881, 1883, and 1887, respectively. Soon after his return to Sweden, Snoilsky was appointed head of the Royal Library in Stockholm, and in 1893 received an honorary doctor's degree from his alma mater. His last collection of poems appeared in 1897.

A Summer Finding-List is a new and praiseworthy feature of the *Boston Public Library Bulletin* for June. It consists of the titles of nearly a thousand books which can be taken from the Library and retained without limitation as to time between June 10 and September 10. The range of selection has been broad, comprising works in various classes (except fiction) of interest and value to the general reader. Necessarily the more recent publications for which there is an active demand are not to be found on it. Books of the same general character not on the list will also be issued on the same conditions if special application be made for them. This simple method of enabling its patrons to improve the holiday leisure of the summer by good reading is one which every city library might well adopt.

Purchasers of half the first edition of a new novel issued by D. Appleton & Co. responded to a postal-card inquiry regarding the accident of purchase. A little more than a quarter (26 per cent.) owned that the bookseller's recommendation determined them; 16 per cent. had read the author's previous works; 14 per cent. took a friend's advice; advertising prevailed with 12 per cent., and reviews with 10; external attractiveness captivated 9 per cent.

In observance of the Emerson Centennial, a memorial school will be held at Concord and Boston, during July 13—31, under the auspices of the Free Religious Association of America. Thirty lectures covering the various aspects of Emerson's life and work will be given by eminent teachers, both lay and clerical; in the morning at Concord, in the evening at Boston. Information as to tickets, etc., may be had of David Greene Haskins, jr., No. 5 Tremont Street, Boston.

—Messrs. Scribner have brought together in one very handsome volume eight papers on Bookbinding by Miss S. T. Prideaux, whose 'Historical Sketch of Bookbinding' has been reviewed in these columns. The essays now issued are taken from the *Magazine of Art* of Cassell & Co., from *Bibliographica*, from the *Book-Buyer* (now called the *Lamp*), and from *Scribner's Magazine*. They are an interesting lot. The subjects chosen are a little on one or the other side of the main line of inquiry, and are all the more agreeable and useful for that. The third paper is a review of Mr. Thoinan's book, 'Les Relieurs Français,' and allusions to the same work occur in other chapters of the present book; the whole constituting a very just and careful statement of the quality and value of the important book which Miss Prideaux reviews. The last paper, entitled "Some Notes on Pattern-Making," deals with the utilization of Persian and other Western Asiatic designs and their applicability to the work of the bookbinder. The other essays are all in a way historical; thus, the first deals with "English and Scotch Bindings of the Last [19th] Century," and the second with Roger Payne; others deal with Early Stamped Bindings and Early Italian Bindings; and chapter five devotes sixty pages to the French Binders of To-day, making of the inquiry into their work an extremely interesting paper. It is not necessary to agree entirely with the hopefulness of Miss Prideaux in order to praise, to enjoy, and to learn from her work. It is not given to all persons to view the struggles of the would-be decorator of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries with the same favorable eyes. The modern bindings which help to illustrate the article on Pattern-Making may be taken as of Miss Prideaux's own design, and we find these commonplace and insignificant as design. There is no particular reason why the scrolls and spirals should turn this way more than that way. So the work of the living Frenchmen, shown in the fifth essay, is often fantastical; they are violent, too, and the owner of some of them would find them much more agreeable if kept in a closed bookcase with solid doors, to be brought out occasionally to point a moral rather than to have them on view. At the same time, the criticism which Miss Prideaux offers is sane and reasonable, and we like particularly what is said on page 135 about the mistaken notion that "the decorative outside of a book should be emblematic of what is within." That indeed is "a complete snare to the craftsman who is not an artist."

—The England of three hundred years ago knew little of numismatics. King James's translators in Genesis put "money" for silver, which was not minted till about 700 B. C., and in the Gospels rendered denarius by "penny," when sixpence (a piece familiar from Edward VI. on) would have been nearer the mark. A century later, Addison wrote on "Ancient Medals," meaning coins, with possibly a medallion here and there. These gaps have been filled in since: the British still say "Roman brass" for the bronze issues, very few of which, through the first century or so, were really brass; but that is mere conservatism, like the *u* in "honour." With us it was worse. Our auction catalogues of twenty years ago were often barbarously ignorant of ancient and foreign mintages, and a cyclopædia could illustrate Antoninus Pius by a coin of Caracalla, who used the better man's name. We too have mended our ways in this regard; the superior sort of dealers have admitted light from abroad, and plume themselves on the accuracy of their descriptions. Numismatics, hitherto regarded as the serious study of a few specialists and a harmless recreation for such as have time and money to spare, with a taste that way, now claims to be a branch of knowledge for the multitude. A "Home and School Library," issued on both sides of the sea, puts forth among its first numbers 'A Short History of Coins and Currency' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), by Lord Avebury, better known as Sir John Lubbock. This unpretending manual, based on a lecture at the London Institution, handles the Origin of Money and the Coinage of Britain, with supplementary chapters on Weights of Coins and Banknotes and Banking. It contains many interesting facts and a full list of English coins from the Conqueror on, with good copies (light, on a black ground) of sixty-two pieces, mostly Greek, Roman, and British. The most notable, perhaps, of these is the tetradrachm of Selinus on page 22 (previously copied and described by Mr. Head), which celebrates the stoppage of a

pestilence about 450 B. C. by draining a marsh. This piece, as Lord Avebury says, "is an early recognition of sanitation, and might well be taken as a seal for the medical profession." The Judea Capta issues are not so rare that they might not have afforded a better portrait of Vespasian than that on page 36. Praise for the booklet is damped chiefly by the close stitching of the sheets, which (as in most American magazines) makes it difficult to hold open. This drawback is apt to be less oppressive in an English binding.

—A new number in Methuen's "Classical Translations" is 'Thirteen Satires of Juvenal,' by S. G. Owen, the well-known editor of Catullus and Ovid. Though he omits three satires as unfit for presentation in English, yet Mr. Owen regards Juvenal as a genuine reformer, actuated by right motives and sincere above any other pagan moralist of his time. He is hasty, however, in dubbing as "dilettanti critics" all who have questioned the satirist's sincerity. The services to classical scholarship of Boissier and Tyrrell, among the number, are certainly of too high a character to be requited by a depreciatory adjective from the pen of Mr. Owen. And M. Nisard, still more severe, is entitled to respect as a critic, however much his theory of criticism may be out of date to-day. In Mr. Owen's introductory tribute to his subject, the formal exigencies of the sonnet have wrought a measure of confusion in the thought:

> "And with the nimble scalpel of thy rime
> To excise the ulcers of a festering age"

is a fine conception in itself, as are the closing lines,

> "Still thunders through the multitudinous years
> The glory of thy voice that is not dead."

It is hardly necessary to point out, however, that two such different conceptions can hardly apply to the same style. It is the voice of thunder, not the "nimble scalpel," that really describes Juvenal. Tyrrell flattered himself that the worst of the vices described in these satires died with the Roman Empire—a blindness to modern conditions which Mr. Owen does not share. The translation, in prose, is based on his own recension of the text, recently published at the Clarendon Press; an extended commentary is soon to follow.

—Dr. Emil Reich has views concerning the preparation of historical maps which have been accepted by the *Times* in its 'History of the South African War.' In the preface to his 'New Student's Atlas of English History' (Macmillan) he gives a brief statement of his opinions, and then proceeds to illustrate them at length by the publication of fifty-five charts. Hitherto Gardiner's atlas has held the field, and it is by no means superseded now. Nevertheless, Dr. Reich furnishes a great deal of fresh material, and whether or not one accepts all his theories of map-making, this volume also wins a place of its own. In many ways it is more advanced and technical than Gardiner's atlas, while the presence in most cases of an explanatory text is a notable feature. "This atlas," says Dr. Reich, "is intended to aid the student of English history both in comprehending the leading historical facts and tendencies, and in retaining them in his memory. It attempts to be a cartographic supplement to John Richard Green's 'History of the English People.'" Fifteen years' experience as a teacher of history has convinced the editor that historical events must be projected on a map if a clear and permanent idea of the past is to be gained without disproportionately hard study. Historical facts, he reminds us, "are mostly not static, but of a decidedly dynamic nature." Therefore, graphic methods of map-making must be employed. The idea of movement must be accentuated, and this can best be done by the aid of colored arrows. Examiners of all grades, but particularly those who are going forward to Sandhurst, Woolwich, and the civil service, may be expected to prick up their ears when Dr. Reich says: "The average student will, by the aid of such maps, acquire a firm grasp of the sequence and connection of historic facts, and, it may confidently be added, in one-tenth of the time hitherto needed for that end." These are bold words, but Dr. Reich's maps undoubtedly have their function. The chief things that can be said against them are that they seem complicated with their network of erratic arrows, and that in their search for movement they tend to neglect physical features. By way of replying to the first objection, the editor says that the maps must be traced with the aid of the text. Then the complications will disappear. In very heavy type we are told that "the student [we may add the critic too] must in no case satisfy himself with merely looking at the maps; he must invariably first trace them several times, following the text, and then try to draw each map from memory." Whether all students and critics will realize this high degree of expectation, may be doubted. For the latter, it is not necessary that they should do so in order to recognize the real value of Dr. Reich's system. In the delineation of campaigns it is especially admirable; and partly, perhaps, for that reason Dr. Reich gives much space to the military aspects of history. He has not, however, sacrificed everything else upon the altar of warfare. The maps of Sussex according to Domesday, of Feudal England, of the Enclosures of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and of the monasteries at the beginning of the Reformation, emphasize those social motives in history of which Green, Dr. Reich's authority, thought so much. We doubt whether this book will lop off nine-tenths of the labor involved in learning English history by old methods, but it is certainly an indispensable volume for all systematic students.

—In the March number of the *Deutsche Rundschau* of last year, Prof. James Taft Hatfield of Northwestern University gave preliminary announcement and a careful analysis of hitherto unpublished letters and a diary of the poet Wilhelm Müller, author of the "Griechenlieder," which the poet's son, Prof. Max Müller, had recently found among his family papers. This material Professor Hatfield has now, in conjunction with Dr. Philip S. Allen of the University of Chicago, brought out in a handsome volume, entitled 'Diary and Letters of Wilhelm Müller,' which is a credit both to the editors and to the University of Chicago whose imprint it bears. While Müller is not a great personality in any sense, he is certainly a very characteristic representative of later German romanticism, its lyric charm, its easy grace, its playfulness and youthful enthusiasm. This impression, conveyed by all of Müller's poetry, is strengthened by the present publication, especially by the diary covering his Berlin stay, from October, 1815, to December, 1816. In reading these sentimental effusions on love, on friendship, on purity of heart, on religion, on meekness, on cultivation of the inner life, one finds it hard to realize that they were written by a youth who had just returned from the battlefields of the Napoleonic wars; but one gains a new sense of the elevation of thought and feeling which, after all, was the most fundamental of the forces that made the rising of the German nation against the foreign oppressor possible. It must be confessed that Müller's letters, especially those to his wife, have the effect of an anti-climax: they reveal him as spoiled by success, vain, and superficial.

—The current number of the Neapolitan journal, *La Critica* (May 20), aside from a striking study of Edmondo de Amicis by the editor, Signor Croce, a paper on contemporary Italian philosophy by Professor Gentile, and the usual number of important reviews, contains a brief but highly significant correspondence between Signor Croce and Signor Corrado Ricci, the well-known Director of the Royal Gallery at Parma, grouped under the general heading "Il Monoteismo Dantesco." These letters are of particular interest because they indicate a healthy reaction against that surplusage of critical work devoted to Dante which has been a distinguishing feature of Italian scholarship in the latter part of the nineteenth century, and which has tended throughout to obscure the philosophic continuity of Italian literature. These supererogatory Dantists, says Signor Croce, "had they lived thirty years ago, would have discussed the unity of the language; seventy years ago, purism and anti-purism; if in the eighteenth century, they would have recited sonnets in Arcadia; if in the seventeenth century, cogitated conceits and anagrams; if in the *Cinquecento*, composed dialogues on Platonic love or discourses on a sonnet or a verse of Petrarch or Monsignor della Casa." The exclusiveness of their interest in Dante is due, "not to an excess of love for the great poet, but solely to an innate indifference to art itself." It would be well for our own Dante scholars to give some attention to these considerations. Mr. A. J. Butler, in his recent preface to Federn's 'Dante and his Times,' in like manner complained that the study of Dante at the present time "is not part of any general interest in the Italian language and literature, which, in England at all events, still suffer under 'the deplorable and barbarous neglect' perceived and lamented by Mr. Gladstone a quarter of a century ago."

—In 'Kant's Prolegomena to any Future Metaphysics, edited in English by Dr. Paul Carus, with an Essay on Kant's Philosophy, and Other Supplementary Matter' (Chicago: Open Court Co.), we find a careful and excellent translation of a work whose importance Kant's students sometimes fail to appreciate, while the present editor extravagantly says that it "is indubitably the most important" of Kant's writings. What is *indubitable* is doubted by no competent person. Dr. Carus perhaps refuses this title to all other writers on Kant. He says in

the preface: "The present translation is practically new, but it goes without saying that the editor utilized the labors of his predecessors, among whom Prof. John P. Mahaffy and John H. Bernard deserve special credit. Richardson's translation of 1818 may be regarded as superseded and has not been consulted, but occasional reference has been made to that of Prof. Ernest Belfort Bax." We are glad Dr. Carus did not let it go altogether without saying that he had "utilized" the translation of Mahaffy (published only after revision by the Rev. Dr. John Henry Bernard); but his readers might have preferred to be informed of the extent to which such utilization went. In point of fact, Dr. Carus's "practically new" translation agrees, in all but a small percentage of its matter, with that of Mahaffy *verbatim et literatim;* and this would seem to be dictated by good sense, supposing Mr. Mahaffy consents. Why make a new translation where an existing one is good? The most striking difference is that Mahaffy prints in italics the phrases which Kant spaced to the same effect. There are also some quite trifling divergencies in the translation of a few of Kant's technical terms. A few idiomatic expressions have been more familiar to Dr. Carus, and here the changes, though small, are unquestionable improvements. It may be added that Mahaffy's translation was in part based on that of Richardson, though the alterations are so great that the fact would hardly have been discoverable without Mahaffy's statement of it, duly made in his preface. The "supplementary matter" consists, one half of it, of selected extracts from various writers, all well worth reading and some of them decidedly amusing for the reflected light they throw on their authors. The other half is Dr. Carus's account of Kant's philosophy. To our thinking he subtracts somewhat from Kant's doctrine and thus renders it more acceptable, without beginning to cut deep enough to meet the exigencies of modern reflection.

—President Roosevelt's political oratory during his late far-Western tour having secured adequate attention, a little space may properly be given to some of his other utterances. In one of the first speeches he informed the representatives of an athletic society that he was always in favor of "vigorous, rough, athletic sport." Few people now would differ from him as to the value of vigorous and athletic sport; but with President Roosevelt the distinguishing mark is roughness. There must be collision, there must be human bodies hurled against each other in intentional shock; there must be danger—nay, certainty—of pain, with great probability of wounds or even of fractures; because no boy or youth is fit to enter on fighting, which is the essential business of life, till he has shown that he is tough and not tender, hardened and not sensitive, rough and not gentle. The President's pet word thus cuts out the great majority of athletic sports and their votaries. His favorite roughness—collision, pounding, crushing—plays no part in walking, running, leaping, riding, swimming, rowing, sailing, tennis (whether in the court or in the field), golf, basketball, or fencing. In running, indeed, anything like a collision is absolutely foul play. In baseball there are occasionally rough collisions; but they are directly forbidden by the rules, and are always considered unsportsmanlike. There are three sports where roughness is part of the play—wrestling, which is scarcely known among us, and the President's beloved boxing, and football. The most elaborate course of gymnastic exercises—including the tug of war—does not call for roughness; and in the very hardest athletic sport of all, which involves the most exhausting work, the most careful eye, hand, and foot, the most submissive discipline, viz., mountaineering, tenderness—the most careful and delicate avoidance of everything which can hurt or hamper our comrades—is peremptorily required. What a poor, nerveless, "sissy" set of men, then, the majority of athletes must be, never to bruise or pound, or knock down or trample each other!

SCOTCH SURVIVALS FROM THE CELTIC WORLD.

Outer Isles. By A. Goodrich-Freer. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902. Pp. xvi, 448.

Witchcraft and Second Sight in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland: Tales and Traditions Collected Entirely from Oral Sources. By the late John Gregorson Campbell. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons. 1902. Pp. xii, 314.

Evil Eye in the Western Highlands. By R. C. Maclagan, M.D. London: David Nutt, 1902. Pp. viii, 232.

The fate of the Hebrides, inner and outer, has been a strange one. Their name — sprung, says the story, from a fortunate misprint of the Plinian Hebudes — has a dying cadence which has charmed poets of all times with visions of a magic outer world. To the young Milton, "the stormy Hebrides" came with the fable of Bellerus old; Collins gives one of his smoothest lines to "the moist marge of each cold Hebrid isle"; and by Wordsworth the beauty born of its murmuring sound was fixed "in the silence of the seas among the farthest Hebrides."

But known thus as a name powerful to raise visions, they have remained unknown in themselves — an Avalon or Hy Brasil within sight of our shores, but ever retired from our life. Tourist steamers may trail their smoke pennons to and fro among them: they have remained aloof in proud, almost mystic solitude, untouched with any stain from our commonness. Again and again they have been discovered, again and again have sunk back into their former inaccessibility, a piece of the older world. Johnson felt their spell, but how could he interpret these fairy mysteries? Collins, though he had never seen them, came, too, beneath that spell, and his great ode has atmosphere and understanding alone in its time. After Scott's one voyage he heard the roaring of their skerries till he died, but his verse could not render Celtic melodies. Our classical and semi-classical ages and our period of Teutonic romanticism had no kinship with the still older world of the Celt, an Oriental castaway on gray, northern shores illumined by a scanty and slanting sun. In later times, Alexander Smith knew and told of them and their people, and Robert Buchanan, too, in his saner days. As for William Black, his West Highlander is much like the Irishman of Lever; yet no one has pictured as he the magic of the land itself. Such few tellers have there been of a sea and shores whose secret baffled their utmost seeking.

And in this sacred isolation there was its own fitness. These isles were holy in their day. There is hardly one, even of the smallest—some bare rock—which has not its ruined church or remains of hermit cells. By way of them the Christian civilization of Ireland passed back to reconquer Western Europe: round them the religious life of three realms gathered. Iona, with its long roll of buried kings, was but the head of numberless settlements of monks and hermits on the islands scattered down the coast. Now, all that is left is these remains of churches or of clustered beehive houses, with here and there a broken Celtic cross, perhaps with an inscription in the Celtic character—these, and names and traditions persistent in the memory of the people, and a remnant in the farthest islands still clinging to the old faith.

And so, strange as it seems in fiercely Protestant Scotland, there still survive there whole communities untouched by the Reformation, whose life lies in the days of the Fingalians, of Ossian, Saint Columkille and Saint Bride, for whom the Old World romance is blended with the Old World belief. It is of these especially that Miss Goodrich-Freer, herself of the Roman Church, tells. In the Celtic renaissance which is upon us, her book must hold an honored place. The sentimentality, the vapid æstheticism, the sham mysticism, the strained preciousness of word and idea which have marked so many of its kind are lacking from it. Its reader feels sure that from point to point his contact is with actual, living men, not with ghosts returned from a hypothetical Celtic age. This realness, joined with an essential strangeness, is what makes its charm. Thus its picture of a simple-minded Old World Catholicism, shot with colored threads of imagination straight, one would think, from the 'Morte d'Arthur,' is drawn after the life from fishermen and crofters evidently of our day and facing its economic problems. It would take Cervantes to deal fitly with a people who can wall so absolutely in two worlds, and even Don Quixote nowadays would have found it hard to lay a lance in rest for Prince Charlie. But this strange race sing of him still as a fair maiden by his secret name of Morag; are Jacobites of more authentic descent and more unswerving fidelity than any of our absurd sectaries of the White Rose; and are, for all that, excellent subjects of the present reigning house. Again, to education there is with them the most absolute devotion, and they have in it a singular success. Their hard life has not thinned the keen Celtic brain to stupidity, as with the typical peasant; the centuries of ecclesiastical environment, it may be, left their mark too deep. But though they thus are schooled in the present, their thoughts are in the past. Broken fragments of the rich old mythology are still part and parcel of their common faith. The Carnegie endowment and a world of second sight, fairies, and omens jostle each other for them.

All this Miss Freer, guided by close sympathy and large knowledge, puts before us. To an equally excellent treatment of the crofting and fishing questions, of antiquities, and especially of the traditions and remains of the Norsemen and of eccle-

siastical life and differences, only allusion can be made. Miss Freer is the last discoverer of these isles, and her record is full and illuminating.

The book by the late J. G. Campbell is more limited in its scope and detailed in its treatment. It, with its companion volume on the 'Superstitions of the Scottish Highlands,' published two years ago, is practically an attempt to gather up the surviving fragments of the Celtic mythology. This volume embraces witchcraft, black and white, death warnings, second-sight and the Celtic year. The greater part of the former volume was devoted to fairies and kindred creatures, such as brownies, mermaids, kelpies, and water horses. The almost unique value of both volumes can hardly be exaggerated. Mr. Campbell was minister of Tiree for thirty years. He was in close intercourse with his people, and had, evidently, a singularly objective mind, which could fix and retell what reached it without admixture or change. Thus it is always perfectly easy to separate from the recorded fact the comment or explanation which he sometimes adds. No one will be misled by his derivation of "summer" on p. 226, or by his explanation (p. 184) of the protection afforded by a running stream as due to the shock of cold water arousing the traveller from his fancied terrors. A more essential point for criticism is the distinction made between the spirits controlled by witches and the uncontrolled and uncontrollable fairies. There can be little doubt that this is not fundamental, but has originated under Christian influence. Fairies and devils, for the heathen Celt, as for the heathen Arab, in all probability, did not stand generically apart. A comparison, indeed, between all the spirits detailed here and the numberless phases and manifestations of the Jinn in Muslim superstition suggests itself at every turn to the Orientalist. Of special interest is the gradual but only partial development in Islam of the division apparently completed among the Celts. Muslims have never lost consciousness of the identity of Ifrits and Satans with the Jinn.

Another point of agreement is the comparative lack of ghosts, in the true sense, on both sides. Among the Celts, this is balanced, in a way, by an extension of the doctrine of "the double." A man may have a ghostly double which wanders about absolutely independent of him, though there is a tendency for the owner of a double to follow after a time in its traces. Thus there comes about a kind of anticipatory haunting, with, to our ideas, the most topsy-turvey consequences. The scene of a murder or some catastrophe is marked out for gruesome things by weird occurrences there, long before its time. The result is a number of ghost stories of striking effectiveness, produced, perhaps, by the impression of connections and causations backwards as well as forwards, uniting the unseen and the seen worlds closely together. Of other stories, almost equally effective, there is an abundance here. The parallels, for example, to the story of the King of Cats go far to make it much more intelligible; there is a queer analogue to the story of the ring of Venus, in which Michael Scott plays the part of the magician; above all, there is the tale of the tailor and the Long Gray Paw; well told, it will give shudders to the most hardened.

Of Dr. Maclagan's study, little need be said. It is an admirable, if somewhat monotonous, collection of material bearing on the evil eye, tending to liveliness only where the professional feeling of the "qualified medical practitioner" comes in. One lexicographical result may be worth citing. The Century Dictionary notices "blinked" as applied to milk or beer in the sense 'turned stale or sour,' but gives no explanation. The Oxford Dictionary gives as one alleged explanation that the milk has been looked upon by an evil eye, and as another that it is due to lightning or the sun. In view of the usages in this book, the evil-eye explanation seems almost certain to be right. To the knowledge of the present reviewer, however, this origin of the word had dropped out of consciousness thirty years ago in the west of Scotland, and "blinkit"—so pronounced, like "stickit"—milk meant there simply milk slightly soured or turned by any cause.

MISCELLANEOUS BOOKS ON ART.

Michael Angelo Buonarroti. By Charles Holroyd, Keeper of the National Gallery of British Art. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903.

Botticelli. By A. Streeter. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1903.

Leonardo Da Vinci. By Georg Gronau.—*Millet.* By Romain Rolland.—*The French Impressionists* (1860-1900). By Camille Mauclair. (The Popular Library of Art.) London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Art in the Nineteenth Century. By Charles Waldstein, Litt.D., Ph.D., L.H.D., etc. Macmillan. 1903.

The Meaning of Pictures. By John C. Van Dyke. Scribners. 1903.

Pictorial Composition and the Critical Judgment of Pictures. By H. R. Poore, A.N.A. The Baker & Taylor Co.

The Old and the New Renaissance. By Edwin Wiley. Publishing House of the M. E. Church, South. 1903.

Part first of Mr. Holroyd's book, consisting of about 90 pages, is a translation of Condivi's 'Life of Michael Angelo Buonarroti'; part second, of about 160 pages, entitled "The Works of Michael Angelo," consists of a sort of running commentary on Condivi, and is illustrated with some fifty half-tone plates. "For convenience of reference, the chapters in the two parts are divided so as to cover the same periods of time in the life of the master." As an appendix, we have Francisco d'Ollanda's "Dialogues on Painting," in which Michelangelo is one of the interlocutors, "translated from the Portuguese with the help of Mr. A. J. Clift." Condivi's Life has been used by all the biographers of Michelangelo, beginning with Vasari, and extracts from it are common, but, we are assured, it has never before been translated in its entirety. Many parts of it were undoubtedly inspired by Michelangelo himself, and it is the most valuable single writing on the subject which exists. To translate it was a happy thought. The present translation reads smoothly. It differs greatly, at some points, from the extracts given by Symonds, and we are unable to judge which translator is the more accurate, though Symonds's version generally seems, intrinsically, more probable. The "Dialogues" of Francisco d'Ollanda has an apocryphal air, and the speakers talk remarkably alike. One doubts if it has any value as a record of Michelangelo's opinions, but it is rather interesting as a piece of sixteenth-century dialectic and a glorification of painting and painters. Most of the matter in the second part is, of course, to be found elsewhere, but it is judiciously selected and mingled with shrewd observations of Mr. Holroyd's own. Taken altogether, the volume gives in a convenient form almost everything that the "young student," for whom it is intended, will need to know about Michelangelo, and will prove a safe guide to his works. The illustrations are well chosen and pretty well executed. We are especially grateful for the engravings of those frescoes in the Pauline chapel which every one writes about and no one publishes.

Mr. Streeter's 'Botticelli' is a very good specimen of art criticism *à la mode.* Next to nothing is really known about Botticelli, and "there is as yet no direct clue to the dates of a majority of [his] pictures," but, as "a classification according to *period* . . . is clearer and more critical than a classification according to *subject*," and as it is desirable "to reconstruct the artist's life-work in the order of its natural development," a chronology must be made out somehow, mostly by the aid of wild guessing. The "Primavera" is variously dated by the "authorities" 1478 or 1483-84. The latter date was suggested by Signor Supino partly because of the manifest connection of the picture with Poliziano's Latin poem, "Rusticus," written in 1483, which "describes the assembly of the gods in the springtime as including precisely the same figures as those represented in the painting." Mr. Streeter first accepts the earlier date, purely on evidences of style, and then gravely remarks that "a comparison of the respective dates of the picture and poem is sufficient to refute" the theory that the former is founded upon the latter. Recast in the form of dialogue, the argument is something like this:

Supino—The picture must have been painted after 1483 because it is founded on a poem of that date.

Streeter—But it wasn't founded on that poem.

Supino—How do you know?

Streeter—Because, if the picture was painted in 1478, it must have preceded the poem.

And Signor Supino is triumphantly refuted.

Another instance of the same sort of thing may be given. There is in the Uffizi a portrait which is "generally supposed" to represent Giovanni dei Medici. Mr. Streeter says:

"As a portrait, if that surmise is correct, it is of less interest than the preceding one, as it canot have been painted from life. Giovanni having died in the year 1461. In the strong, intellectual features Botticelli shows his power of reconstructing a vigorous and commanding personality."

A painter would have said that, as the head manifestly *was* painted from life, it was either not a portrait of Giovanni or was not by Botticelli. A painter could have told Mr. Streeter, also, that the pose of the Christ-child's hand, and the absence

of cast shadow, show that the miniature crown of thorns and the nails in the Poldi Pezzoli "Madonna" are probably later additions, and that some one else than Botticelli is to be credited with the "deep pathos in the inspiration" which placed them there. By some hocus-pocus that some one should have detected, the plate of the "Primavera" is reversed, and is a puzzle to the uninitiated and a trap for the unwary.

The three latest additions to the Popular Library of Art are all excellent little books in their different ways. Dr. Gronau is clear and adequate in his account of Leonardo's life, so far as it is known to us. He confines his discussion of the master's art to such works as are universally accepted as his or are certainly known to have existed, and says as little as possible about disputes as to authenticity. With Leonardo as scientist he does not deal, nor would it be possible to do so on the scale of these volumes. The translation, by Frederic Pledge, does not always avoid a certain stiffness, but is generally clear and readable enough. It is noticeable that almost every drawing included in this volume gives more or less clear evidence of having been done with the left hand. It is astonishing that this test is not more generally applied to the many so-called Leonardo drawings.

M. Rolland's 'Millet' is an admirable piece of criticism, and gives in brief compass a truer idea of the artist and his art than anything else we have read. All that the author has to say of Millet's religious nature and of the relations of his work to the great classical art of the seventeenth century is profoundly true. We have a feeling that he slightly underrates Millet's technical power as a painter in oil, and yet that master's greatest technical achievements, in the solid modelling of earth and the perfect register of retreating planes, are clearly recognized. It is only the grave beauty of Millet's color, at its best, that is, perhaps, a little underestimated. The pure beauty and exquisite grace of "The Goose-girl," bathing, are no doubt exceptional in Millet's work, but his capability of expressing such qualities should not be ignored. The translation, by Miss Clementina Black, reads like original and forcible English. There are a few typographical errors, of which the only serious one is that on page 78, which gives the "Funeral at Ornans" to Corot instead of to Courbet.

The translation of M. Mauclair's little book on the French Impressionists is, unfortunately, too literal to be accurate, and the reader who knows no French is likely to be misled. Otherwise, it is a good, if over-enthusiastic, account of what the school has intended and accomplished. Taken with an occasional pinch of salt, it is palatable and wholesome. It is, perhaps, not surprising that the printer has, on how many occasions we cannot be quite sure, confused Manet with Monet.

In his lecture on 'Art in the Nineteenth Century' Dr. Waldstein takes art in its widest sense as including literature, music, architecture, and the decorative arts, as well as painting and sculpture. He has therefore little difficulty in showing that the nineteenth century was really a great artistic epoch—an epoch, indeed, whose artistic activity may well be called "stupendous." The characteristic of this activity he considers to be expansion, "the expansion of the subject-matter of art" and "the expansion of the mode and vehicle of artistic expression." Of course he finds his case easiest to make out as regards prose-fiction and music, though painting has gone far in this direction, and even sculpture has done something, if one confines one's consideration mainly to the school of Rodin. The chapter on architecture is significantly short, and that on the decorative arts deals mainly, alas! with *l'art nouveau*. We have noted a few minor slips, of which the worst are the substitution of Jerome for Gérôme, and the bestowal upon Carolus Duran of a final *t*.

Good sense is the most striking characteristic of Mr. Van Dyke's book—good sense so great as almost to be provoking. What is the reviewer to make of a book that is always calm, and cool, and *right;* that is never rash, or extreme, or "eloquent"; that sacrifices nothing to brilliancy, and never indulges in paradox or gains force by overstatement? If not profound, it is eminently sane; if not stimulating to jaded palates, it will prove nutritious to sound stomachs. It is neither strong meat nor ginger, hot in the mouth, but good bread; and good bread is a good thing. In a word, Mr. Van Dyke's writing is not unlike Hamerton's, and is more likely to be useful than a great deal of cleverer work.

A good book on pictorial composition is a desideratum, and in Mr. Poore's essay we hoped we had found it. Mr. Poore is himself an artist of some ability and speaks from practical knowledge; he has evidently devoted much thought to the matter of composition, and his ideas, so far as we understand them, are sound; unfortunately his lack of practice as a writer, and some personal eccentricities of expression, make him very difficult to understand. An instructor who should devote sufficient time to the book would find in it many hints that might increase the efficiency of his teaching; but the unaided art student, who is the person likeliest to purchase such a work, would be apt to find it more puzzling than useful. An almost entire absence of precise references to the illustrations under discussion adds to the other difficulties of its study.

We need say little about 'The Old and the New Renaissance.' The author's interest in art seems wholly sentimental, and his special qualifications for writing of it are undiscoverable. His lectures might serve as a mild stimulus to that kind of interest in art which sometimes exists among people who never see pictures and seldom read about them, but feel that it is a privilege to hear about them from some one who *has* read even if he has not seen. This is hardly reason enough for printing them, however.

Greater Russia. By Wirt Gerrare. The Macmillan Co. 1903.

If the English and American public are still in a state of rather crass ignorance about Russia and the Russians, it is not from lack of quantity of recent literature on the subject. Besides a flood of magazine articles of varying merit, the last years have witnessed a number of books of a more or less serious nature which have undertaken to describe the Empire of the Tsars from almost every point of view, and especially in connection with the new Trans-Siberian railway. Mr. Wirt Gerrare's 'Greater Russia' is distinctly one of the most readable of these works. It is in no way profound—the author is obviously not a deep student; nor is it comprehensive, for a large and perhaps the best part of it is the narrative of his own personal experiences. On the other hand, the book is decidedly well written, being lively, interesting, and, however superficial, pretty fair in its distribution of praise and blame. We may regret that the writer shows such readiness to make slap-dash generalizations on the strength of any single incident he relates; but though his opinions are hasty and his conclusions journalistic, his appreciations are in the main keen and intelligent. We can question a great part of what he says without being sorry that he said it. His first four chapters, "The Awakening of Russia," "Young Russia," "Industrial Russia," and "Agricultural Russia," can be compared with Mr. Norman's recent work. They are brighter and less careful. Here are two or three extracts, taken almost at random:

"The next natural product of importance is timber; of this there is in Russia and Siberia an apparently inexhaustible supply. It is not so large as American timber; much of it is at present inaccessible, and the science of forestry is neither understood nor valued. Much of the forest is birch, and birchwood makes the best paper pulp. This is an industry which is in its infancy; it must grow; and there is more than one fortune in it for the right people" (p. 30).

It is not true that the science of forestry is neither understood nor valued. In recent years the Government has made serious efforts in that direction. Of course very much yet remains to be done.

"In the 'New America' there is no initiative; all has to be brought in from the outside. Given the idea, shown the way, helped to a fair start, the Russian can go ahead with facility. The teacher is delighted; more apt pupils never were found. All goes well until the machinery wears or some little thing goes wrong; then things are at a standstill until outside help has been brought in to right them. If the same accident occurs from the same cause a second time, the Russian will be able to right matters, but if it is from a similar cause he is nonplussed. As a parrot speaks from rote without understanding, so the Russian workman does his task mechanically, and without comprehending, or attempting to comprehend, the why and the wherefore of the different parts of the more or less complicated tools he has to tend daily. He can do what he has done before, but in the simplest things he seems unable to trace the cause from the effect, or to remedy a trifling defect in a rough-and-ready but effectual way" (p. 40).

The statement contains a good deal of truth and not a little exaggeration.

"Throughout Russia the public—that is, the civilians—side with their own members in all conflicts with authority; and in a thronged thoroughfare the least disturbance may develop quickly into a riot which will need to be repressed by mounted gendarmes or the military. The Russian is of a very excitable temperament, and, whenever there is a show of feeling, both sides become more in earnest than the circumstances warrant. But for the praiseworthy forbearance of the humble officials entrusted with the maintenance of the peace, conflicts between the police and the public would be much more frequent and still more fiercely contested. If the people are in the mood to resent interference, it is sufficient that

they are opposed by some representative of authority for such trouble to ensue as will make both sides regret that a trifling point was contested. In short, there appears to be in Russia not an organized, but a natural opposition to the representatives of Government, and the most insignificant and unsuspected occurrence may serve for its manifestation.

"There is not the rigid repression that obtained years ago. The voice of the dissident is heard proclaiming loudly, and he is not molested. A street tram is delayed an unreasonable time at a passing place. The passengers do not take into consideration that some accident may have prevented the other car from arriving on time at the point. They clamor for the return of their fare, or insist that the car proceed on its journey; they stamp, beat on the sheet-iron advertisement-panels with sticks, and appeal to the police; he, fearing a disturbance near his point, simply orders the driver of the car to proceed, and, from that moment until it arrives at its destination, the passengers do not allow the man to stop anywhere a minute" (pp. 50-1).

This is interesting and important if trustworthy, as on the whole seems probable.

We read on page 52: "A quality the moddern Russian lacks is appreciation of the picturesque." This sweeping remark is apparently based on two examples.

Chapter V. is devoted to the "Great Siberian Railway," and is much like other recent descriptions. Of course, it is soon followed by "The Real Siberia." Further on, the account of the author's experiences on the Amur is particularly well written. As for his "In disguise through Mantchuria," it is also good, but we cannot help wondering if the disguise was really necessary. It was certainly not true last year, if it was in 1901, that Englishmen were not allowed to travel through the country; in fact, things have moved so rapidly that Mr. Gerrare's description of the Mantchurian railway is already antiquated. We have also not seen any confirmation of his discovery of a line from Khailar to Kalgan in Mongolia, at the Great Wall and not far from Peking. The Russians build so fast that, if this railway exists, it ought to be nearly finished by this time. An opinion worth noting even if not a new one is (p. 223): "The Russian treatment of the Chinese in war is more brutal than that shown by any civilized race to the most cruel savages. At the same time, the general treatment of the individual Chinaman by the individual Russian is far more humane than that shown to inferior races by Europeans and Americans generally." There is food for thought in this.

The last two chapters, "Russia's Manifest Destiny" and "Conclusions," contain about what one would expect in the way of lament, advice, warning, exhortation, and prophecy. Nevertheless, they are worth reading, and the book as a whole can be freely recommended, even if we must exercise care before accepting many of its statements.

Around the World through Japan. By Walter Del Mar. The Macmillan Co.

This handsome and well-illustrated book is, in its opening and closing chapters at least, built on the good old English plan. One will find here detailed and nearly complete directions for making a trip around the world, according to the approved British style. Though in the "luggage" you do not find yellow gaiters and hip bathtubs set down, yet in the long list of necessaries nearly everything else imaginable is. Mr. Del Mar's quotations of authors and his high commendation of Murray guides mark him at once as a typical "red-book man." The detailed outfit is for "a bachelor travelling first-class and having the best of everything," who will spend on an average about $10 a day, "not including cigars or wines, or the purchase of outfit or curios," though including cloth overshoes to be put over walking boots when entering Japanese houses or temples.

The author's route took him first to Ceylon, to which as a tourist he devotes three chapters, and to Java, where he was at first disturbed by the exhibition in a hotel at the midday meal of bare white legs, and even more so by the "display of the exuberant charms of the portly Dutch matrons, who, in rather scanty costume, loll about the hotel veranda or recline there on the long cane or bamboo lounges." He thinks the Dutch residents of the Far East lose much of their native modesty, and afford a striking contrast with their country folk in Holland. The Java mosquitoes, he declares, excel, in both power of music and perforation, those inhabiting the paddy fields of Japan or the swamps of New Jersey. By morning, the space in the bowls around the lamp is filled with heaps four inches high of dead insects. Along the roads in the interior he noticed great black clusters hanging to the limbs of trees. These at first sight seemed to be fruit of some sort, but further inspection showed that they were fruit-eating bats hanging head downward and asleep. The two chapters devoted to Java give little real information, and contain only the impressions of a superficial traveller who used the railways. Mr. Del Mar found that "India," in the mouth of a Dutchman, always meant the Dutch East Indies—that is, Insulinde, or Island India. At Singapore and Hong Kong, Macao and Shanghai he saw the usual sights, and his text reflects merely the talk of the hongs and clubs. Concerning the problems which arise between the contact of the white and yellow races, including the missionary question, he has very little that is original matter, and on every page, even when not printed, one may read between the lines "They say."

Japan was evidently the country to which the bachelor traveller's feet were from the first directed, and over one-half of the book is devoted to the country of the cherry blossoms. He arrived in Tokio just when the clouds of pink and white at Ueno and along the Sumida and in Shiba filled the air with their loveliness. Indeed, at a distance, the traveller could only with the aid of a field-glass make distinction between the white smoke of locomotives and the floral mist of the cherry trees. At a garden party he saw the Empress and the Emperor—

"the personification of the intense spirit of loyalty and patriotism which is the greatest virtue and chief civic characteristic of the Japanese. . . . Like his father, the Mikado Komei, his jaw is heavy and prominent, and the lips are thick and protruding, especially the under one. Under this mask of stolid imperturbability the Son of Heaven conceals his divine origin, his despotic power, and his modern statesmanship."

From Tokio the author took the train to Kioto, but it was a rainy day and he saw little of interest. Having no knowledge of Japanese history, except that hastily learned from the guide-book, his narrative is for the most part as flat as a Japanese poster, without the brilliant tints and effective lines of the latter. He journeyed also in the Island of Shikoku and eastern Kiushiu, and here, especially in Satsuma, he saw many interesting things and writes pleasingly about the industries, especially ceramics and sword-making. His return trip through the main island brought him through Nagoya and Hakoné. He visited northern Japan, Nikko and Asama Yama, but never, either in mind or body, strayed far from the beaten track.

It is in his seven chapters which discuss entertainments, the women, national characteristics, arts and artisans, trade and finance, that the author is most engaging; but he is nowhere profound or original, apparently lacks insight and all knowledge of the evolution of the Japanese, and his verbal pictures have slight literary charm. His reading seems scarcely to have extended beyond a few books of recent origin, and from these we get the scrapings rather than the pith. Occasionally he makes comparison with those portions of Europe within the usual run of travel which he has visited. He notes that "Japan is in fact a sterile country, largely volcanic, and with an area about the same as that of the State of Montana"; one-sixth of which is cultivated, while practically all the available land of the three chief islands is already under cultivation, the population exceeding that of the United Kingdom by about 9 per cent. Already the greater part of the principal islands is deforested. In many sections, the only trees now standing are to be found preserved in the grounds of temples. "In the sense that England, Scotland, and France are beautiful countries, Japan can hardly be considered to deserve the adjective." The pretty places in Japan are like plums in a pudding, and reports of the beauties of these isolated spots are exaggerated on account of their great contrast with the monotony and unattractiveness of the surrounding country. Concerning the relation between bachelor residents and the natives of both sexes, this author is an authority, for he took pains to interview many of his brothers of the single life. He finds that the resident scholars, teachers, and missionaries take too favorable a view, and idealize both Japan and the Japanese, while the dwellers in the ports are too pessimistic. It is in the writings of the "globe-trotter" like himself (p. 367) that a happy medium and a more just appreciation may be found. His return to the "silver streak" and London Club was made by way of Hawaii, California, and "the States."

After the very useful final chapter of "suggestions to tourists" there is a good index.

Les Sentences dans la Poésie Grecque d'Homère à Euripide. Par Trumbull Stickney. Paris: Librairie Georges Bellair. 1903.

The French, with their peculiarly keen sense for precise language, have maintained the literary use of the word which translates the Latin *sententia*, and is the true equivalent of the Greek γνώμη, "la sentence," the moral formula or general

reflection. We in English talk of the "moral" of a story, and we use the adjective "sententious" with a glimmering of its origin, but we are content to call any fairly concise expression of gnomic wisdom a "proverb." The general reflection is one of the most marked features of nearly the whole of Greek poetry, always profoundly moral; but there are the widest differences in its use and application. Compare the Book of Proverbs, the strength and austerity of its dark sayings, with the chatter of the fine ladies of Swift's 'Polite Conversations,' who bandy vulgar saws and sayings from sheer poverty of thought; the divergence is wide, but no wider than between the gnomic poetry of Theognis or Pindar and the proverbs that give subtlety to the simple middle-class conversations in the Greek mimes of Herondas or the fifteenth Idyl of Theocritus. Mr. Stickney does not digress to literary parallels, but one may note in passing how essentially similar is the tone of all current proverbial philosophy. The prophecy that his mother taught King Lemuel, her advice to one choosing a wife, echoes the acid wisdom of Semonides; and Hesiod's maxim that you should leave your relatives alone and be on good terms with your neighbor, is in the very words of Solomon: "Go not into thy brother's house in the day of thy calamity; better is a neighbor that is near than a brother far off."

In the field of Mr. Stickney's study, which does not include any poet later than Euripides, the actual rôle of the moral formula is varied enough. The writer's aim is to survey the gnomic element in the epic and elegiac poets, Pindar and the dramatists, and to define precisely in each case how the abstract moral truth was envisaged and expressed.

With Homer, of course, the tale's the thing. In the crowded hours of the Iliad the toilworn warrior may not sleep, much less think, but must sally out even in the dark night "amid the slaughter, amid the slain men, through the arms and the black blood." How different is the economy of the Indian epic! In the Mahâbhârata, as Mr. Stickney points out, the embattled armies wait while the hero is instructed in the ethics of war to the tune of fifteen hundred verses. One signal exception that does but uphold the rule will occur to every reader of the Iliad. "Why inquirest thou of my race?" cries Glaukos to Diomede. "As is the race of leaves, so is the generation of man." "C'est l'unique passage d'Homère où une pensée générale et le sentiment de la nature se rencontrent" (p. 49). But Mr. Stickney adds that, for the Greek, the image invoked is still, as elsewhere in Homer, the image of the individual man, of Glaukos, his action, his untimely death. The moral rhetoric of Hesiod was rudimentary; hence the failure of the purely didactic epic with its paragraphic style. In the sententious elegiac we have the general reflection, with the addition of music and a more advanced rhetoric. In Pindar the logic is left out, and the result is the poem of vague religious meditation, so that we arrive at an antithesis between the moral and lyric and the moral and rhetorical, between Theognis and Pindar. Add to lyric the oratorical element in the form of iambic dialogue, and you have tragedy with its dramatized argument. That is to say, music obscured rhetoric in Pindar; and when in tragedy music falls into the background, it is the moment for Euripides, the "sophistischer Rhetor." Here, then, we see the basis of Plato's contention that tragedy and comedy are only public eloquence.

It is impossible to give more than this bare summary of Mr. Stickney's essay of 250 pages, itself concise enough. It is one of two theses presented by the author for the degree of Docteur ès Lettres, a degree that has not, we think, been taken previously by an English-speaking student. It is to be hoped that Mr. Stickney's example may stimulate other American students to choose Paris for the scene of their graduate studies. It would be a great gain for classical studies in our universities if we could import the French clarity of thought, the definiteness of expression, and the sense of style which are not always conspicuous in doctors of philosophy made in Germany. Mr. Stickney proves once again that French is admirably adapted for the translation of Greek, partly because it is so inevitably clear. For once, then, we have a doctor's dissertation that can be read with pleasure by any general reader who reads French. The mere fact would damn it at Berlin. Yet the scholar will find evidence of sound and up-to-date scholarship in this essay, and the "Litteratur" of the footnotes would defy the scrutiny of all the Teutons.

The proof-reading, however, is not above reproach. We note Kirchhoff almost always misspelled Kirchoff (p. 59); "poème" for "proème" (p. 117); Grenfelt and Oxyrrynchus for Grenfell and Oxyrhynchus (p. 204); Ajax for Agamemnon (p. 228); "Alk." for "Herakl. Main." On page 75 Mr. Stickney mistranslates a famous passage from Hesiod. We do not believe that *la misère* and *la richesse* are a possible translation of κακότης and ἀρετή. That the version is deliberate is proved by the translation on page 144 of ἀρετή by *la prospérité*.

An Introduction to the History of Western Europe. By James Harvey Robinson, Professor of History in Columbia University. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1903. Pp. xl., 714.

Though the purpose of the author in writing this book is nowhere definitely expressed, it is obvious that he has had in mind the needs of schools and academies. The book is, nevertheless, in no sense a "manual." The ideals of the artist are much more in evidence than those of the compiler. As we understand it, Professor Robinson has endeavored essentially to relate the history of Western Europe, within the limits of a single volume, in a narrative which shall not be too condensed to be clear and interesting, and from the reading of which the reader may get as good a notion as possible of the unity and continuity of western European history from the fourth to the twentieth century, by having his attention fixed mainly upon the political, intellectual, social, and economic forces which have, step by step, transformed Europe of the fourth century into Europe of the twentieth. Selection, emphasis, and effective presentation are consequently the keynotes throughout. Nowhere has the author scrupled to omit; nowhere spared pains to illuminate. If this method needs any justification, it has been furnished in the present case by the specific reference to readings, by the supplementary bibliography at the close of each chapter, by the promise of a volume, now in preparation, containing selected readings from the sources and from good secondary works, and by the maps, charts, and illustrations which accompany the text. The references have been made with great care and good judgment to books which are both satisfactory and accessible in English. Of the thirty-six maps, all are good, some especially useful, such as those on Christian Missions, Fiefs and Suzerains of the Courts of Champagne, Routes of the Crusaders, Ecclesiastical Map of France in the Middle Ages, Lines of Trade and Mediæval Cities, Voyages of Discovery, Salt Tax in France, Races of Austria, Hungary, etc. If the promised volume of selected readings be prepared with equal care, no better equipment for the teaching of history in secondary schools could be desired than these companion works will afford.

Those who have followed Professor Robinson's publications will not be surprised to learn that he has saved space by neglecting episodes and anecdotes "hallowed by assiduous repetition," for the purpose of paying some needed attention to institutions like the mediæval Church, and to "economic, intellectual, and artistic achievements." Of the 277 pages given to the Middle Ages (down to the fourteenth century) four chapters, aggregating fifty-five pages, have been devoted to a special consideration of the Church and its activities, exclusive of the Crusades and the conflicts between Pope and Emperor. In dealing with the mediæval Church the author has been more than usually successful. While the four special chapters are among the best in the book, the Church has not, so to speak, been pigeonholed in these four chapters. At every step the reader is made to feel that the Church was the all-pervasive and unifying force of the Middle Ages. There is perhaps no book in English, large or small, that shows so clearly the way in which the Roman Church assumed the discarded functions of the Roman State, until it became a great organization, not more religious than political and social—a social organization in the broadest sense, which held Western Europe together until the national state system was formed. The sequel to this story—the gradual but inevitable separation and nationalization of political, social, and religious functions, which constitutes the essence of the Reformation—is also indicated, though, we think, not with equal skill and clearness. The literary and artistic achievements of the Middle Ages and of the Renaissance have been treated in separate chapters. In the eighteenth-century period, however, the intellectual activity is considered in connection with political events, and it is here that the author has been most successful in showing the relation between the two.

A few unimportant slips may be mentioned. It is not quite accurate to say that by the Great Charter "the king is to impose no *tax* save the three stated feudal aids" (p. 145). In spite of the qualifying statement which follows this sentence, the beginner will hardly understand that export duties, for instance, were not included in the limitation. The office of *bailli* did not originate with Philip Augustus (p. 130);

it was merely made a general institution by him. Strictly speaking, not the pointed arch, but a supporting framework as distinguished from the enclosing material, was "the distinguishing characteristic of Gothic architecture" (p. 264). Mary Stuart's grandmother, not her mother, was the sister of Henry VIII. (p. 459).

Aside from these slips there are some points in which we believe the narrative might, in the hands of our author, be somewhat improved. The reasons for the rapid and comparatively easy conquests of Clovis might perhaps have been set forth with greater clearness (p. 36). The real significance of the first four Capetians is, it seems to us, incorrectly estimated. While their success was mediocre, their reigns were not barren of results for the house of France; they at least prepared the way for their successors (p. 121). The intimate connection between the ecclesiastical policy of Otto the Great in Germany and his interference in Italy has scarcely been given due weight (p. 149). While the treatment of Germany in the Middle Ages (chaps. 12-14) is, on the whole, admirable, there are three main tendencies in German history which might well have been placed in stronger relief, viz., the subdivision and decline of the old stem-duchies, the expansive movement east and west, and the consequent rise of new centres of influence on both frontiers, but more especially on the east. The reorganization of the Empire in the 14th century, and the subsequent history of Germany, are scarcely intelligible unless one grasps the gradual eastward movement of the centre of gravity in the German system. A modifying phrase introduced at page 239 would be sufficient to correct the impression that all French towns were "communes." The map illustrating voyages of discovery could be bettered by indicating the eastward movement of the Portuguese from India to the Moluccas (p. 349). The statement that Richelieu attacked the Huguenots "not only on religious grounds" (p. 457), might with advantage be so changed as to indicate that it was not *principally* on religious grounds that he attacked them. While it is technically true that the Declaration of Indulgence was issued by Charles II. "with a view of bettering the position of the non-conformists" (p. 491), this phraseology does not seem to us clearly to convey the precise purpose of the Declaration, which was issued primarily in the interests of Catholics.

These are matters of very slight importance indeed, and our suggestions are made merely with the desire that from so truly admirable a book even the slightest defects may be removed. To beginners and to schools Professor Robinson's introduction can be unqualifiedly recommended.

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Channing, Edward. First Lessons in United States History. Macmillan. 60 cents.
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Pierce, G. J. A Text-Book of Plant Physiology. H. Holt & Co. $2.
Pollock, John. The Popish Plot. London: Duckworth & Co. 10s.
Ray, Anna C. The Dominant Strain. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Riis, J. A. The Peril and the Preservation of the Home. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
Roberts, C. G. D. Earth's Enigmas. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Robertson, Morgan. Sinful Peck. Harpers. $1.50.
Ruskin, John. Letters to M. G. and H. G. [Misses Gladstone]. Privately printed. $6.
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White, Gilbert. The Natural History of Selborne. Edited by Richard Kearton, Cassell & Co. $1.75.
Wilson, H. L. The Lions of the Lord. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Yeats, W. B. Where There is Nothing. Macmillan.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 25, 1903.

The Week.

Two classes of newspapers urge President Roosevelt to pay no attention to the growing demand for a new Postmaster-General. One consists of thick-and-thin party organs, which say that it would never do for the Republican party to have to confess that its chosen head of a demoralized Department did not display the energy that he should in the pursuit of corruptionists. The other is made up of Democratic papers and of those personally hostile to the President, like the *Sun*, which maliciously tells him that he did not put Mr. Payne in the Cabinet to do reform work, but to pull political wires, and that as long as he is doing the latter successfully, there is really no ground for removing him. The significance of this counsel we should think Mr. Roosevelt capable of fully appreciating. Meanwhile, Mr. Payne himself gives no public sign of wishing to relieve the President from an embarrassing situation. One more nudge has been given him, one would say, by the President's going over his head to appoint special counsel for the work of prosecution.

An amazing indifference on the subject of the performances of Perry Heath and the other proved violators of the law seems to prevail at Washington. The authorities incline to take the Dogberry attitude of thanking Heaven that they are rid of knaves. No serious inquiry appears to be made whether the statute of limitations really runs in favor of the said knaves, whether personal liability can still be enforced or restitution compelled. It is intimated that Heath may have a punishment greater than his sensitive nature can bear in being asked to resign from the Republican National Committee, in consequence of "the unfortunate light" in which he is placed by the Bristow report. But if nothing is really to be done to bring him to book, we do not see why Senator Hanna should not throw a protecting mantle about him, just as he has done about his other trusted but convicted lieutenant, E. G. Rathbone. Heath could make a strong plea as a party worker. No doubt most of his illegal acts were done to oblige Republican Congressmen. It was their "laborers" and "charwomen" that he put on the pay-roll. If no steps are taken to have justice done upon him, there is no reason why he should not again come forward as "a grand confidential man," and just the sort of unscrupulously efficient doer of dirty work that the Republican bosses delight to honor.

The talk of making the Post-Office thief-catcher, Mr. Bristow, Republican nominee for the Vice-Presidency illustrates a popular tendency which is partly good, partly bad. We desire to reward a man who has done a public service. We take a peculiar pleasure in honoring one who has exposed wickedness in high places. That is well; but it should not make us lose our sense of discrimination. It is still necessary to inquire whether the man is fit for the proposed office. The mere fact that he has trapped rascals does not of itself qualify him for other public duties. Recorder Goff was put into a judicial position, where he has not had exactly a conspicuous success, solely in consequence of the general demand that some sort of electoral reward be given the man who had turned Tammany Hall inside out. It may be hastily inferred that Mr. Bristow would find a good field for his peculiar talents in running down crookedness as presiding officer of the Senate; but the Vice-President is largely ornamental. He could put no inspectors on the bank accounts of Senators.

A sensible and peaceful solution has been found by the Attorney-General for the threatened difficulty between the Federal and State governments, in the matter of the battleships under construction which were seized for debt. While maintaining the general principle that the property of the United States cannot be attached, and asserting a quasi-ownership under the contracts with the shipbuilders, Mr. Knox discountenances, or thinks unnecessary, the violent proceedings which some of the bluff sea-dogs of the Navy Department favored. They were for going with a high hand and taking the vessels from under the very nose of mere State officers. But the Attorney-General quietly points out a more excellent way. Let the United States give an indemnity bond, as provided by statute, and then get the ships with the good will of all concerned, and without the sound of drum or cannon. This is lawyer's sense. The immediate question is laid by it, though no attentive mind can fail to see the great principle which lies germinant in the Attorney-General's main opinion. This is, that the general Government has power to see to it that the public business be conducted without local interruption. The application of that doctrine may come, in time, to be far-reaching. It may be invoked and, for all that we can see, with as good warrant, for Government interference with the next great coal strike, or with such disturbances of the smooth ongoing of Government functions as the vexatious strike on the Chicago post-office.

The Administration has retraced its steps in the matter of the opium monopoly in the Philippines. Secretary Root cables to Governor Taft that the plan of auctioning the right to sell the deadly drug must be abandoned for the present. Evidently, the protests of the religious and reform organizations against imitating the bad example of England, which we in this country have so often denounced, have had their effect in Washington. As long as it was only the querulous anti-Imperialists who complained, there was no occasion for action; but the case was different when the religious press began to speak out, after the manner of the *Watchman*. It said that American Christians were bound "in ordinary consistency" to protest against a traffic which they had condemned as "iniquitous" in British hands, since "the moral quality of such measures is not in the least affected by the name of the nation adopting them." We merely observe that the general application of this doctrine would undermine the whole system of Imperialist theology.

A horrible crime more horribly avenged, are the only words for the Wilmington lynching. Let us recall that the colored brute stood legally charged with his crime, and that there was no reasonable doubt that he would pay the penalty with his life. But the processes of the law, upon which the father of the murdered girl had begged his fellow-citizens to wait, were too slow for the maddened mob. The spectacle of law defied, a prison stormed, and a human being burned at the stake disgraces the State of Delaware, and again calls into question the reality of our religion and the efficacy of our civilization. Possibly the worst effects are to follow, for a community that has combined to override law is like a man who has once yielded to criminal fury. Morale is permanently impaired. Prison doors may be repaired and ashes swept from the high-road, all may look as before, but that community has acquired an insidious contempt for law, has committed the unpardonable sin against the State.

For a frank admission that the negro is robbed of his vote in the South, commend us to the *Observer* of Charlotte, N. C. It takes up the phrase about the ballot being only a "bauble" for colored men, and admits that it is now regularly taken out of his hands in the Southern States. It was done at first by force and fraud, but "this method became monotonous and distasteful, to such an extent that a Constitutional amendment which would legally accomplish what had hitherto been done by illegal means was

adopted." But the question whether it was legally accomplished is not yet decided. Nor is the question whether the penalty laid down by the Constitution for such abridgments of the suffrage shall be imposed. These considerations lend an uncommonly grotesque air to the proposal that the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments shall now be repealed. It is very like a criminal asking for the repeal of the law under which he is to be tried.

Senator Blackburn pronounces for Senator Gorman as Democratic candidate for the Presidency, on the ground that capitalists would not "shrink" from him. But the value of that recommendation depends upon who the capitalists are, and upon the reason why Gorman has no terrors for them. Some of the Maryland Senator's activities have been of a sort to endear him to a certain order of capitalists. When he put himself at the head of the Senatorial clique in 1894, and did all he could to ruin the Wilson Tariff bill by loading it down with favors to protectionists, the selfish interests which used him did not, indeed, shrink from him. They fell upon his neck in their gratitude and joy. But there were those who then shrank from their party's betrayer—among them Grover Cleveland, who would not sign the law which Senator Gorman did so much to deform. Similarly, when the Senator endeavored to wreck the repeal of the silver-purchase act, there was a good deal of "shrinking" by honest men from his presence. Gorman may flatter himself that all these things are forgotten or forgiven; but if he seriously plots for the nomination, he will find that there will be plenty to shrink from him even if "capitalists" do not. Should he, by any malign chance, be made the candidate, the party vote would show an unparalleled shrinkage.

It has always been urged in favor of the Trusts that they are able at all times to command the services of the most eminent specialists in every detail of their business, to the ultimate gain of the public. If a new ore is to be analyzed, the most distinguished professors of chemistry gladly leave their academic chairs to do it; if a lawsuit is to be defended, an ex-Attorney-General of the United States is at hand. It is just so with Trust literary activities. When the Sugar Trust wanted to issue certain pamphlets, it sought everywhere for the man of all men best qualified to write them. The fact that this man turned out to be Lieutenant-Governor of Missouri, and that legislation affecting the Trust's interests was soon to come up in the State Legislature, is a mere incident. Of course his work was well paid. Great corporations can afford to be generous. And can $1,000 be called an excessive price for a brochure on sugar, when in England a mere writer of romances is receiving a dollar a word for his unprofitable narratives?

Illinois has arrived at the twentieth anniversary of the adoption of a high-license local-option system at a time when the trend of legislation throughout the country is decidedly in that direction. The abandonment of prohibition in Vermont and New Hampshire furnishes, of course, the most conspicuous examples, but similar tendencies are to be observed elsewhere. In Tennessee the privilege of determining whether saloons shall be licensed was this year extended to all places having a population of less than 5,000, the previous limit having been 2,000. The Virginia Legislature, we believe, has given to rural communities the right of choosing between prohibition, license, and the dispensary system under local management. The Illinois law grants complete local option to all localities, except that it fixes a minimum license fee. In a recent issue of the Chicago *Tribune* William H. Harper, the author of the law, reviews some of the results of this policy. One interesting fact which he points out is that a considerable number of cities have fixed license fees much higher than the law requires. At Joliet, for instance, the annual charge is $1,000. Mr. Harper is perhaps unduly enthusiastic when he says that the Illinois plan has "settled the saloon question" and "made the saloons decent," but it has doubtless "driven out the worst saloons and certainly shows gratifying results as a revenue producer." A dozen States of the West and Northwest have been satisfied with the working of similar statutes.

It is estimated that the operatives in the Lowell cotton mills lost fully $1,300,000 on account of their strike, which collapsed utterly nearly a month ago, and which has now been officially declared at an end. The operatives demanded a 10 per cent. increase in wages at a time when the market for cotton goods was dull and the price of raw cotton was mounting. Naturally, they did not get it, and when they threatened to strike they utterly failed to intimidate their employers, who were, in fact, quite willing to shut down for repairs while the market steadied itself. When, after two months of idleness, the mills were opened on June 1, most of the workers who could be provided for returned. Many were not taken back because they were not needed, and many must still remain idle, at least until the managers decide to run their mills to the limit of their capacity. This is a good example of an unnecessary, unintelligent strike. The results are disastrous chiefly to the laborers involved. If the Lowell workers are wise, they will make some searching inquiries into the common sense and good faith of their leaders.

"Vindication" is current cant for the reëlection of a rascal or other person of questionable character. Such vindication Walking Delegate Parks has received in full measure from his constituents of the Housesmiths' and Bridgemen's Union, who have given him a handsome vote of confidence. He will unquestionably continue to be a walking delegate, the courts will shortly decide whether he is a rascal or not, and he is sure to remain a questionable character, for a man against whom three indictments for accepting bribes lie—selected from many complaints—can hardly hope for complete moral rehabilitation. Apparently Parks is satisfied with vindication—that is, with a vote which proves that the members of his union either wilfully shut their eyes to evidence of venality, or do not care whether their leader and representative is venal or not. That these workmen have given him an unreasoning support shows how irresponsible the unions still are. As strategy, nothing could be worse than to meet a lockout on the issue of blackmailing walking delegates by reëlecting one whose honesty is justly suspect, and whose credentials are chiefly that he has ordered a thousand strikes.

Gen. Greene spoke out boldly on the excise question in his West End Lyceum address. "I will enforce no law to make it odious, or to make it anything," he said. 'I will enforce it because it is the law." This has the honest ring which the "Brooklyn plan" and the plan of "liberal enforcement" sadly lack. There is much nonsense in the talk about the effect of Gen. Greene's policy as outlined in this utterance. As he points out, it is not a question of a "wet" or a "dry" Sunday. It was so under the old law, but the use of these terms ought to have disappeared, even if they have not, since the Raines law went into effect. It is folly to talk of a dry Sunday when more than 2,000 saloons are legally permitted to be open. Gen. Greene says that these places, qualified as hotels under the law, have been examined and found to comply with the statutory requirements. Under these circumstances nobody has any power to close them up, and there can be no dry Sunday as long as they find it profitable to keep open. Gen. Greene is reported to have said that the law relating to saloons which are not hotels is being pretty generally enforced. If this is the case, something like a revolution has taken place very quietly, and the fact speaks volumes for what can be done by courage, determination, and executive ability combined.

The Commissioner's declaration that police blackmail has not been absolutely done away with, but that the system has been broken in two and the pieces not put together, is undoubtedly an exact statement of what has happened since he took hold of the Department. Everything that can be accomplished by strict discipline and prompt, straightforward methods of administration has been done. The influence of the new spirit actuating the head of the Department has spread downwards and its effect has been distinctly manifest. But it may be doubted if a genuine and thorough transformation of police sentiment has as yet taken place. As Gen. Greene said in his address before the City Club on June 3, the rank and file of the police have been taught both by precept and practice to look upon blackmail as a comparatively trivial offence, and, in fact, as almost one of the perquisites of their office. They have traditions and habits of thought which have been too long established to be eradicated in a year or two. And while these have been largely laid aside for the present, there is a mental reservation with a large majority of the force to the effect that the old practices will be resumed when Tammany returns on January 1. The real transformation of sentiment will begin if that calamity is averted.

Mayor Low regards as a "regrettable mistake" the double relationship of A. B. Boardman of the firm of Boardman & Platt, as attorney of the Rapid Transit Commission and of the Pennsylvania Railway Company. He considers it fair, however, to say that Mr. Boardman has been relieved by the Commission from the consideration of all matters that might at any time come before it affecting the Pennsylvania Company. A vacation of this kind might be granted to Mr. Boardman without adding much to his spare time, but the main question is whether the Platts, father and son, were similarly relieved. We suggest to Mr. Henry George, jr., who seems to be conducting this John Doe proceeding, that he seek to find out how much legal service Mr. Boardman renders to the Rapid Transit Commission for the salary paid to him; also for what reason the Rapid Transit Commission retained him in the first instance. We can easily understand why the Pennsylvania Railway Company came to retain him. That experienced corporation thought that difficulties might be encountered in its progress through or under Manhattan Island which an able political manager could remove or mitigate. We acquit the officers of the Company of any design to gain the favor of the Rapid Transit Commission by employing its attorney. They know that the Commission will grant them anything within the Commission's jurisdiction which they can rightfully claim, and that they could not get anything wrongful even with the assistance of Boardman & Platt. So much is due to the reputation of the members, but it is not so easy to excuse them for retaining Boardman. They were under no stress or necessity; and when they did so, they sacrificed a part of their dignity and set an unwholesome example to the community. That was the "regrettable mistake."

The Irish Land Purchase act has been brought very near shipwreck on account of Mr. John Redmond's refusal to sustain Mr. Wyndham's compulsory minimum rate for judicial purchase. The spectacle of the entire Irish delegation voting against the Government and its majority reduced to forty-one is a very threatening one. Mr. Redmond left no doubt as to his position. If the Irish tenants are not to be free to make better bargains than those laid down in Mr. Wyndham's schedules, the Irish members are opposed to the bill. On this matter Mr. Redmond is right; for it is certainly preposterous to refuse to a landlord the privilege of selling his land by free agreement with his tenant-purchaser, and it is clearly superfluous to forbid a landlord to bargain to his own hurt. Mr. Redmond's criticism goes to the quick; for the bill is generally and rightly supposed to favor the landowners unduly. Upon this ground the Irish and the Liberals may fairly join in opposition. If they do, with all the Tory malcontents reckoned in, Mr. Balfour's shrift will be short indeed.

In threatening to withdraw the Land Purchase bill, Mr. Balfour swings a blade the back of which may bruise him more than the edge can terrify the Irish members, for that bill is all that stands between the Government and total debility. But it may be that the Irish, put to the choice between the land bill or nothing, will take their half loaf rather than the more ample, but empty, satisfaction of upsetting Mr. Balfour. In either case the alliance between the Irish and the Government has, through the rejection of the amendment for unrestricted purchase by mutual consent of tenant and landlord, lost all moral force. While morosely beating all they can out of Mr. Balfour, the Nationalists, as the *Freeman* tartly says, regard as cancelled any "obligations or gratitude," and stand ready to attack him when the fit time returns.

That you cannot handle an important matter while having no opinion about it, was shown on Wednesday week in the Commons when Mr. Balfour found himself suddenly challenged to state his attitude towards the Chamberlain plan for preferential tariffs. Undoubtedly, Campbell-Bannerman counted on this uncertainty in the Premier's mind when he asked him to give assurances that the Government was not secretly working towards protectionism. Mr. Balfour's answer lacked his usual tact. He not only let himself be drawn far beyond his original attitude of "open-mindedness," but he gave a qualified adherence to Mr. Chamberlain's programme in terms which one rarely hears from the courtly leader of the Unionists. He defended a policy of retaliation, and spoke of "penalized" British colonies, meaning only colonies which, like Canada, had not been able to maintain favorable tariff arrangements with other protectionist nations. Such language seems more appropriate to Mr. Chamberlain, who, curiously enough, appeared as the more moderate person, emphasizing rather the Imperial bond, and dwelling on the yearning of the colonies towards the Mother Country. But it is easier, of course, to be suave when you are sure of your own mind than when you are forced to a decision under duress.

England refuses to be represented at the festivities in honor of Peter I. of Servia, and the British Minister will for a time be conspicuously absent from the new court. The desire to discountenance the crime by which the new King reaches the throne will meet with general sympathy; but of the action itself it must be said that it is incomplete as a rebuke and impracticable as a general policy. While the British Minister remains in conspicuous seclusion near Belgrade, the affairs of England are, or should be, left in the hands of the envoy of some other Power. That is, England can safely condemn the assassination by ignoring the new government, only on condition that another Power condones the crime by recognizing the new order. It is questionable whether a nation or an individual has a right to exalt his own virtue at the expense of another's complicity with vice, and England, with the best of intentions, came perilously near to taking this ground. On the whole, the temporary withdrawal of the British Minister seems dictated by sentiment rather than wisdom; and diplomacy is a poor medium for the expression of sentiment. The Emperor of Austria, with characteristic directness, found the way to put his nation right in this matter. Feeling the inadequacy of diplomacy to express the moral indignation of his empire, he personally accompanied the formal and necessary congratulations with an explicit condemnation of the crime of Belgrade. One has only to compare the effectiveness of his few timely words with the weakness of the far more elaborate statement of the Russian Foreign Office to realize the impotence of diplomacy in these moral matters, and the value of a man.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE POSTAL SCANDALS.

Heads are falling thick in the Post-Office Department. The removal of Superintendent Metcalf last week was pretty obviously the work of President Roosevelt. Postmaster-General Payne went through the tearful act of dismissal, but the prompting evidently came from the White House. It was a wholesome step. Metcalf's own apology was his sufficient condemnation. The President saw the point at once, and gave the order for decapitation. But can he stop with that? Is there any hope of toning up a demoralized and corrupt Department without giving it a new head? Without the slightest animus against Postmaster-General Payne personally, we have come to the firm conviction that the crisis calls for his separation from the Cabinet—by a request for his resignation, if he has not the grace to offer it. We will put the case as succinctly as possible. On Thursday Gen. Bristow's report to the Postmaster-General was made public. It proves the Tulloch charges up to the hilt. By the unimpeached evidence of Government inspectors, by transcripts from the official records, it shows that systematic violations of the postal laws were practised by the direct orders of First Assistant Perry Heath and Postmaster-General Charles Emory Smith. It is mainly a story of petty thieving, infinitely base in conception, incredibly sordid in execution. Stealings of a few dollars here, illegal foisting of this and that name upon the payrolls for no services rendered, and the carrying of all kinds of suspicious favorites and impostors—the whole document reads like a brief abstract from the Newgate calendar, or a fragment of a report on sneak thieves in the Bowery. But it is absolutely convincing, and is acknowledged even by the Postmaster-General to prove that Mr. Tulloch did not begin to tell all the disgusting truth.

Now mark the sequence of events. This report of Gen. Bristow's was placed in Mr. Payne's hands on May 4. That mass of overwhelming evidence was, therefore, in his possession long before he gave out his partial and misleading summary of the Tulloch charges on May 16. Yet on that date he continued to characterize those charges as mere personal "grievances" and "glittering generalities," affirming that there was "no evidence—nothing but words." But he had in his desk all the while the most complete and damning evidence from his own subordinate, Gen. Bristow! How could a Postmaster-General who was both honest and capable take that amazing position? Did he intend at that time to keep the Bristow report under lock and key for ever? Was it his idea that, if Tulloch could only be sneered down the wind, the whole scandal could be officially smothered? If he thought so, and meant to do it, he is not fit for office morally; and if he did not perceive, or had not weighed, the crushing significance of the facts laid before him by Gen. Bristow, he is not fit mentally. In either case, he ought to be the next man to go.

On another phase of the postal scandals President Roosevelt shows a singular failure to grasp the popular point of view. As the *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent put it in his dispatch last Saturday:

> "His theory of the whole business is that there is enough that concerns the present day and the present Administration, without poking into matters to which the statute of limitations has attached on their criminal side, and which belong to the domain of his predecessors in office on their moral side."

The President is considering two aspects of the case, the moral and the political. As a man, he wishes to uphold moral principles; as a politician, he would not injure his party. Though some of his advisers may imagine a clash of interest, the two aims are in fact identical. The exposure of all the wrongdoers may harm individual Republicans, but it will enormously strengthen the party as a whole. To-day the Republican Administration is held responsible for this huge tissue of fraud, and nothing but a complete housecleaning can restore public confidence. The time for half-way work, for drawing the line at September, 1901, or March, 1897, or any other such date, has long since passed.

Though the moral side of the question is the more serious, little need be said about it, because the facts are obvious. The incentives to official wrongdoing are strong enough already, without stimulating our Perry Heaths and our Machens with the hope that if they can conceal their misdeeds for three or four years, they can enjoy their plunder in security and maintain unblemished reputations. Our officials should dwell in constant fear that even after the legal statute of limitations has saved them from the penitentiary, they may yet answer before the tribunal of public opinion. If President Roosevelt had succeeded a Democrat in September, 1901, would he still shrink from raking up the dead ashes of the past? His conscience, we think, would stir him to a fine burst of moral indignation.

His feeling now seems to be that former peculation and evasion of laws are purely private affairs, in which the public has no legitimate concern. But the public does not so regard the matter. The cause of this whole nasty mess is the belief that public office is a private business, from which every man should make as much as he can. The civil-service laws that were violated under the Cleveland or the McKinley Administration were not private rules of conduct, but the will of the American people. The money that was stolen was not taken from the pockets of the Presidents and their Cabinets, but from the national till. The public has a right to an accounting and will demand it at the polls.

The public is also aware that if President Roosevelt fails to go back to the beginning of this trouble, he can never reach the bottom or the top of it in his own Administration. Machen and Beavers and their syndicates were not the growth of a day or of a year. To understand their foul activity as the people have a right to understand it, Mr. Bristow and his assistants must follow the trail of corruption, whether it runs into the McKinley or the Cleveland or the Harrison Administration; and if there is any hesitancy about such thoroughness, that hesitancy is a step toward political suicide. The public knows little about the statute of limitations, and cares less. What it wishes to learn is not legal technicalities, but the names of the men who broke its laws and looted its Treasury. If their crimes are now outlawed by time, the public will regret the fact that the rascals are not to enjoy their deserts behind prison bars; but disappointment on this score will make it no less eager to get at the records of its own servants, so that it may deal wisely with them when they again ask for its confidence.

Only an expert can determine whether Perry Heath shall go scot free; whether the statute of limitations began to run the moment he violated the laws, or only after he left office and ceased to conceal the violations. But no expert is needed to determine the political effect of such a platform as this for the Republicans:

1. THE STATUTE OF LIMITATIONS.
2. LET US FORGIVE AND FORGET.

THE CANADIAN SITUATION.

The Ministerial situation at Ottawa has curious analogies with that at Westminster. Sir Wilfrid Laurier, like Mr. Balfour, is committed to a policy of general conciliation and compromise, while the part of disturber of the peace is played by ex-Minister Tarte, who may be called the late Chamberlain of the Canadian Government. As Minister of Public Works in Sir Wilfrid's Cabinet, he was the political manager of the Liberals, all-powerful in the Government stronghold, Quebec, and apparently as indispensable as Mr. Chamberlain to the Unionists. Again, Mr. Tarte broke with his colleagues in announcing without authority a policy of high protection and transportation subsidies. The parallel only fails at the end. Sir Wilfrid, feeling that high protectionist preaching was out of place in a Ministry traditionally committed to free trade and actually to the present low tariff, demanded and received the resignation of the rebellious Minister, thus enabling Tarte to do honorably outside his Cabinet what Chamberlain inside his is doing equivocally. Both have been roundly

repudiated by their respective Parliaments—Tarte through the defeat of the skilfully worded protectionist resolutions recently introduced by him; Chamberlain through the almost unanimous vote to repeal the war tax on grain.

Without pressing tediously the Plutarchan parallel, it is evident that the campaign for a British Zollverein halts badly, both in the mother country and in the colony most nearly concerned; and since Canada could probably give the deciding voice for or against Mr. Chamberlain's impetuous scheme, her present political situation has more than a parochial interest. Mr. Tarte, who leads a secession of unknown strength, and the Conservatives are the most vociferous friends of the tariff-union idea, but the least valuable. Their unselfishness is suspect, for they are working primarily for their pet programme of increased tariffs and bounties. That the sincere among them should not see that any increase in the Canadian schedules, at this time, complicates the already difficult relations between Great Britain and the other Colonies, evinces a very ignorant Toryism. Still, the protectionist campaign is being conducted with much noise and with considerable ability. Sir Wilfrid Laurier will have all he can do to meet it.

Towards the Chamberlain doctrine the attitude of the Administration press is non-committal, if not unfriendly. The official Toronto *Globe* resents the insinuation that nothing but a good tariff bargain can effectually bind the colonies to England, and appeals most eloquently to the dearer bonds of community of race and political ideals. The simple loyalty of the colonies, it feels, is a more valuable guarantee of Imperial unity than all the tariffs ever forged between Birmingham and the "illimitable veldt." Meanwhile, the official press shows greater interest in the renewed activities of the American reciprocity leagues than in the imperial visions of Mr. Chamberlain. Evidently the Prime Minister would prefer the immediate good of a fair treaty with the United States to the doubtful and remote advantages of Imperial federation.

This is a mood by which the flour-millers of Minneapolis and the Republican advocates of the Iowa idea generally should not fail to profit. In the present temper of the Canadian Ministry it would be easy for the Joint High Commission, should it be convened this summer, to agree upon a basis for a reciprocity treaty; while at a later time we may have to deal with a protectionism more violent than our own. It is highly important, then, that the Joint High Commission should meet, for Canada and the United States have every reason for adjusting their trade relations before the Canadian tariff policy is hopelessly warped by the Imperial idea. Obviously, Canada's emergency is the more crucial, for she may be asked to enter into a general tariff war and to expose her whole system of government finance to the hazards of a long and almost hopeless process of equalization. Sir Wilfrid Laurier has undoubtedly pondered Burke's challenge to a writer who wished to make the colonies contribute to the English Treasury:

> "Will he, in Parliament, undertake to settle the proportion of such payments from Nova Scotia to Nevis, in no fewer than six and twenty different countries, varying in almost every possible circumstance one from another? If he does, I tell him, he adjourns his revenue to a very long day. If he leaves it to themselves to settle these proportions, he adjourns it to doomsday."

Such words are undoubtedly in Sir Wilfrid's mind when he hears junior members of Mr. Balfour's Cabinet jauntily discussing "extension of the fiscal basis" of the Empire. It need not be urged that the moment is peculiarly favorable to renewal of tariff negotiations. If there is a glimmer of larger political sense at Washington, the Joint High Commission will be promptly convened and directed to draw up a plan for reciprocal lowering of duties.

But the most serious obstacle to the acceptance of the Chamberlain programme by the Dominion lies in the quiet growth of the sentiment of independence—an inspiration fully in accord with loyalty to England. Except for the rather ornamental presence of a Governor-General appointed by the Crown, and the control of her foreign relations from Downing Street, Canada is inedpendent, and there are signs that she will soon assert her diplomatic independence also and negotiate directly with other nations. Already the various joint commissions appointed from Ottawa and Washington have exercised a quasi-diplomatic authority. In the negotiations which followed the failure to renew the German reciprocity treaty, Canada dealt directly with consular representatives of Germany without protest from London, and now it is a question of sending "consular agents" to the various capitals and trade centres. Such officials would be in all but name Canadian Ministers. Though the formation of a diplomatic corps accredited from Ottawa be delayed, the diplomatic independence of Canada already exists in fact if not in theory. Can any one imagine the British Government quashing a treaty that Canada plainly desired? It was done in the case of Newfoundland, with the Blaine-Bond convention; but what was done in 1895 at Canada's request would never be done in 1903 against the Dominion itself.

If this sentiment of nationality is still, except among the French, unconscious and complicated by British loyalty, it is none the less real. It furnishes the best guarantee that Canada will neither commit herself headlong to Mr. Chamberlain's impressionistic finance, nor yet refuse, when the occasion offers, to enter into mutually advantageous trade arrangements with her nearest neighbor and prospective best customer.

THE GERMAN ELECTIONS.

As was clearly foreseen, the outcome of the German general elections has been great gains for the Social Democrats. Notwithstanding the hostility of the Emperor, of the official and privileged classes, and of the Church, at least 400,000 more voters have allied themselves with the party of "subversion," as William has termed it, and thereby made themselves "enemies of the country" in his eyes. If they were Anti-Imperialists voting and talking against a policy of "criminal aggression" in other lands, they could not be more reprehensible in their ruler's eyes. We thus have the spectacle of hundreds of thousands of citizens driven by the reactionaries and the devotees of absolutism straight into the arms of those who advocate collectivism.

The Social Democrats are admittedly in possession of five more seats in the Reichstag than after the first balloting in 1898, and confidently maintain that their delegation in the Reichstag will number at least eighty. But their moral victory is far greater than appears from these figures. To have carried Saxony by 100,000 more votes than all other parties is an achievement which Liebknecht surely never dreamed to be at hand when he served his last term of imprisonment for lese-majesty only four years ago. In the previous election, the Social Democrats polled nearly 27.18 per cent. of the total vote of Germany. This year they are certain to have received about 3,000,000 votes, or considerably more than a third of all that were cast. In every case the seats won are in the cities, where the party is strongest. It is noticeable, however, that the gains were in the smaller cities. In Berlin only one new seat was captured; but Zittau, Plauen, Bielefeld, Solingen, and Darmstadt, all growing industrial towns of the second class, added to the triumph of the "Reds." Undoubtedly the Saxon dissatisfaction with the reigning family, which has been openly expressed since the flight of the Crown Princess, had a great deal to do with the victories in that kingdom. The result in Essen, Krupp's town, where the Social Democrats increased their vote from 4,400 to 22,705, must be particularly galling to the Emperor. He went there seven months ago to attend the funeral of Friedrich Krupp, and made use of the occasion and the place to denounce afresh the Social Democrats, whose active organ, the *Vorwärts*, had accused the ironmaster of nameless immoralities. The Emperor then said to a gathering of workingmen:

"I am confident that you will find the right way to demonstrate clearly and tangibly to the German working world that in the future it will be out of the question for honest, honor-loving German workmen, whose escutcheon has been stained, to hold any community or relationship with the authors of this shameful deed [*i. e.*, the Social Democrats]. He who does not cut himself off from these people will morally bring a certain measure of this guilt upon his own head."

A more direct rebuke than the vote of Essen could hardly be administered to the monarch who says to his people: "All of you shall have only one will, and that is My will; there is only one law, and that is My law."

There is every prospect that the victory of the Social Democrats will be all the more striking when the reballoting has taken place. In the second poll in 1898, 48 per cent. of the seats in the Reichstag were contested, no one candidate having secured a majority over the combined votes of all his rivals. This year the percentage of second contests is likely to be even larger. In the past, the provisions of the election laws have been extremely injurious to the Social Democrats. The second election being confined to the two candidates who received the largest number of votes, all the other parties have generally combined against the "Reds." But this year there is likely to be an influx of votes to the Social Democrats from the Radicals, who have again gone down to defeat despite an active campaign, just as the Social Democrats have helped out the Radicals where they were themselves unrepresented in the second elections.

From the point of view of Liberalism the Radical losses are unfortunate. Radicals and Social Democrats together voted against the tariff and further military and naval burdens. To the Radicals belong not only Theodore Barth and Eugene Richter, but Mommsen and other men of learning who for years followed in Virchow's lead. Many of them have found their ideals of government best expressed in the United States, and have learned many a lesson from our own political experience. Now Barth, Richter, and Mommsen must contest again for their accustomed places, and their combined forces have been cut by one-fourth. As a result we may look for even closer relations between the Radicals and the Social Democrats, as was recently foreshadowed by Dr. Barth in his remarks at Kiel on the remodelled Social Democratic party.

For German women to engage actively in a canvass is indeed a novelty. Yet the dispatches assign to them an enterprise in behalf of the Socialists which one is accustomed to find only in the Primrose League. The party's advocacy of woman suffrage is no doubt largely responsible for this phenomenon, but the cry of "bread, usury, and dear meat" has its special significance in the homes of the laborers who make up the bulk of the Social Democratic voters. The rapidly growing interest of all German women in things beyond the pale of "church, kitchen, and children," to which the Emperor would limit them, is one of the striking signs of the times. Their clubs and associations are now counted by the hundreds, their conventions are well attended, and their journals more and more vigorous. The Social Democrats are the only party which has thus far admitted women to its councils. The Radicals are favorably disposed towards them, and even the more conservative parties are likely to take a greater interest in their activities. The result of the poll as a whole will not be taken by either the Government or the Conservatives as a rebuke to the high-tariff policy of the last Reichstag. Nor will the Ministry be compelled, as matters stand now, to form new alliances for the sake of a Parliamentary majority.

ON DISPLAYING CELEBRITIES.

From the accounts of the reception of M. Rostand at the French Academy may be deduced certain advantages of academies ignored in Matthew Arnold's famous essay—namely, the opportunity afforded by such an occasion for the display of a nation's best talent. Ordinarily, there are obstacles in the way of intercourse between, say, a poet and his public. The customary round of society frets him and tends to merge him in the mass of black-coated dancers or diners; public dinners give him indigestion and require of him silence or reluctant levity. In short, in countries which do not have academies, the conditions of publicity are so distasteful and demoralizing that literary men of any sensitiveness are driven back to the seclusion of pipe and slippers.

In strong contrast with what may be called the Anglo-Saxon way is the fashion in which every Frenchman of ability is compelled to contribute something interesting to the social life of the nation. We need not dwell upon the exceptionally happy feature of M. Rostand's reception. A kind fate gave him the duty of eulogizing the poet and dramatist Bornier. Rostand's predecessor in the Academy was also his precursor in the poetical drama. Bornier's "La Fille de Roland" had brought to the disconsolate France of 1875 something of the patriotic exaltation that "Cyrano de Bergerac" inspired in the faction-torn Paris of 1897. Both authors had an immediate and a deserved success. Bornier had recalled to a Paris humiliated by the Prussians, and smirched again by the impious hand of its own mob, the memory of Charlemagne's strong reign and of Roland's supreme sacrifice. Rostand, with his creation of a hero of infinite tenderness, lion-like bravery, and undaunted humor, gave a new and patriotic impulse to a Paris beset by dreary villains and cheerless partisans. No one who did not pass that terrible winter with Mercier, and Zola and the Veiled Lady, and the wraith of the Captive of Devil's Island, can imagine what a consolation it was to know that Cyrano was playing, and that amid that coil of slander and deceit French schoolboys were organizing companies of "Cadets de Gascogne." Besides this cognate position as patriotic poets, Bornier had the attraction for Rostand of being a man not wholly unlike his own Cyrano—a great soul in a body pitifully small to contain it; a dramatist whose subjects were Mahomet, Dante, St. Paul, Charlemagne, and who remained most of his life an under-librarian; a candidate for the Academy who took a nap while the Immortals were balloting on his name, and had to be shaken out of sleep into his new honors. With such a hero M. Rostand's eulogy was sure of success; and similarly the charm of the young Academician inspired the critic Vogüé, who made the address of welcome, to an unusual warmth and eloquence.

But it might be said: "This was an exceptional case, with peculiarly auspicious conditions. You will not seriously maintain that the official oratory of France has any considerable effect either for good or ill?" It has this effect—it leaves none of the finer emotions of the nation to a random or unworthy expression. M. Rostand may never surpass his eulogy of Bornier, but, if health be granted him, he will be heard on many occasions pleading for Gallic wit and bravery against the cynicism of the Boulevards. And M. Rostand has the assurance that when his last line is written, after a decent space for preparation, some future Academician will compose an appreciation of Edmond Rostand as scrupulously just and careful, if hardly as delicate, as that which he has left in memory of the poet Bornier. Through this practice of making her literary men her spokesmen, France is saved from the plague of professional oratory and from the itinerant speaker on subjects which he does not understand. Your Academician may be a dull dog, but at least he speaks with discretion and authority. If he fail to rise to the height of the occasion—as will happen—he is at least freed from the constant temptation to be unworthy of himself.

One can hardly overestimate the value of these occasional addresses of high quality in forming and cherishing a body of cultured opinion. The influence of books is individual rather than social; such speakers as M. Rostand and the Vicomte de Vogüé not only represent an élite, but recruit its membership; and it is this compact class, with its organized agencies and its spokesmen, that makes France the nation of all others most hospitable to the things of the mind.

It would be futile for America or England to attempt prematurely to

adopt the French system. No good can come of imposing upon our public any bodies which lack none of the qualities of the French Academy except its dignity and competence. But we may at least congratulate a nation that gives its poets an intelligent hero worship; for the poets are the prophets of magnanimity. M. Rostand dwelt very touchingly upon his long walks in schoolboy days with a certain tutor. Where others taught him dead facts, this young man told him of beautiful landscapes, great loves, and of bold deeds. It was Villebois-Mareuil who, before devoting his sword and his life to the heroic burghers of the veldt, gave Edmond Rostand his earliest lessons in romance. This, said Vogüé, in welcoming Rostand to the Academy, is the function of the poet—to stir his times to remoter and nobler issues: "Heroic deeds are latent in the souls that your songs have touched. That is why such as you alone can lay claim to complete popularity, to absolute sway over our hearts. They alone have the power of awakening enthusiasm, which seems dead because it is chilled when we become absorbed in Byzantine debates and Lilliputian ambitions." It is because France recognizes the value of poetry that she displays her poets and celebrates them in a fashion astounding to a less literary people. It seems to be one of the matters that they manage better in France.

CHOOSING COLLEGE PROFESSORS.

Mr. Sidney Lee has returned to England convinced that our American way of choosing college professors is better than the English, and has manfully made his avowal of conversion in the London *Times*. Towards that variety of the merit system which prevails at the English universities, his attitude is one of courteous ridicule. No man of high professional standing likes to answer an advertisement and put himself in public competition with a score of nobodies, and no modest person wishes to draw up the list of his own qualifications; while canvassing for the endorsement of distinguished acquaintances is the most distasteful task that can be set a scholar. All this open and competitive candidacy is, Mr. Lee finds, humiliating to the professor himself, and disadvantageous to the university, inasmuch as it deters good men from presenting themselves for professorships. Unquestionably our system, under which the chair seeks the professor and the professor is forbidden all overt efforts to reach the cathedra, lends a greater dignity to the election, while the fact that all incomplete negotiations are held confidential spares the dignity of unsuccessful candidates.

With Mr. Lee, we best like our way of catching professors, but we feel that the English method has so exact a relation to the subsequent duties of a British professorship that it hardly deserves unqualified condemnation and hasty abolition. The conditions are so unlike in English and American universities that it is not unnatural that promotion to professorships should reflect in either case the national and local differences. With us the position of a college teacher is eminently a personal one. He must first work in friendly relations with the President who appoints him and is his chief; his courses of instruction cross or touch those of a dozen of his colleagues towards whom he is bound to be considerate; frequently a more intimate bond unites him with the members of a highly organized department; finally, he must come to terms with scores of students into whose heads he must pack useful knowledge for weeks in order to extract it again during the few hours of examination. Great scholarship and distinction by no means fit a man for these manifold individual duties; frequently, in fact, they incapacitate him from playing his part acceptably in the fretful trade of teaching. It was this that made a college president, not of Irish extraction, say that he wished not scholars on his faculty, but men who had been worked to death in Western colleges and had survived. Evidently no merit system is fully applicable to an employment in which personal qualifications are all-important.

If the American professor is primarily a useful person, the English professor has been until very recently chiefly ornamental, and this undoubtedly explains the British method of public candidacy. An old-school English university professor teaches none of the subjects indispensable for a degree. He pursues his subject, without disciples frequently, and lectures a few times a year to those who care to hear him. He draws his stipend less for any tangible service than for the scholarly prestige he brings to the university. Ordinarily he lives apart from the intimate life of the colleges, and is rather less than a name to the students, or even to the dons. "S——? He's the chap the girls go out to hear," said a Cambridge don when questioned as to the most eminent Chaucerian now living. In short, unless the English professor distinguishes himself by some eccentricity—goes in for road-building like Ruskin, or paints fellow-professors at a single public sitting like Professor Herkomer, he hardly makes an impression upon the daily life of the university. It is, then, not unnatural, where distinction rather than efficiency is the criterion, that the university should require the fame of a candidate to be proved in the most conspicuous fashion, and if, as Mr. Lee insists, it is an agonizing affair to draw up your own bill of praise, there must yet be a peculiar pleasure in finding the items approved by an historic university.

It must be supposed that Mr. Lee's strictures apply less to Oxford and Cambridge than to the teaching universities of Scotland and their imitators in England which are constantly growing in attendance and in general esteem. Institutions like Owens College, Manchester, and the Universities of London, Glasgow, and Edinburgh, combine the teaching with the examining and degree-giving functions. Their professors work under conditions not unlike those which prevail in Germany or America. Naturally, these learned bodies suffer at times in straining the analogy of the civil service and applying a distorted merit system to the selection of professors. Since the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are beginning gradually to assume the teaching function, which for many generations they have left to the colleges, the matter of appointments will probably be looked into and revised in the American direction, though for years to come the historic chairs will remain foundations for voluntary research, or rewards for past achievement, rather than professorships in the American and German sense. Mr. Lee's frank commendation of the American plan is an interesting evidence of the spread in England of the idea of a teaching university. To many who at this season are trying to better their academic condition, his observations will be consolatory, for no Anglomania is likely to add to the examination papers and reports which already darken the June days of American professors the ungrateful burden of composing elaborate briefs in their own commendation.

THE PARIS SALONS.

PARIS, May, 1903.

Mr. Sargent's good fortune follows him from London to Paris, and this summer at the New Salon, as last at the Academy, his work stands out with special distinction simply because it meets with so little competition. He has sent one of the large portrait groups that made such a stir when first exhibited at Burlington House a year ago, "The Misses Hunter." I described it in the *Nation* at the time. It is the portrait of the three sisters who sit on a circular divan, the lines made by the grouped heads repeated in the flow of the voluminous drapery; a composition full of ingenuity. There is in the painting the skill, the dexterity, the sheer cleverness that distinguishes all Mr. Sargent's work. To see it a second time is to wonder again at the vigor of his large sweeping brush, at his rendering of the dull sheen of the black silk in two of the gowns, at the modelling of the little dog in the foreground. But to see it again is also to be still more conscious of its defects; the drawing is so vague and careless that two of the sisters have no legs at all, and the third, those of a giantess; the heads are all painted from the same palette and after the same pattern, which even the plea of family resemblance cannot justify; the dog, a solidly modelled little body, makes no impression whatever upon the black skirt upon which he lies extended in sound slum-

ber, but hangs in mid air as miraculously as Mahomet's coffin.

One feels, as indeed one always does with Mr. Sargent's pictures, that, submitted to a more severe test, placed in a collection of old masters near Hals or Rembrandt, Velasquez or Rubens, the portrait would seem merely the clever performance of the clever student. But in the Academy there was nothing to compete with it. Now, at the New Salon, there is nothing. Such distinguished or accomplished portrait painters as Mr. Whistler, Mr. Alexander, M. Gandara, M. Zorn send nothing this year. M. Boldini, a serious rival in Mr. Sargent's own particular line, has but a very small head, while M. Besnard, M. Aman-Jean, and M. Simon have seldom been so uninteresting, and M. Carolus-Duran, Mr. Sargent's master, continues to paint the same gorgeousness of costume, cut out against the same gorgeousness of background, with the same meretricious qualities that have made his later portraits hardly worthy of an artist of his undoubted power. The only portraits of note come from M. Anquetin, who, however, in his series of Rabelais, Descartes, De Vigny, and Balzac for the Hôtel de Ville at Tours is so colorless that one must turn to a little picture of a sudden effect of light in a Parisian street to remember what an accomplished painter he is; from Mr. Lavery, who has a graceful full-length of a lady; and from M. Blanche, who has several smaller canvases, half-lengths, of distinguished people, treated with unusual reticence and dignity, but whose one large group, "M. et Mme. Francis Vielé-Griffin et leurs quatre filles," is little more than an ambitious failure. Mr. Sargent stands really alone, and consequently he triumphs.

But I have found the Salon this season almost altogether a triumph for the American exhibitors. I do not mean the well-known artists who long since made their reputation, so much as the younger men, of whom, in the case of two or three, I at least now hear for the first time. Indeed, one is struck by the fact that most of the older exhibitors are unrepresented. Not only Mr. Whistler and Mr. Alexander, but Mr. Melchers, Mr. Humphreys Johnston, Mr. Abbey, Mr. Dannat stay away. Mr. McLure Hamilton is content to send one small portrait which he himself has often surpassed. Mr. Childe Hassam apparently thinks that, having before this shown in the Salon what he can do, there is no need for further effort, and the three or four outdoor sketches he contributes would find a more appropriate place in his own portfolios. Mr. Gay is still painting little interiors of great French castles with some feeling for their dignity and charm, though his work is dry and matter-of-fact when compared with M. Lobre's more brilliant, more freely rendered versions of similar subjects which this year, unfortunately for Mr. Gay, have a place on the opposite wall. Mr. Alexander Harrison is still painting his familiar seas, seldom varying his effects, save in one where he seems to have borrowed the palette as well as the big clouds of M. Ménard.

In the work of the younger men, however, there is not only less sign of fatigue, as is natural, but greater freshness of vision, greater truth of observation, and greater appreciation of design. For the last few years, the landscapes of Mr. Morrice, a Canadian by birth, have been among the most delightful in the New Salon. His merit is that he can see things as they are, and yet see them charmingly. To many, even of the most distinguished landscape painters to-day, this appears to be an impossibility. Take M. Lhermitte: his sunlit fields where gleaners are at work, his low river banks where women bend over their washing, compel admiration, as they always have done, from the sheer force of their truth to nature; but no one would look to them for charm of color or sentiment or arrangement. And so it is with the canvases of uncompromising realists like the Belgians, M. Claus and M. Buysse, who almost go out of their way to select violent and crude effects as if to prove their absolute fidelity to nature and their disdain of the resources of the art they practise with such technical ability. The Norwegian, M. Thaulow, is another who has conquered by the unmistakable truth of his records of the movement of water, of the brilliancy of snow and ice in clear sunlight, of the quiet and hush of the empty street in the moonlight; but, gradually, he too appears to be beginning to believe there is no being true without a straightforwardness bordering on brutality. At the other extreme are men like M. Le Sidaner, whose study of tone and evening light are based upon a convention that threatens to convert the scene before him, whether Chartres on its hill or the little garden of the suburban villa, into a mere conventional shadow; or M. Billotte, who, whatever his theme, knows it only through the eyes of Cazin, his master; or M. Duhem, whose pastorals are in danger of fading out of sight. But Mr. Morrice steers a middle course. In Venice, for example, he is as conscious, as any one who ever painted there, of the pale loveliness of palaces and campanili, lying on the lagoon, as one sees them from the Public Gardens; but he is no less sensitive to the magic of light—not the glitter of the ten-franc water-color as sold in the Piazza, but the misty, shimmering real Venetian sunlight, that weaves town and waters and sky into one rare and haunting pictorial whole, no less sensitive to the grace and dignity of the pattern made by the distant outline of the dream-like city, the stretch of well-spaced water, and the terrace with its symmetrically placed figures. Truth and design you find in the same happy combination, whether he paints a place in St. Malo or an effect of snow in his own Canada, the northern sea with its sails or the Gardens of the Tuileries; and, always, beauty of color and unity of tone are essentials to the design. Again, in the pictures of Mr. Frieseke, which I never remember to have seen before, there is feeling for design, for color, for pictorial harmony. Mr. Whistler has evidently been the master whom he has carefully and sympathetically studied. But Mr. Frieseke's rendering of the nude, of a woman in pale rose and silver draperies, and of other themes as simple, show that he is able to observe for himself with truth and delicacy both, and if he can cultivate his own originality, a notable future should be in store for him. At all events, he is a painter whose career is worth watching.

Mr. Maurer is another newcomer. He owes more to Manet than to Mr. Whistler, but he, no less than Mr. Frieseke, gives evidence of powers of observation of his own. His ballet-dancer may be Manet-like, even to the bunch of flowers she holds, recalling the "Olympe" of the Luxembourg; but in a little picture of "La Dernière Danse au Bal Bullier" he has observed for himself an amusing and pictorial arrangement of light, and carried it out ingeniously and forcibly. He, too, is a painter from whom something should be expected. These are the men who have interested me most. But I might at least say in passing that there are also good examples of Mr. Herter, Mr. Clark, Miss Nourse, and Mrs. MacMonnies among the other Americans.

At a first glance it might be thought that the younger Spaniards are even more promising. But it seems to me that I see already some indication of exhaustion. True, the vigor of Zuloaga is tremendous. In him you feel, as in Sargent, the mere physical or muscular force and endurance so much more characteristic of old masters than modern weaklings. The Misses Hunter themselves are not painted with greater dash and vivacity than the Andalusian, with her piquant eyes and heavily powdered face, and the Gypsy, with her dark skin and darker hair, as they pose and swagger on Zuloaga's canvas. And the detail of a flowered shawl or a toilet table is as marvellous as Sargent's silks and chiffons. But then it is all so clever that you see nothing save the cleverness. There is no repose, no reticence, no dignity. Artists in Paris are making of Zuloaga their hero of the moment, but, on looking dispassionately at his huge canvases, they strike me as mere technical fireworks compared to that still bigger picture, a couple of years ago, also of typical Spanish types, that led the more enthusiastic critic to welcome the young Spaniard as a new Velasquez. Garrido, too, I think, has lost something in the last twelvemonth. He has a poultry shop, quite amazing in its treatment of the rows upon rows of feathered and trussed fowls and its pile of glistening, disembowelled rabbits; but in the midst he has placed a woman as banal and trivial as if she had strayed from any foolish story-telling picture. There is a glow of color in Anglada's impressions of Spanish markets and French theatres, a dramatic suggestion of movement in Casa's painting of the charge of the mob at Barcelona in 1902. And yet I am not sure that I should have found any of these things so notable in the first days of the secession of the New Salon from the Old. For there is no question that, as far as French painters are concerned, the present moment is one of inaction or fatigue. I have referred to a few who once gave the exhibition its chief distinction. Of the others, M. Carrière must also be named among the absent. M. Raffaëlli seems bent on proving the qualities of his own solid oil colors. M. Picard, who was for an interval so promising, has degenerated into simple Salon commonplace. M. Legrand always commands attention; but the violence of his color schemes and his deliberate indifference to beauty of surface—one of his pictures, a landscape, may be said to be modelled in paint—reduce his canvases to the level of the sensational, and sensationalism is now as old-fashioned as Rosicrucianism or the Scriptural phase at one time all the mode.

If I except the decorations of Gaston La Touche, some good strong studies by Hochard, and perhaps the work of the Scandinavians Edelfelt and Hagborg, nothing has

left much of an impression on my memory save the solemn Breton subjects of M. Cottet and the grotesque of M. Veber. M. Cottet again paints his sad gray landscapes with the sad, black-robed peasants of the north posed, or posing, in statuesque immovability, oppressed as it were with the melancholy of their native land. His largest picture, "Deuil Marin," the three silent, brooding figures seated within sight of the sea, has a fine solemnity, a simple dignity, that make up in a great measure for the heaviness of his manner and the opaqueness of his color. It is not easy to take M. Veber's absurd little dwarfs frisking about a tavern, or holding out their tongues to the doctor, very seriously; their real place is rather in the comic papers. But M. Veber has at least the grace to amuse himself in his own fashion, and not according to exhibition formulas.

The sculpture is disappointing. M. Rodin does not send, while neither M. Bartholomé nor M. Meunier is seen at his best. A high standard is maintained in the prints and drawings. In his etchings certainly, Louis Legrand, though his subjects may be sensational, never sacrifices art to sensation and facility. And the men who have done so much to develop modern lithography and wood-engraving and etching and color printing—M. Lunois, M. Lepère, M. Renouard, M. Chahine, M. Florian—have not ceased to experiment, have not ceased to do distinguished work, There are some engravings by Florian after Renouard's sketches that are simply marvellous in their rendering of the very quality of the original. One American I noted among the etchers, Mr. MacLaughlin. Had I space, I should like to write at length of the drawings in different mediums by Milcendeau, Luigini—a newcomer—Jeanniot, Legrand again, and Bottini. I should like, too, to point out how deplorable is the tendency to the fantastic and the eccentric in the furniture and the decorative work.

But I must add a few words about the Old Salon. Here, too, most of the pictures or prints in which I find the smallest interest come from Americans and younger men. Even the old-fashioned *machines* appear to have lost something of their sensationalism, or, what is worse, their ability. Thus, M. Jean Paul Laurens has a huge triptych representing scenes from the life of Joan of Arc, and yet I know conscientious critics who never managed to see it, though because of its size alone one might think it could not be passed by. Then M. Henri Martin has another triptych still larger, in which he abandons myth and allegory for realism, and shows peasants at work in a valley overshadowed by high mountains; but his mowers are simply so many studies of the same model, while the restless technique, the crude mosaic of little dots of color, hurts and bewilders the eye. And yet these are the most notable among the huge canvases. The landscapes of M. Harpignies, M. Gosselin and his pupil, M. Jacques Marie, and M. Pointelin, are, as they have been for so long, among the rare exceptions to which one turns with pleasure, though it must be confessed that those painters produce the same effects, even the same designs, so constantly that it is difficult to say anything new about them. When, here and there, other pictures have arrested my attention, I have been almost certain to find them by Americans—Mr. Eaton, Mr. Bohm, Mr. R. E. Miller for instance; or a Spaniard, Sorolla y Bastida; or a Belgian, Verhaert; or a Dutch painter, Mlle. Schwartze. And so in the section of prints and drawings, the etchings of Mr. Pennell and the wood engravings of Mr. Wolf are the chief things to record. Nor is the sculpture much more stimulating. For Mr. MacMonnies I looked in vain. And though M. Frémiet's equestrian statue of Col. Howard, destined, I believe, for Baltimore, will interest Americans, it seems to me that in it the sculptor is merely repeating once more the motive of his delightful little Jeanne d'Arc, and losing in grace and spontaneity. With this new repetition, the decorative work, to which more and more space is devoted, runs to still greater lengths of fantastic eccentricity than in the New Salon. Of course in a detailed account of the Old Salon more might be found calling for notice or description, but in the general impression, which is all I pretend to give, I do not think I have exaggerated the weakness or prevailing dulness of this colossal exhibition.

N. N.

LAFAYETTE'S LETTERS.

PARIS, June 4, 1903.

The 'Inedited Correspondence of Lafayette: Letters in Prison—Letters in Exile (1793-1801)' cannot fail to attract attention. It has just been published in a fine octavo volume by M. Jules Thomas, a professor of philosophy, with a fine portrait of Lafayette as general. The correspondence is preceded by a "psychological study" by M. Thomas. I use his own expression, and I will say at once that this study adds nothing to the interest of the letters. It is a pity that M. Thomas is more of a philosopher than of a historian. His professional habits have led him to undertake a psychological analysis of the character of Lafayette, of the development of his ideas; he has looked into him as a watchmaker looks into a watch. This systematic study is all the more irritating because Lafayette was, above all, a man of action, a man of impulse. The tone of this extraordinary "psychological study" may be inferred from such lines as these:

"The life of Lafayette is a psychological case with very simple elements and of exceptionally long duration. The data, which have little variety, are from an early date actual and entire in the subject which is under study, and they are rich enough to furnish a development of seventy-seven years without renewal and without being otherwise altered than by the effect of their own evolution, which divides itself into two parts. First, there is an ascending period of seventeen years, from the first crisis of enthusiasm at the age of eighteen (August 8, 1775) to the crisis of moral depression of August 19, 1792; then, after a rather sudden ascent, a period of relative immobility of forty-two years. These two periods are clearly distinct."

I do not know how this sort of style and of systematic writing will affect the generality of readers; as for myself, I must confess that I was discouraged by it, and almost prevented from going any further. Fortunately, this pretentious manner of formulating the laws of the inner life of Lafayette detracts nothing from the interest of his letters.

The materials of Thomas's "study" have chiefly been found in the 'Memoirs, Correspondence, and Manuscripts' published by his family in six volumes (Paris: Fournier, 1837-1838), as well as in the 'Biographical Notice of General Lafayette' published by M. Charavaye. Some inedited documents were found in the papers of M. Romeuf, and have been lent by his family. M. Louis Romeuf was a devoted aide-de-camp of Lafayette, who charged him in 1798 to collect and publish the letters which he had written in prison and in exile. But Louis Romeuf was killed in 1812 at the battle of Borodino; and M. Thomas says that it is only now that Lafayette's desire is satisfied, after nearly a century. The inedited correspondence begins in March, 1793, with a letter addressed to Madame d'Hénin, an intimate friend of Lafayette. In all, ten letters are addressed to her; the others are addressed to Madame de Lafayette, to Archenholtz of Magdeburg, to Mr. Pinckney, to M. de Lally-Tollendal, to M. La Colombe, to Louis Romeuf, to Madame de Tessé, to Madame de Montaigu. A great many letters are in English.

Lafayette's early education was rather neglected. He never knew his father, who was killed at the battle of Minden (1759), when the boy was only two years old. He was thirteen years old when he lost his mother. At the age of fourteen he entered a company of the King's Musketeers; at sixteen he was lieutenant in the regiment of Noailles. He married at sixteen years and seven months; a month after, he was named captain of dragoons. It was at the table of Gen. de Broglie, at Metz, in 1775, upon hearing a conversation on the revolt of the American States, that he resolved to go to America. He left Europe on the 20th of April, 1777, being barely twenty years old. He returned to Europe for two years, and went to America a second time. This eventful period of his life is known in all its details, as well as the prominent part which he took, after the peace, in the events which were the first act of the French Revolution.

Washington, and those who surrounded him, Jefferson, Hamilton, Franklin, made on Lafayette's mind a lasting impression; Washington especially remained his god, and he dreamed of becoming in France a Washington under Louis XVI. From July, 1789, to July, 1790, Lafayette was perhaps the most popular man in France. He prepared a text for the Declaration of the Rights of Man; he presided for a moment over the Constituent Assembly; he gave the order for the demolition of the Bastille; he was appointed general of the National Guard, and gave an army to the Revolution. He was not long in seeing that he could not master the Revolutionary forces, and tried in vain to reconcile the parties and the factions, which became day after day more ardent and unruly. He was appointed commander of the army of the North, but was soon replaced by Dumouriez.

He felt that there was no longer any safety for him; and in fact on July 19, 1792, a decree of arrest was issued against him. He was at the time at Bouillon, near the frontier, which he crossed with twenty-three officers and thirty soldiers, and arrived at Rochefort, in the territory of Liège. He had no fixed plan; he himself said afterwards that his thoughts were

confused. At times he thought of going to Holland and of taking refuge with the American Consul at The Hague, or of going to England to wait there for events. He had before him the combined armies of Prussia and of Austria.

On the 19th of August, 1792, he was taken prisoner by the Austrians at Rochefort, and from that day to the 16th of September he was not allowed to write to his family or to his friends. He was sent with an escort, with the officers and soldiers who accompanied him and who had been disarmed, in the direction of Brussels. The little troop had reached Nivelle, which is not far from Brussels, when orders came to have it sent towards Germany on the Rhine border. That same day the officers and soldiers were released. Lafayette was kept a prisoner and a hostage, and three other members of the Constituent Assembly, Alexandre de Lameth, César de Latour-Maubourg, Bureaux de Puzy, were sent with him, also as hostages, to Wesel. They remained there till the 31st of December, 1792, and were afterwards transported in peasants' carts to Magdeburg, a Prussian fortress on the Elbe, where they arrived on the 4th of January, 1793; they were sent a year afterwards to Neisse, on the extreme frontier.

At Magdeburg, Lafayette was able to enter into correspondence with a friend of his, the Princess d'Hénin, who was living in London. She was the wife of the representative of the Alsatian house of Hénin. Copies of these letters were communicated to Washington, and were found by Jared Sparks among the papers which enabled him to prepare his 'Life of the President.' A translation of the first letter was published in his 'Life of Gouverneur Morris.' Now for the first time it appears in its authentic form. It bears date of March 15, 1793, and begins by telling the story of Lafayette's captivity. "All the precautions that have been taken to sever all communication between us and the rest of the world, to keep us in prison, to multiply our privations, would require a long description." He describes in minute details his prison, his daily life. He has no paper, no ink, no pen. "It is by a miracle that I possess this sheet of paper, and I write to you with my toothpick." He has but scanty news. "We have heard, however, the success of the French arms; the assassination of the King; his trial, in which every law of humanity, of justice, of the national compact, was contemned; the abominable murder of my virtuous friend, La Rochefoucauld." He has no news of his own family. On the part of the United States 10,000 florins have been deposited at Magdeburg. "This will keep me, when my own money is gone, from living merely on bread and water." In a postscript to this letter we read these significant lines: "I don't know what has become of my place in Cayenne; but I hope my wife has taken steps to insure that the colored people who cultivate it shall remain free."

The letter to Von Archenholtz of Hamburg (March 27, 1793) is remarkable as setting forth the conduct and policy of Lafayette during the Revolution; it is very creditable to his patriotism. It is in some parts quite eloquent. Archenholtz was the editor of a paper, much read in Germany at the time, the *Minerva*. It was by the efforts of Gouverneur Morris that Lafayette obtained, after some months of detention, permission to receive open letters and to answer them under the eyes of his keepers. The first of these letters was naturally addressed to Madame de Lafayette. In those addressed to his American friends, Lafayette several times compares the American and the French Revolutions. He attributes the success of the American Revolution to moral and political qualities very common in America and almost unknown in France. All the good he sees in the French Revolution is what was imported into France from America, the Declaration of Rights especially. He analyzes and criticises the Constitution of 1791; he reproaches the French Revolution for its tumultuous character.

In the published correspondence Madame de Lafayette appears a very sensible woman, very capable, conducting the affairs of the family. Her advice to her husband is always sound. On the whole, the correspondence is a valuable historical document. Lafayette shines in it as the advocate of constitutional government and of progress, and at the same time as the determined enemy of revolutionary methods and of social disorder.

Correspondence.

"PADDY PERSONS" AND "PADDY" WORDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Readers of Motley's 'United Netherlands' will remember (vol. i., ch. vii., p. 393, under date 1585) a quotation inserted in the text from a letter of Muster-master Thomas Digges to Walsingham of January 2, 1585 (=January 12, 1586, N. S.), in which the writer is cited as saying: "I doubt not the flower of the pressed English bands are gone, and the remnant supplied with such paddy persons as commonly, in voluntary procurements, men are glad to accept." Motley seems to have been tickled by the strange expression "paddy persons." He adopts the *ignotum pro magnifico* without inverted commas, in the next paragraph, in which we are told that "the condition of the paddy persons continued most destitute." They turn up again, as old acquaintances, in ch. viii., where "Alexander Farnese and his heroic little army" are in the same plight as "Lord Leicester and his unfortunate 'paddy persons.'" The queer adjective attracted the attention of dictionary-makers. It appears in Webster, 1864, with a quotation attributed to Digges, and one from Motley—in reality, both from Motley. It was thence compiled into Ogilvie's Imperial, 1882, and Cassell's Encyclopædic, 1886, transferred to the Century, 1890, and Funk & Wagnalls's Standard, 1895. If dictionary recognition could establish the genuineness of a word, "paddy" ought to be above suspicion. Nevertheless, our editorial staff, seeing that all this long chain of "authority" was second, third, fourth, and fifth hand, and hung upon the slender thread of Motley's quotation—manifestly itself, at least in spelling, only a nineteenth-century version of Digges's words—thought it needful to have the original letter in the State Paper Office, London, examined, with the result, authenticated by the Deputy Master of the Rolls, Sir H. C. Maxwell-Lyte, that "paddy" turns out to be merely Motley's misreading or miscopying; Digges's word being "baddy."

The passage, copied verbatim, is as follows—where observe that Motley has changed the sixteenth-century "doubt" into the nineteenth-century "doubt not":

"I doubt the flower of the pressed English bandes are gone, and the remnant supplyed with such baddy persons as commonly, in voluntary procurements, men are glad to accept."

Paddy (adj.) thus drops out of the English language, unless, as a friend suggests, it should be retained for the purpose of conveniently denominating bogus words, which, originating in some misreading, misspelling, misprint, or other mistake, are uncritically "compiled" into one dictionary, and then sequaciously taken over from dictionary to dictionary *ad infinitum*. Some hundred such *paddy* words are current in the dictionaries, and it is very difficult, indeed, for even the most careful editor to steer clear of them without verification at every step—a task uncongenial to the compiler.

As to Digges's word *baddy*, I have not met with it anywhere else. Is it a derivative of *bad*, like *goody* from *good*, or *whity* from *white*; or could it be itself an error for *badde*, the earlier spelling of *bad*? *Baudy* or *bawdy* (the first of two adjectives so spelled), in the sense 'dirty, filthy,' is in some English dialects pronounced with the same vowel as *bad*, and seems also possible. It may be added that there is said to have been a dialect word *paddy*,='worm-eaten,' used in the Isle of Thanet in the eighteenth century, and registered by Lewis, from whom it was annexed by Pegge, and thence entered in a modern Kentish and, most reprehensibly, in a Hampshire Glossary (!), as if it were a living word. Had Digges's word actually been "paddy," one might have conjectured "worm-eaten" as a picturesque description of Leicester's inefficient soldiers, like a regiment of worm-eaten harbor-posts; but "baddy" is Digges's word, and "baddy," in spite of Motley and the long queue of dictionaries, we have to face.

J. A. H. Murray.

Oxford.

FRANKLIN'S OXFORD DEGREE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following extract from the original records of the University of Oxford must interest your readers as being new to them:

"The cause of the Convocation held on Friday, April 30, 1762, was that the most distinguished man, Benjamin Franklin Esquire, Legate of the Province of Pennsylvania to the Court of the Most Serene King, Deputy Postmaster-General for North America and of the postal service for all New England, Fellow of the Royal Society, should (if it so please the worshipful assembly) be admitted to the degree of Doctor in Civil Law, and that William Franklin, learned in municipal law, should be admitted to the degree of Master of Arts; also, that letters from the Most Honorable Chancellor to the Senate should be read and other academical business be transacted.

"The cause of the Convocation having been announced and the name of each having been separately declared by the Lord Vice-Chancellor, it pleased the worshipful assembly that the aforesaid most distinguished man, Benjamin Franklin, Esq., should be admitted to the degree of Doctor in Civil Law, and that the most distinguished man, William Franklin, should be admitted to the degree of Master of Arts.

"The most eminent man, Benjamin Franklin, Esq., preceded by the beadle, having entered the hall of the Convocation and been taken by the right hand, was presented by Dominus William Seward, Fellow of the College of the Divine John the Baptist, after the delivery of an elegantly turned speech, to the Lord Vice-Chancellor and to the Heads of Colleges, that he might be admitted to the degree in Civil Law Honoris Causa. Whom, thus presented, the Lord Vice-Chancellor, by his own authority and that of the whole university, admitted to said degree Honoris Causa.

"The most distinguished of young men, William Franklin, Esq., having been presented in a similar manner by Thomas Nowell, M.A., Fellow of Oriel College and Public Orator, was admitted by the Lord Vice-Chancellor in a similar manner to the degree of Master in Arts."

The candidates generally were duly presented to the Vice-Chancellor and the Heads of the Colleges, with the customary honors, by Thomas Bever, M.C.L., "omnium animorum socius" or Fellow of All Souls, who seems to have been peculiarly fitted for this office, as he was often assigned to it. He was a gentleman of rare cultivation, taste, and learning; a lecturer on jurisprudence, Chancellor of Lincoln and Bangor, and devoted to music and the fine arts. Oddly enough, but doubtless not without a motive, the escort deputed to attend upon Franklin in his gown of pink and scarlet had far less claim to consideration. He was merely the Rev. William Seward, vicar of Charlbury, one of the Oxford livings, and, though a D.C.L. of 1753 and labelled "Dominus" in the archives, he appears to have been that and nothing more. The greatest honor of all in this connection was paid to William Franklin, who was attended by the Rev. Thomas Nowell, M.A., who happened to be of the same age as himself and was one of the chief dignitaries of the University. He was Secretary to the Chancellor, Treasurer and Dean of Oriel College, Principal of St. Mary's Hall, and for the last thirty years of his life Regius Professor of Modern History. He was also Public Orator from 1760 to 1776—an office of peculiar dignity and importance.

As all ceremonies of that nature are planned with a nice observance of precedent and an intention to "render to all their dues, . . . honour to whom honour," it is very plain that in this instance the Oxford dons did not propose to do any more honor to Franklin than they were obliged to, and that the extraordinary reversal of the natural and proper claims of father and son was not the result of accident, but was undoubtedly arranged beforehand with malice prepense—conduct all the more emphasized by the fact that William Franklin was really only his father's appendix, and was generally supposed to have been awarded his degree of M. A. merely from regard to him.

D.

June 9, 1903.

THE DEBASEMENT OF THE SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I presume my experience has not been very different from that of many of your readers, but the frequency and regularity with which such experiences occur set one to thinking the old familiar thoughts.

The election for judges here was coming off, and I was sitting in a popular drug-store in that part of the city of Chicago known as South Chicago, talking with the owner of the store, a real-estate man, a railroad agent, a bookkeeper, and a physician. The polling-place was three blocks away, and voting was then going on. All of us were duly registered and qualified voters. I urged the necessity of going to the polls and casting our votes for good men. Their reply was something like this:

"What is the use? We shall be swamped by a gang of Poles, Hungarians, and yawps that can't speak English, don't understand the system of government, and vote just as they are told to vote by their boss. If the election were to be determined by the intelligent portion of the community, we would be there with both feet, but we don't care to waste our time in bucking against a lot of cattle whose vote is just as good as ours."

While not defending this view of the case, it strikes me as casting a valuable sidelight on the sentiment of the average intelligent citizen regarding our present system of universal and unqualified suffrage. Unless I read the signs of the times amiss, the sentiment of the intelligent middle class in America is crystallizing into a feeling of positive hostility towards universal suffrage. In and about Chicago such sentiments are frequently voiced, not by doctrinaires and closet-philosophers, but by the common, ordinary, respectable "man on the street." Twenty years of close observation in Chicago have convinced me that some readjustment of the suffrage based on intelligence, and possibly what is known as "a stake in the country," would be welcomed by the average American citizen as a means of escape from some of our many flagrant political evils resulting from both ignorance and apatny.

So far as I can make out, there seems to be no antipathy here towards a man merely because he happened to be born outside of the United States. The Know-Nothing spirit is about dead, and, whether as the result of tolerance or indifference, religious views are not considered of much importance so long as a man is a "good fellow." But the social self, as psychologists call it, is strongly developed, and, if the hodcarriers, the coalheavers, and the lumbershovers are going to the ball, and will be able to manage things to suit themselves, their betters will simply decline to participate.

If the purpose of our Constitution makers was to enlist the coöperation of the better classes of the community, they would seem to have been a little weak in their psychology. Economists have at last learned that the base money drives out the good money from circulation; possibly some day, if God is good to us, our statesmen may learn the psychological necessity of retiring from circulation the voter of light weight and dubious intrinsic value.

E. L. C. Morse.

Chicago, June 15, 1903.

THE HARVARD CHEER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society there is a letter written by Samuel Sewall in 1672, the year following his graduation from Harvard College, in which he relates an anecdote, not explained by the learned editors, which may throw some light on the origin of the familiar college cheer. I quote the passage:

"Here was one, who be(i)ng call'd to give in a Testimony, answered nothing but Ra Ra Ra with great deliberation: which expressions though very pathetical, and figurative, yet to a Civil Judge provd insignificant. And indeed, it would have puzzled a very discreet and learned man to have apprehended the strength of the Axiom that was begirt and swadled with so many Vinculums." (Mass. Hist. Soc. Collections. 6th Series, vol. i., Boston, 1886.)

What did this unwilling witness mean, when, being cited to testify in court, he answered nothing but "Ra Ra Ra" to his examiners? A footnote contains this unsatisfying information: "Of the 'Axiom that was begirt and swadled with so many Vinculums,' the editors have only had notions so transient and illusory that they decline to express them in the vernacular." This caution, however admirable from the point of view of historical criticism, is inappropriate amid the enthusiasms of the commencement season. Let us employ our historical imagination and boldly reconstruct the past. We have here the oldest recorded instance of the college "yell." The witness was perhaps a Harvard graduate, or still more probably an undergraduate, who had been placed under arrest on some petty charge. Being unwilling to testify, he took refuge in repeating the (new?) college cheer, puzzling the judge and confusing the process, but no doubt delighting his college friends assembled in the court-room. There is every reason to believe that he escaped with a light sentence.

It is a striking evidence of the tenacity of custom that Harvard should still utter her cheer "with great deliberation," as compared with the headlong speed of Yale. The words have of course ceased to be "pathetical," and there are now many "civil judges" to whom they are no longer "insignificant"; but they are "figurative" still, and that they must always remain.

John Winthrop Platner.

Andover, Mass., June 20, 1903.

Notes.

The Century Company's fall list of announcements includes 'Thirty Years of Musical Life in London,' by Hermann Klein; 'Theodore Leschetizky,' by the Countess Potocka; a 'Life of John Wesley,' by Prof. C. T. Winchester; 'Little Stories,' by Weir Mitchell; and a large work on recent explorations in Northern Syria, by Howard Crosby Butler.

Prof. Paul S. Reinsch's 'Colonial Administration' will appear in the autumn with Macmillan's imprint, as will Sir Gilbert Parker's 'Quebec; the Place and the People.'

The Outlook Company will bring out 'The Forest,' by Stewart Edward White, an account of his exploration of the Giant Redwoods.

'Along Four-Footed Trails,' among Western animals, by Miss Ruth A. Cook, is in the press of James Pott & Co., with illustrations by Miss Mabel Williamson.

'Famous Assassinations,' from Philip of Macedon down, is soon to be published by A. C. McClurg & Co.

Mr. Frederic L. Paxson, who has had ac-

cess to the archives of the British Foreign Office, the Department of State, and of the Adams family, has prepared an important work on 'The Independence of the South American Republics: A Study in Recognition and Foreign Policy,' which Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia, will bring out. It will not diminish J. Q. Adams's share in originating the so-called Monroe Doctrine, which will be antedated.

The History of the Talmud from 200 B. C. to the present day will be issued next September by the New Talmud Publishing Co. of this city (1117 Simpson Street), under Dr. Rodkinson's editorship.

We have received the 'Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs' for 1902, edited by J. Castell Hopkins and published in Toronto (William Briggs). The Dominion has not lacked for this sort of manual, *e. g.*, Mr. Morgan's 'Annual Dominion Register,' to say nothing of the Statistical Year-Book issued by the Department of Agriculture and now in its eighteenth year; nor has it apparently lacked popular desire to review the State's immediate past, whereas on the bustling side of the border from which we write there is no demand for such retrospects. The divisions of the present 'Review' are Government and Politics, Relations with the Empire, Canada and the War, Relations with Foreign Countries, The Canadian Militia, Dominion and Provincial Finances, Transportation Interests, Agriculture, etc., etc., with a care for religious and moral interests, education, labor, literature, and journalism. Three pages are devoted to the copyright question in Canada. A Canadian obituary and index of names and affairs conclude the volume, which is liberally supplied with portraits of public characters—Sir Wilfrid Laurier for frontispiece, the late Principal Grant, Mr. Tarte, Dr. George R. Parkin (Supervisor of the Rhodes Scholarships), Ministers, and soldiers of the Boer war.

A pleasant light is cast upon the relations of Ruskin and Gladstone by a volume privately printed in England, containing several letters of Ruskin's to Miss Mary Gladstone (now Mrs. Drew) and Miss Helen Gladstone, together with an introduction by the Right Hon. G. Wyndham, M.P., and an appendix by Canon Scott Holland ('Letters to M. G. and H. G.') Copies are now obtainable of Mr. John Armstrong, No. 93 Fifth Avenue, at a price fixed for the benefit of an English charity. One can piece together, from this material, a delightful picture of the first meeting of the two great men at Hawarden. Every fresh turn in the conversation showed anew how utterly irreconcilable were their opinions and tendencies, yet the net result of the visit was Ruskin's recantation of his censure of Gladstone's political motives, and Gladstone's record in his diary that he found Ruskin "in some respects an unrivalled guest." The letters themselves are of unfailing interest to every lover of Ruskin. Their authorship is unmistakable. Thus: "The second volume [of 'Praeterita'] is giving me a lot of trouble, because I have to describe things in it that people never see nowadays—and it's like writing about the moon. Also, when I begin to crow a little, it doesn't read so pretty as the humble pie." The period covered by this correspondence is 1878-1887.

Mr. Goldwin Smith's 'Founder of Christianity' (Boston: American Unitarian Association) is marked by the attractive style in which its author cannot but express his thought, whatever subject he may have in hand; but the rhetorical device by which he fancies himself and his readers listening to the discourse of Jesus is so managed that only here and there it seems to be remembered, much oftener to be forgotten. The critical basis of Mr. Smith's portrayal is a good deal more positive than that of the New Testament critics of the 'Encyclopædia Biblica,' but his conception of Jesus is purely humanitarian. While he is under no compulsion to extort from him agreement with his own body of opinion, but frankly doubts or differs where he must, yet is there something of what Emerson called "the subjective twinkle" in his summary of Jesus's teachings, and one could gather from these pages what Mr. Smith admires and what he abhors, as confidently as what the Founder of Christianity thought and did and was.

In noticing the appearance of the last volume of Dr. Cheyne's 'Encyclopædia Biblica' there is need of few words besides those which may express satisfaction at the completion of a truly great work, and congratulations to the editors at the close of their labors. Whatever we may think of Jerahmeel or of Dr. Cheyne's method of textual emendation, he has unquestionably furnished in these four volumes not only a storehouse of fact and conjecture, but an enduring stimulus to further research. Especially has Dr. Cheyne forced on the English Biblical world a facing of the latest development of New Testament criticism on the Continent. *Videant consules* must now be the word for the English Church, so long comforted with a vague idea that criticism would stop at the Old Testament. Yet it is a pertinent query how such a cry can be raised when the dignitaries of that Church are themselves in the threatening camp. Nor will casting out Dr. Cheyne do much good, though hypotheses as to his exegesis of the thirty-nine articles may be much in place. As to details, Dr. Cheyne's own articles are as numerous, learned, suggestive and bewildering as ever. Other long articles of eminent importance are Simon Peter (68 cols.) and Resurrection and Ascension Narratives (47 cols.) by Schmiedel, Son of God and Son of Man (50 cols.) by N. Schmidt, Sacrifice (50 cols.) by G. F. Moore, Text and Versions (53 cols.) by F. C. Burkitt, and Trade and Commerce (52 cols.) by G. A. Smith. Of these, Text and Versions is disappointing in details, and Trade and Commerce is of remarkable freshness and originality. Finally, it may be noticed that Biblical Theology, which was formally excluded from the plan at the first, but to which some little attention was paid in Vol. III., in this volume is very fairly treated. Dr. Cheyne explains in his preface that the numerous recent studies in apocryphal and apocalyptic literature now render that possible.

The fourth volume (Chazars-Dreyfus Case) of Messrs. Funk & Wagnalls's 'Jewish Encyclopædia' continues the excellent impression made by the third. It contains several articles of much more than Jewish interest. The account, for example, of the mediæval Turkish people and kingdom of the Chazars, with their close relationships to Judaism—the last chance which Judaism has had of becoming a dominant faith—will be full of surprises to many who think they know European mediæval history. The full statement, too, of coats of arms assumed by Jews—on much better grounds it must be confessed, because granted by recognized heraldic authorities, than the vast majority of our own American armorial bearings—is unexpectedly picturesque and suggestive of the varied haps of fortune. History, here, is put into pictures with more truth than the pomp of heraldry often can boast. But the prime article of the volume is undoubtedly contained in the twenty-eight pages given to the Dreyfus case. It is significantly unsigned, and contains a patient and lucid statement of the whole matter from the beginning. Its value fairly justifies its length and rises to the essential importance of its subject.

Mr. C. H. W. Johns's little book, 'The Oldest Code of Laws in the World' (Edinburgh; T. & T. Clark; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), will be welcome to many as a very short presentation of the Hammurabi code, the importance of which Professor Delitzsch has brought home to every one. It contains nothing but a too literal translation, and an elaborate index which serves as a digest of the code. Some comment should certainly have been added.

A translation of Professor Delitzsch's two 'Babel und Bibel' lectures has also been made by Mr. Johns (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The translation seems fair, but the introduction, by the translator, is a singular mixture of crudity and regrettable tone.

Simply from the nature of the case, Dr. Messerschmidt's contribution on the Hittites to Mr. David Nutt's litle series, "The Ancient East," is very unsatisfactory. Everything said upon the Hittites—if we can even dare to use that name—must be said hesitantly if at all, and very little can be said even at that. Still, we have here a fair gathering up of some few approximately certain results, stated with a fitting dubiety.

The correspondents are already gathering to the Macedonian slaughter, and Mr. W. E. Curtis has got in well ahead with a reprint of his articles on the Balkan situation to the Chicago *Record-Herald* ('The Turk and his Lost Provinces'; New York: F. H. Revell Co.). The ground covered in them is Constantinople, Bosnia, Servia, Bulgaria, and Greece, and they are distinctly above the ordinary newspaper type, both in accuracy and in ability. Whether all the interesting, not to say piquant, information which was supplied by residents is just so or not, Mr. Curtis's pictures combine with their vividness a high degree of faithfulness. The Austrian administration of Bosnia, the political situation in Servia, and at least part of the inside of Miss Stone's case are well brought out.

The last publication of the Student Volunteer Movement for foreign missions is an elaborate atlas covering the Protestant field, with a volume of descriptive geography. The atlas, with its gazetteer bristling with contractions, is really admirable; it compresses in easily accessible form an enormous mass of facts. The volume of descriptive geography is much lighter reading and of somewhat more ordinary missionary type. It may be questioned whether it stands in any essential relationship to the atlas.

'The Stuarts,' by Mr. J. J. Foster (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a work in two volumes

that derives importance from the magnificent expanse of its page and the beauty of its illustrations. Such photogravures are seldom seen either in books of biography or in the more pretentious publications which are devised to ensnare the amateur of art. Not only are these illustrations of an unusually excellent quality, but they are furnished in profusion. Mr. Foster seems to have had access to all the collections in Great Britain, from those of the King to those of the scattered individuals in almost every county who have come into possession of Stuart relics by inheritance or the chances of the auction room. What the author has selected, the publishers have lavishly set forth, as honesty required, for the work is an expensive one. We shall not attempt to give even a summary list of the treasures which are here represented. Van Dyck, Lely, and Kneller are all given their place, the first being shown at his best through portraits of Charles I., Henrietta Maria, Strafford, and the children of Charles I.; Lely receiving fair treatment, and Kneller (doubtless through force of circumstances) receiving rather less than fair treatment. Old prints, medals, miniatures, and holographs are also depicted in large numbers. The work begins with Mary Stuart and ends with Cardinal York. Mr. Foster furnishes letterpress of the quality which one expects from an accomplished antiquary. It only remains for us to state that the foregoing notice is based upon the author's edition, which is limited to 150 copies.

Mr. Henry H. Sprague's 'Women under the Law of Massachusetts' first appeared in 1884, when we noticed it in these columns. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, now publish a second edition. It is a convenient handbook of some ninety pages, not a legal treatise, but "simply an attempt to state intelligibly the rights, privileges, and disabilities of women under the law of Massachusetts, especially so far as they are different from those enjoyed by or imposed upon men." It is a curious fact that the changes made in the law in twenty years, especially after what had been already done, should have been many and great. These changes have been mainly in the direction of making the modern system more symmetrical, and the result, according to Mr. Sprague, is that it is hard to say with which sex the advantage rests—*i. e.*, whether, so far as legal position goes, it is better to be born a man or a woman. Blackstone thought that the female sex was greatly favored by the common law. What would he have thought of our system?

The George T. Bisel Co., Philadelphia, publish a 'Treatise on the Law Relating to Private Corporations in Pennsylvania,' by Frank M. Eastman. The book necessarily has a mainly local interest, though wherever no decisions of the Pennsylvania courts have been made on "essential subjects," the author has "cited decisions of the courts of other States or best writers of authority thereupon." It is not a mere compilation of statutes and decisions relating to corporations, but an attempt to state what the law is for the Pennsylvania lawyer, who will find it of considerable value. The first half of the volume deals with general principles, the remainder with particular classes of corporations, of which the number, in Pennsylvania as elsewhere, is always on the increase. So far as we have been able to examine it, the work is well and carefully done.

We must leave to technical journals the appreciation of 'An Introduction to the Study of Textile Design,' by Aldred F. Barker, head of the department of textile industries, Bradford Municipal Technical College (E. P. Dutton & Co.). It is a text-book which seeks to cover the ground the student should master during the first two years of the Textile School. That ground includes a thorough understanding of hand- and power-looms, with a special knowledge of all textile structures, science of cloth construction, the designing of interlacings, and principles of drafting. The work is beautifully printed, and the illustrations and diagrams so adequate as to convey understanding even to the untechnical mind.

The far more bibliographical than historical 'Geschichte der Arabischen Litteratur' of Professor Brockelmann is largely responsible for M. Cl. Huart's 'Littérature Arabe' (Paris: Armand Colin). The German work has practically been shorn of its details and thrown into easy running French, with here and there an intercalated bit of independence. As a consequence, while M. Huart's accurate and full book will undoubtedly be useful, it makes a very small step towards being a history of the Arabic literature. We have a crowd of names of authors and their works classified in a mechanical fashion, affording little insight into the great movements of their times. Perhaps we are not yet at the point where it will be possible to grasp firmly and trace clearly the threads of development in the literatures of the Muslims. The problems are undoubtedly great and obscure. M. Huart's bibliography is singularly inadequate, but he has given an excellent index.

A trifle late for this year's planning and planting comes a useful and well-illustrated horticultural treatise, 'The Flower Garden: A Handbook of Practical Garden Lore,' by Ida D. Bennet (McClure, Phillips & Co.). The author is perfectly right in calling this volume practical. Even the pretty cloth cover of the binding (on which, by the way, the name is spelled Bennett) seems fitted for the greenhouse and for use in the open-air garden. The indexes and plans are remarkably practical, and the text is full of practical information without being dull. A few of the illustrations are among the most beautiful engravings of flowers which have yet come under our observation.

The journal *Garden and Forest* afforded to Professor Sargent a dignified and attractive medium for the publication of notes respecting the more interesting plants in the Arnold Arboretum. The large page of that journal was unexceptionable in its typography, and the engravings were well executed. Among the keen regrets that were felt when *Garden and Forest* was suspended, was that which came from the knowledge that the Arboretum notes were to cease. Now, however, in a more sumptuous style, with a fairer page, and with more elaborate engravings, the notes are resumed. 'Trees and Shrubs: Illustrations of new and little known ligneous plants, prepared chiefly from material at the Arnold Arboretum' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is to be published at irregular intervals. Each volume will comprise one hundred plates; the four separate parts of each volume, with explanatory text, will cover about two years in publication. Mr. Faxon gives to these plates the spirit and truth which have characterized all of his work, and therefore one must feel that the loss of *Garden and Forest* is in part made up by this new publication.

In *Flora and Sylva* we have a new claimant for the favor which always stands waiting in England for any worthy treatise on gardens and gardening. This is a London review, published monthly, in what has been called the quasi-quarto form—that is to say, it is hardly a quarto, and it is rather too large for octavo, but just large enough for effective plates. Although the first number has an article or two about American plants, the journal is obviously designed for the English public which always purchases Mr. Robinson's works. The price ($8 for this country) is certainly reasonable for the year's subscription.

Professors Dall' Osso and Pais, who have been engaged in the archæological investigations in San Marzano and Poggiomarino on the eastern slope of Mt. Vesuvius, report some exceptionally interesting finds. Among these are the remains of an extensive villa dating from the period of Augustus. This building was found several metres below the present surface, and had been completely covered by fields under cultivation. The excavated portions of the villa show an absolute absence of ashes or lava, and it is clear that they were not destroyed by the eruption. This is new evidence proving the correctness of the statement of Pliny, that during the eruption of 79 a strong south wind blew all the ashes to the north side of the volcano, and that the eastern slope was left perfectly intact. But the special significance of the new find consists in this, that the foundation walls of the villa are separated by a stratum of 1½ metres from a stratum of ashes, beneath which prehistoric tombs were discovered. The ash stratum, then, was the result of an eruption that antedated by hundreds of years the famous destruction in the first century; in the valley of the Sarna are the remains of several villages destroyed by Vesuvius in prehistoric times. Professor Dall' Osso has undertaken extensive diggings to uncover these.

The Turkish diplomat, Feridun Bey, has bequeathed to the Hungarian Academy of Sciences the sum of half a million francs. A communication from Vámbéry in the *Pesther Lloyd* states that this sum is to be used chiefly for Turkish and Mohammedan students pursuing their studies in Hungary, in the technical branches, in agriculture, in music, and in painting. A further stipend of 3,200 francs is to be given for special studies on the linguistic and ethnological connection between the Turks and the Hungarians.

—The increasing interest in the Loyalists of the Revolution is noticeable in recent historical investigation. 'The Confiscation of John Chandler's Estate,' by Andrew McFarland Davis (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is a case in point. The book is an elaboration of a paper read by Mr. Davis before the American Antiquarian Society in October, 1900. Rather more than half of it consists of the documents bearing on the subject. There are four distinct collections of these, and they have been grouped in four appendices. The first is made up of certified

copies of the papers on file in the Probate Court of Worcester County; the second is a transcript of the records of the trial, under the Confiscation Act of 1780, in the Court of Common Pleas; the third embraces copies of papers in the Massachusetts archives; the fourth contains the transcripts of papers in the English Public Record Office, bearing on Chandler's case, made by B. F. Stevens and presented, in 1901, to the American Antiquarian Society. The first and the last group constitute by far the largest and most important of the documents. The author begins with an excellent account of the Chandler family and then gives a careful and exhaustive analysis of the documents. Whatever the necessity for assailing the Loyalists as a class, the history of the Chandler family illustrates one of the essential resulting evils of it, namely, that it was too often an attack upon what was best and soundest and most worth preserving in the colonial world —what might have been of inestimable value to the new republic could it have been preserved. Here was a Worcester family representing the best the province could boast in wealth, ability, character, and general culture, which was broken up and dispersed, and its power as a political, intellectual, and social force largely if not quite destroyed. This, certainly, whatever the necessity, was deplorable. There is an excellent portrait of Chandler, the original of which is the property of the American Antiquarian Society. The date usually assigned to this portrait, 1764, Mr. Davis gives reasons for supposing to be incorrect (p. 21). He has performed excellently a service for which all students of Revolutionary history must be grateful.

—The 'Letters and Diary of John Rowe, Boston Merchant,' edited by Anne Rowe Cunningham, with extracts from a paper written for the Massachusetts Historical Society by Edward Lillie Pierce (Boston: W. B. Clarke Co.), appears in a form both serviceable and attractive. The work of the editor has apparently been confined to furnishing an exact copy of the manuscript, together with nine very excellent illustrations, six of which are reproductions of portraits of John Rowe and members or intimates of his family. The introduction, of sixty pages, consists of extracts of Mr. Pierce's paper, and is a painstaking, serviceable, and interesting summary of what the Diary may be made to yield. From it one learns, almost as truly as from the Diary itself, and with much less effort, what the Boston of the latter eighteenth century was like, viewed through the very practical eyes of a prosperous merchant. Rowe was, however, more than merely that; he was active in local politics, and aspired to the Assembly, being, however, defeated several times. In the conflict with England he was a moderate, opposing the action of the mother country, yet never favoring resort to hostilities. In spite of this fact, he avoided the odium of loyalism, and, before the peace was signed, was returned to the General Court. Rowe was, too, a leader in social activities, keeping open house, and himself the welcome guest of most of the notable families in the province, sustaining to the end cordial relations with Adams and Otis. So great was the variety of Rowe's interests and activities, indeed, that one gets glimpses of all phases of contemporary life. Dancing assemblies, political clubs, coffee-house meetings, Harvard festivities, commercial panics, fires, duelling, the policing of Boston, and many other matters are touched upon more or less frequently, but always briefly, sanely, in matter-of-fact fashion. There is here no speculation, no philosophy, no intellectual insight, no style even, but just brief jottings by a busy man. For variety of fact rather than for ideas will this book prove useful to the student of history; it is, nevertheless, a welcome addition to our knowledge of the Revolutionary era. The letters cover the period 1759-1762, the diary 1764-1779. A good index has been prepared.

—The American Book Company has recently published, under the editorship of Mr. O. G. Bunnell, M.S., of the Flexner School, Louisville, Ky., an edition of the anti-clerical play "Electra," by Pérez Galdós. The edition is thoroughly vicious, and cannot be too strongly condemned. The cutting has been so skilfully done that the main thesis, and everything leading to it, is omitted. The point Galdós makes is, that religious fanaticism, as fostered by the religious orders even in their lay members, will lead a man to any extreme for the sake of gaining his end. In the play in question, Pantoja, a devotee, very much attached to a given religious order, had been in his earlier days anything but exemplary in his living. His relations with Eleuteria, mother of Electra, had been of such a nature as to give him ground for suspecting Electra to be his own daughter. He becomes possessed of the idea that, if he can persuade Electra to sacrifice her pure young life and enter a convent, he may thereby atone for his own immorality and gain salvation. Consequently he bends all his energies to the accomplishment of that purpose. But Electra falls in love with Máximo, and Pantoja's arguments fail to convince her that she should enter the convent. Pantoja then tells her that she cannot marry Máximo because they are both children of the same mother. The statement is false. It unbalances the mind of the girl whom he considers to be his daughter, and blackens still more the reputation of the woman he pretends to love; but it accomplishes his purpose, for the crazed Electra at last consents to take the veil. Now the dialogue with Doña Evarista, in which Panaoja confesses his past misdeeds and his suspicions that Electra is his own daughter, is so edited by Mr. Bunnell as to eliminate the confession. The same may be said of the dialogue with Electra, when he tells her his abominable lie. But in the ninth scene of the fifth act the shade of Electra's mother appears to her and says: "I am your mother, and I have come to calm the anxieties of your loving heart. My voice will give you back your peace of conscience. *No tie of blood unites you to the man who chose you to be his wife. What you heard was a fiction dictated by love for the purpose of bringing you into our company and into the calm of this holy house.*" Mr. Bunnell has forgotten to erase the sentences italicised. We must add that resort to the original will show that his cuts were not made in the way of ordinary expurgation; the omitted passages contain nothing that could not with perfect propriety be read in any mixed class of students old enough to read the play intelligently.

—How far back in historic times can it be proved that lions existed in Greece? inquires Dr. A. B. Meyer, Director of the Zoölogical Museum at Dresden. Lions were known in neighboring countries. They occurred in Palestine in the time of the Crusades, and in Syria they have been known from the oldest times to the present. In 1400 B. C., Amenophis III. of Egypt conducted great lion hunts in northern Syria, although in Egypt the lion was rare. Ancient writers also speak of lion hunts in Arabia. The beast is common in Mesopotamia to-day, and is found in the Zagros Mountains in Persia, and in northwest India. Over the greater part of Europe are found remains of the fossil lion. This is the diluvial lion (*Felis spelæa*), identical, according to most authorities, with the modern lion. So the lion may once have lived in Greece, and it is asserted that fossil bones have been found there, although no recent lion bones have been found; he may have gradually retreated to the East before the advance of civilization. To say, however, that the representation of the lion on a dagger blade from Mycenæ, or on the gate of Mycenæ, was taken from a real native lion, would be to assert too strongly. Like modern artists, the ancients may have had the lion of captivity before them. Homer describes the lion true to life in the Iliad (xi., 544 ff.); but this description may have been written in Asia Minor. Herodotus (484-430 B. C.) declares that many lions were found between the River Achelous in Acarnania and the Nestus, which flows through Abdera, and he says this concerning Xerxes's march through Macedonia (480 B. C.), when the lions killed some pack camels. Aristotle (384-322 B. C.) assigns the same district to the lion, but seems to have taken the description from Herodotus. However, Aristotle was a native of Stagira, and had lived in Macedonia, and so may have had opportunity to verify his assertion. Xenophon, also (428-355 B. C.), is quoted for the existence of the lion in historic times in south Thrace. This is as far back as historic testimony goes, and does not cover the Peloponnesus. The progress of diggings may strengthen the argument from analogy, and may help settle the question whether in Greece, as elsewhere in Europe, the cave lion has existed at the same time with the cave man. The general subject is discussed in an interesting way by Sir G. C. Lewis in *Notes and Queries* (2d series, v. 8-9, 1859-60).

—The ninth consecutive play in the Shaksperean series of "Senior Dramatics" at Smith College last week was "Love's Labor's Lost." The experiment was interesting, not only because this piece is rather well fitted for performance by women alone, but also because it is so seldom staged as to make precedent and tradition scanty. However arrived at, the conception as here embodied was laudable, while the spectacular effects were, as usual, in the main refined and beautiful. On the other hand, the diction, falling much below Shakespere's best level, and abounding in quip, pun, and repartee, was peculiarly exacting, and called for a very delicately shaded delivery and, above all, for the utmost distinctness. This last can hardly be said to have been met, whether from defects of voice or of training. But it was once more observable how adequately the

humorous rôles are capable of being interpreted by the Smith College graduates. Some of those in "Love's Labor's Lost" were memorably presented, insuring a genuine amusement and applause. In fine, the impression produced was more mixed than has been customary. Perhaps the quality of the play itself had something to do with this; and if so, it is once more worth while asking if the limit of practicable choice in Shakspere has not been reached or overpassed. We are convinced at least of the expediency of such an assumption, and that it is time to begin to repeat what has been successfully grappled with heretofore.

LEONARDO AND THE STAIRCASE AT BLOIS.

Spirals in Nature and Art. By Theodore Andrea Cook, M.A., F.S.A. E. P. Dutton & Co., 1903.

There is a good deal of information about "spirals in nature and art" in Mr. Cook's volume, and many interesting illustrations and much ingenious theorizing, the greater part of all this bearing but indirectly upon the main object of the book as divulged in the long sub-title. That sub-title is: "A study of spiral formations based on the manuscripts of Leonardo da Vinci, with special reference to the architecture of the open staircase at Blois, in Touraine, now for the first time shown to be from his designs." His generalizations we may therefore neglect as beyond the competence of the student of art, and as immaterial to his purpose of proving the authorship of the celebrated staircase, and we may devote ourselves to the consideration of the arguments advanced by him in support of his ascription of it to Leonardo. It is extremely difficult to explain these arguments without recourse to diagrams or illustrations, but we shall do our best to state them fairly and then to examine their cogency.

First, as to possibility, three things seem to be certain. Although no architectural work of his is known to exist, it is known that Leonardo had occupied himself with architecture and considered himself, and was considered by others, a competent architect, his official title in France being "First Painter, Engineer, and Architect to the King." He was at Amboise, not far away, at about the time when this staircase may have been planned, and when the wing of the château containing it was building; and we have no knowledge of any other work on which he was occupied save a few sketches of projects never carried out.

As to probability, the argument is more subtle and may be arranged something like this: The staircase at Blois is a beautiful work of art, and Leonardo is the greatest artist of whom we can certainly say that he may have been connected with it; it is a spiral, and Leonardo is known to have devoted much study to spirals of all sorts; it is a *reversed* spiral, like a left-handed screw, and Leonardo was a left-handed man who habitually drew spirals and screws in that manner; finally, it shows such close resemblances, in both internal and external structure, to a particular shell (*Voluta vespertilio*), common in Italy, as to convince Mr. Cook that its design was founded upon that shell; and Leonardo was a naturalist and an Italian. Just here there is a slight confusion in Mr. Cook's argument, which is not, however, of much importance. *Voluta vespertilio* is generally dextral, but occasionally sinistral. On page 89 the author argues that "an Italian collector would be more likely to have the sinistral form of a common shell than its ordinary growth," while on page 177 he says "it is more probable that he [Leonardo] did not have before his eyes" the rarer form, and that his reversal of the curves before him is "a triumphant vindication of his skill."

Conceding that, if the architect of the staircase at Blois worked from a shell at all, it is unimportant whether he copied a sinistral shell or reversed a dextral one, let us examine the reasons for belief in the probability that that architect was Leonardo da Vinci. Mr. Cook is so fair in his statement of the case that almost all the facts we shall need to consider are to be found in his volume. There have been many great artists, known and unknown, besides Leonardo, and there were many spiral staircases built before that at Blois, so that the first two points need not detain us. The third is worthy of more attention. The sinistral spiral has never been as rare in art as Mr. Cook seems to imagine, though, no doubt, it has been less common than the dextral. In discussing spiral columns, he does not mention that, in the Duomo at Florence and in Or San Michele, as in many other buildings, the two forms occur with almost precisely equal frequency, being used in pairs, the left-handed spiral balancing the right-handed one; but in the more immediately important matter of sinistral stairways he gives instances enough of such construction to minimize the force of any argument from its occurrence in a given case. For instance, on page 139, he states that, in the old part of Blarney Castle, "every staircase without exception is sinistral in form," and that "there is a spiral staircase in the stronghold of the Black Douglas, Tantallon Castle, near North Berwick, and this also is sinistral," while on page 144 he figures, after Viollet-le-Duc, another left-handed staircase from "the now vanished Collège de Montaigu in Paris." He even gives a "military reason" for this construction, saying that "Cormack M'Carthy, the Strong, fully appreciated the advantages involved in having his own right hand free to attack an ascending foe, who would only be able to use his left hand in defence." In discussing the Blois staircase, this reason becomes somewhat transformed, as we are told that "this arrangement produces an effect of hospitality in the curve, for a host could walk down it with welcoming right hand outstretched to the ascending guest, who was in his turn helped in his ascent by keeping his own right hand on the side rail." These and other reasons for the superiority of the sinistral staircase are indeed so good that it seems strange that it was not oftener constructed, and altogether unnecessary to invoke a left-handed architect to account for one example of it.

Mr. Cook's especial point, however, is the resemblance of the staircase at Blois to *Voluta vespertilio*. He has already shown that the general resemblance of a spiral staircase to a shell, sufficiently obvious at any rate, has long been recognized, and that a staircase at Fiesole is called the "Scala della Conchiglia," and another, in Venice, the "Scala del Bovolo." Also, that a staircase in the old part of the Château of Blois, built "many years before Leonardo was in France," is at least as like *Telescopium telescopium* as the later one is like *Voluta vespertilio*. Yet he does not "for a moment suggest that there was any conscious comparison in the mind of the fifteenth-century architect," because the characteristics of this staircase are "susceptible of a simple architectural explanation." The resemblances which Mr. Cook points out between *Voluta* and the Blois staircase are mainly two. *Voluta* has four spiral plaits upon the columella, or central column of the shell, and there are four well-marked spiral lines upon the newell of the staircase; *Voluta* has marked perpendicular ridges on its exterior, which give it a buttressed effect somewhat suggestive of the exterior construction of the staircase. Of the four spirals on the newell, three are structural, and two already existed in the old staircase at Blois just referred to. These two are the cornice and the hand-rail, and are accounted for by "a simple architectural explanation"; to them the builder of the newer staircase added a base-moulding and a moulding a little above the hand-rail. The base-moulding surely needs no explanation; is a conscious imitation of a shell necessary to explain the other? When we note that the mouldings of the staircase are unequally spaced, while the plaits of the shell are spaced equally, and that the added moulding above the hand-rail is interrupted by perpendicular colonnettes, while the plaits of the shell are all continuous, Mr. Cook's explanation becomes both unnecessary and inadequate, and we are forced to the conclusion that the internal structure of the staircase at Blois is a beautiful but perfectly natural evolution from that of older examples. Its external structure is so natural to an architect brought up in Gothic principles of building that any resemblance to a shell must seem accidental and fanciful. Mr. Cook says (p. 166) "that any ordinary architect would have made the lines of his external balustrades correspond with the main external lines of the floors"; but his figures 23 and 25 show that there were plenty of precedents for the contrary course. Indeed, the precedents are so many that it may almost be said that the architects of spiral stairways *habitually* followed the curve of the stairs with their external balustrades when there were any such balustrades. All the resemblances between the staircase at Blois and the shell *Voluta vespertilio* seem to be exactly what Mr. Cook asks if they can be—"one more example . . . of the fortuitous correspondence between perfect workmanship and the lines of Nature."

While the positive reasons for believing that Leonardo da Vinci may have designed the staircase at Blois seem thus to reduce themselves to next to nothing, there is a reason for believing him not to have been the designer which Mr. Cook does not seem to have perceived. Leonardo was an Italian of the high Renaissance, a possible collaborator of Bramante (see p. 151), and a deeply learned man. Is it possible that such a man should have designed in the semi-Gothic style of French architecture of the time of Francis I.? To us it seems at least highly improbable. Mr. Cook

gives us none of those architectural sketches by Leonardo "collected by Baron Henry de Geymüller." Are any of them of other than classic forms?

MORE BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

[*The Oxford History of Music.*] Vol. III., *The Music of the Seventeenth Century.* By C. Hubert H. Parry. Vol. IV., *The Age of Bach and Handel.* By J. A. Fuller Maitland. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

Haydn. By J. Cuthbert Hadden. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Musical Education. By Albert Lavignac. D. Appleton & Co.

The Story of Oratorio. By Annie W. Patterson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Two more volumes have been added to the six which will constitute the Oxford History of Music. Volume III., by Sir Hubert Parry, follows the early monodic movement from its origin in Josquin to its culmination in Purcell, while Volume IV., by Mr. Fuller Maitland, is concerned chiefly with Bach and Handel. Sir Hubert begins his task with the declaration that "the seventeenth century is, musically, almost a blank, even to those who take more than the average interest in the art," and that to the casual observer most of its products seem little better than archæological curiosities. All the more credit belongs to the author for having succeeded in making even this barren period interesting to the seeker for information. The book is divided into ten chapters headed Antecedents, Initiatives, Links between the Old Art and the New, Diffusion of New Principles, Signs of Change in England, The Influence of French Taste, English Music after the Commonwealth, Foundations of Modern Instrumental Music, Tendencies of Italian Art, The Beginning of German Music.

Before the seventeenth century "music was almost as much restricted to the functions of religion as painting and sculpture were to subjects connected with religious history or the hagiology of the church." The new century's task was to throw off these ecclesiastic limitations in matters musical and to develop the worldly side of the art, which had indeed existed in a crude form among the people, but had had little artistic recognition. The rhythmic quality, in particular, had been neglected, nay, deliberately suppressed, owing to its association with physical activity in general and dancing in particular. Besides furthering the development of rhythm, the seventeenth century had to cultivate a taste for harmony (chords) as such, and to help to create an idiomatic language for various instruments, which up to that time had stupidly followed the style of polyphonic vocal music. In the discussion of these several points our author proves himself once more a man of letters as well as a scholar, and his readers will also be grateful for the very numerous illustrations in musical type. Much space is deservedly given to Monteverde, the Italian Wagner. England, too, plays a prominent rôle at this time, but, after dealing with a series of composers, greatest among whom was Purcell, Sir Hubert has to acknowledge the tragic fact that the essentially English attitude towards art which Purcell represented in his highest achievements for church, concert-room, or theatre, led to no ulterior development. Our author's remarks on Puritanism are interesting. Some historians have maintained that the Puritans practically killed English music, while others strenuously have denied this. Sir Hubert makes a distinction of importance. While admitting that, in consequence of Puritanism, the occupation of composers of church music was gone, he notes that the Puritan policy acted as the greatest incentive to the cultivation of familiar and domestic forms of art of a genuinely secular kind; so that in truth, as he might have added, the influence of Puritanism accidentally coincided with the general tendency of the seventeenth century—the secularization of music.

Mr. Maitland's volume on the age of Bach and Handel covers familiar ground which has been explored so thoroughly by other historians, particularly Germans, that little was left for him to say. Though those two giants are in the foreground, biographic details are eschewed, in accordance with the general plan of this series of volumes. Special chapters are devoted to different kinds of music: the choral, the cantata, the passion, Latin church music, the oratorio. Then there is a very good chapter on the development of the orchestra, followed by others on the growth of form, the rise of virtuosity, the state of music in Germany, Italy, France, and England. In the period under consideration great changes took place in all departments of music; the most important of them being that the composers learned to conceive their ideas on a harmonic basis, and gradually gave up the contrapuntal interweaving of parts. Forms were made more organic, and the powers of emotional expression were developed. The new spirit is best exemplified in Bach. Mr. Maitland's comparison of Bach and Handel will probably incense many of his countrymen, but it is strictly true:

> "The genius of the two men worked in exactly opposite directions; and if in studying Handel we seem to have our eyes turned always towards the past, in Bach we are continually brought face to face with idioms and turns of expression which are so much of the essence of modern music that the student is tempted to imagine that the art has made no progress since Bach, . . . whose compositions are sometimes felt to be less definitely belonging to a bygone day than many things by Mozart or Haydn."

Considering the importance of Haydn in the history of music, the literature relating to him is small. Mr. Hadden's new volume has only 231 pages, yet he justly claims that it is the fullest life of Haydn that has hitherto appeared in English. It is necessarily based largely on the monograph commenced by Pohl and completed by Mandyczewski. The chief reason of the scant literature relating to Haydn is, of course, that, with the exception of Bach, he had a more uneventful career than any other composer of the first rank. Another reason is the fact that Haydn was not highly educated, and took little interest in anything besides music; nor was he a good letter-writer. Yet he was an interesting character, and the chapter on Haydn the Man is particularly readable. His gratitude was quite exceptional, as is instanced by this sentence from his last will: "To Fräulein Anna Buchholz, 100 florins, inasmuch as in my youth her grandfather lent me 150 florins when I greatly needed them, which, however, I repaid fifty years ago." He had a hard time as a young man, some of his duties being the blacking of his teacher's boots, trimming his wig, brushing his coat, and running his errands, as well as playing his accompaniments. But he always preserved his humor, in his music as well as in his actions, even when, as in the case of his "Farewell" and "Surprise" symphonies (pp. 73, 89), his jokes were misinterpreted. A chapter on Haydn the Composer completes Mr. Hadden's book; the appendix includes, among other things, a selection of Haydn's letters.

"How English!" every reader of Dr. Annie W. Patterson's book on the Oratorio must exclaim. The oratorio is peculiarly an English diversion, and it is from the English point of view that it is here considered. It is English to say that, "of all musical forms, Oratorio is unquestionably the noblest and most ennobling." So far as the text is concerned, this will be admitted by all religious persons; but, after all, the oratorio has a musical point of view too, and from that it is an antiquated absurdity. We still admire certain works of Bach, Handel, Haydn, not because they are oratorios, but in spite of it. Modern æsthetic doubts concerning the Oratorio Dr. Patterson apparently has not encountered; at any rate, she has nothing to say of what are by far the most interesting aspects of the modern Oratorio—the reforms and changes attempted by Liszt and Rubinstein. She dwells preferably among the older masters, up to Mendelssohn and Schumann; Gounod, too, is not ignored, and of course the English writers in this field are duly considered, as well as the characteristic English festivals.

"Shall I give my child a musical education? When shall I begin? How many hours a day? What instrument?" These questions present themselves to thousands of parents every day. M. Lavignac answers them, together with a hundred others, in his new work on musical education, Englished by Esther Singleton. It is a remarkably comprehensive treatise, the result of the ripe experience of a professor at the Paris Conservatoire. The first of the six parts treats of the indications of musical talent, and the proper way of teaching music to young children; in the second, the author considers the study of the piano and organ, the various orchestral instruments, and the guitar and mandolin; the third is devoted to singing, the fourth to the various studies necessary for composers; the means of rectifying a faulty education are discussed in the fifth, while the last compares the advantages and disadvantages of private instruction with those of conservatories. The final section also includes a list and brief characterization of the leading conservatories of Europe and America.

There are a few points on which we may differ with the author, as when he says that in all the classic music before Beethoven the pedal should not be used; or when he would exclude romantic music from a young player's repertory until he is fifteen or sixteen years old. But, in the main, Professor Lavignac's points of view and directions are worthy of all confidence. His discussion of the important question of memorizing music (pp. 93-100) is by far the

best we have ever seen. Most players will be surprised to find that, for musical purposes, he considers the memory of the eyes far more important than that of the ears or of the fingers. Concerning the results of his method, he says: "I have very often seen modest amateurs without the slightest effort register and retain in their memories and fingers repertories of from 150 to 200 pieces. . . . I have seen people play, without the slightest hesitation, . . . concertos which they had learned ten or twenty years previously, had never since seen, and believed they had forgotten."

In the vocal chapters it is refreshing to find that Professor Lavignac does not follow the silly fashion of newspaper scribblers of making German singers responsible for everything that is bad, and crediting Italian singers with all that is good. He is severest on the French singers, because of their addiction to the tremolo and their indisposition to be musicians as well as singers; which the Germans do not share. He makes clear (p. 204) the much higher aim of modern dramatic song than that of the old Italian *bel canto;* the modern art demanding less virtuosity but more emotional expression. "We strive to charm and to interest more than to astonish. With them it was the contrary." "In this new study of a higher order, the superiority of the Italian school totally disappears." In a word, there is much food for thought in this book, which, moreover, is thoroughly entertaining, the author having seasoned his pages with a considerable number of amusing anecdotes.

London in the Eighteenth Century. By Sir Walter Besant. London: A. & C. Black; New York: The Macmillan Co.

It did not need the Autobiography of Sir Walter Besant to make it known that he was an enthusiastic and discerning student of London. Not only did he reveal his devotion towards the end of his life by such monographs as that on Westminster, but his novels all the way along gave many glimpses of it. More than a quarter of a century ago 'The Chaplain of the Fleet,' written in collaboration with James Rice, dealt with the social life of London during the very period covered by this book. The studies Mr. Besant had pursued up to that time were supplemented by persistent inquiries and observations continued until his death. The volume now issued does not pretend to give a complete record of events, and is not chronologically arranged. It should be regarded, as Lady Besant says in her introductory note, "as a social picture of London in the eighteenth century rather than as a detailed history." The eighteenth century is here considered as lasting to the Victorian era, for the great break in national customs and ideas did not come until after the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832, and the introduction of steamers and railways. The first seventy pages out of a total of 667 are occupied by a section entitled "Historical Notes." Here we have an account of twenty episodes of the century relating particularly to London, and ranging from the South Sea Bubble to the earthquakes of 1750. The remaining sections, each of which is divided into several chapters, deal with "The City and the Streets," "Church and Chapel," "Government and Trade of the City," "Manners and Customs," "Society and Amusements," and "Crime, Police, Justice, Debtors' Prisons." There are six appendices, more or less statistical, a Chronicle of the Eighteenth Century, and an excellent index. The book is plentifully illustrated, Hogarth being particularly drawn upon.

There are no footnotes, but many authorities are mentioned in the text and in a paragraph of the preface. Sir Walter Besant acknowledges his special obligations, however, to "the forgotten, the thrice and four-times tedious novel of the eighteenth century," which is not known to lecturers on the period nor to professors of literature. Fielding and Smollett give little help in details, but the dead novels and lost satires of the "twopenny box" are rich in information. An illustration will exhibit the use made of some of this out-of-the-way material. Sir Walter is showing that the usual view of the indifference of the eighteenth century to religion is exaggerated. He finds a series of papers called the *Athenian Oracle* and the *British Oracle.* These publications, read largely in middle-class households, consist of questions supposed to be put by the reader and answers given by the *Oracle.* Questions concerning biblical and theological topics are found by the side of inquiries about the origin of the Horn Fair and the cause of thunder. A curious difficulty is noted in the use of maps and drawings. Most of those published during the century presented only the modern improvements, neglecting, what would now be prized so highly, the picturesque streets still remaining of the older London; thus, Strype and Maitland give the new squares but not the ancient courts. In a few cases Sir Walter has profited by intercourse with living authorities on earlier customs—for instance, a man who travelled from Liverpool to London by stage-coach in 1830, taking thirty-six hours for the journey, and an aged Jew who had taken part in the combats for which Mendoza, the prize-fighter, trained his friends.

The result of the author's diligence is a book which is not only full of interest to the general reader, but is of real value to the historical student. There is much more here than the mere collection and arrangement of facts gathered from all quarters. In his lifetime Sir Walter was not thought of as, properly speaking, an historian, but this book shows that he would have had good claim to that title. More than once he gives reason for a revision of the commonly accepted opinion. For example, he denies that the night-watch was composed of old and incompetent persons. They were stout and sturdy fellows; their fault was not their age, but their eagerness to take bribes. One's belief in tradition suffers an even greater shock when Sir Walter declares that the existence of the Mohocks cannot be proved. The story of their atrocities was mainly due to imagination and terror; "no one, in spite of large rewards offered, was ever produced who could show a nose flattened or slit, or the bare place where the ears once had been." Reference has already been made to the author's protest against the idea of a general decay of religion in the eighteenth century. He reminds us that our knowledge of the time is usually derived from accounts of the life of the fashionable and criminal classes; the quiet, uneventful ways of the middle class being ignored by the playwright and the satirist. This omission is repaired by Sir Walter Besant, who quotes many evidences of a vigorous religious interest on the part of the average London citizen, whatever may have been true of the rest of the population.

The admirers of Sir Walter's fiction will be glad to find in this volume many illustrations of that kindly common-sense moralizing which was one of his characteristics. Now and then he drops for a moment into a pleasant confidential chat with the reader, indicating without any offensive egotism his individual opinion on some question of the day. Thus, we have here *obiter dicta* on the credulity of our own time, on the causes of cheerfulness, on the reasons why impudence is always admired, and on the connection between gambling and leisure. Some of these miscellaneous reflections are naturally open to criticism, but the execution of the book as a whole has remarkably little to which objection can be made. Sir Walter's account of the Dissent of the period is rather scrappy, and its patronizing air is not pleasing. It is not the fact that, owing to their exclusion from the universities, the dissenting ministers of the eighteenth century had, with few exceptions, ceased to be learned (p. 169). The mention on the very next page of the fact that Bishop Butler and Archbishop Secker were educated at Dissenting academies is sufficient evidence to the contrary. It was almost inevitable that in so large a volume there should be occasional repetitions, as for instance on pages 170 and 177.

Hitherto we have been considering this book mainly as an historical treatise. Perhaps its most useful function, however, will be as a kind of social tonic. A copy of it should be placed in the library of every social settlement, and every worker for purer civic and national conditions should dip into it now and then in moments of depression. That "the world moves" is the heartening lesson one brings away from its perusal. As we read especially the terrible chapter on the condition of the prisons, we ask ourselves in amazement whether it can really be of a century so recent as the eighteenth that these things are told. This section alone quite prepares us to accept Sir Walter's statement that London has changed more in the last sixty years than in the previous five hundred. We learn, too, how some of the greatest improvements in social conditions have been quietly brought about by instruments apparently trivial in themselves. Few people realize, for instance, what we owe to gas. It has transformed the poor man's evenings, which were formerly spent around the fire without other light or else faintly illuminated by a candle. "The cook had to hold a candle in one hand while she cooked with the other. The best-lighted street was provided with no more than a feeble glimmer at intervals; the shops showed one or two candles in the window and one or two on the counter. . . . The real terror of the winter was not the cold so much as the long hours of darkness." It was not until 1807 that gas was introduced into the streets of London, thereby immensely diminishing the opportunities for crime.

The Pathway to Reality: Being the Gifford Lectures Delivered in the University of St. Andrews by the Right Honorable R. B. Haldane, M.P., LL.D., K.C. London: Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903. Pp. xix., 316.

It is always interesting to observe what are the hobbies to which leading public men resort for intellectual recreation. In Europe these at present are sufficiently various. The British Premier, Mr. Balfour, is well known among philosophers as the acutest advocate of a pious skepticism; the German Emperor has lately included theology in the sphere of his activities, and studied it sufficiently to award certificates of inspiration to approved characters in history; while the Pope, more modestly, contents himself with writing Latin verse. And now we find that the able politician and distinguished lawyer out of whom the Liberal party in England, if it should ever again be hoisted into power by the blunders of its opponents, seems extremely likely to make a Lord Chancellor, Mr. R. B. Haldane, is a philosopher, too, in his private capacity, and does not disdain to show us the pathway to reality—for the very adequate consideration of the Gifford Lectures. And he acquits himself gallantly and with the *sang froid* of the practised pleader, as doubtless Mr. Balfour also would do, if, through a turn of the political kaleidoscope, he should find himself at leisure to accept the same academic lectureship. Mr. Haldane, curiously enough, in philosophy as well as in politics, sits on the opposite side of the house from Mr. Balfour. He is all for reason, while Mr. Balfour is all for faith, and though, like the latter, he is disposed to take up an extreme view, he argues it with a truly statesmanlike urbanity. For while professing himself a Hegelian, he states his case with moderation, and is anxious not to shock by overstatement. He tries rather to minimize the difficulties and to smooth down the asperities contained in his brief, and indeed denies outright that Hegel sought to deduce what ordinary people call reality by "pure thought" (p. 121). Altogether, what he feeds to his readers is a very diluted form of Hegelism, flavored with wise saws and an eclectic tincture of modern scientific instances, which impress even when they are not taken from the best and most recent of authorities. And so the whole brew becomes quite palatable and even easy, always allowing duly for the difficulty of the subject and the abstruseness of the method. To real novelty, on the other hand, Mr. Haldane lays no claim; he wishes merely to reward the great conception of his master. His "pathway to reality" is thus conceived as a short cut to the results of Hegel's Dialectic, and in comparison almost seems a primrose path.

In his first book, entitled "The Meaning of Reality," Mr. Haldane discourses on his general philosophic standpoint; in his second, "The Criticism of the Categories," he essays to show how the abstract methods of the sciences engender contradictions, until from mathematics we are driven on to psychology. The lectures of the present year are, we understand, to show the value of this Hegelian method for conduct and religion. It will be seen, therefore, that in his present excursion Mr. Haldane only gets half way to reality, and examination shows that the scenery decidedly gains in interest in the second part. But it must be noted that he hardly attempts to parallel the famous Dialectic, which Mr. McTaggart, alone of modern Hegelians, seems to have found a practicable thoroughfare. Mr. Haldane does not venture to start, with Hegel, from Pure Being and its equivalence to Nothing. He starts from geometry, which, however abstractly it may be conceived, is still only the conceptual interpretation of the directly sensible and entirely concrete data of our sight and touch. And though Mr. Haldane probably has, like other Hegelians, his own peculiar view as to the precise nature of the "contradiction" of the "thesis" by the "antithesis" which evolves the "synthesis," his own method of progression can hardly be dignified with the name of contradiction. He never attempts to show that the assumptions of the more abstract sciences are inadequate for the work they are called upon to do. He only shows that they do not give a complete account of reality. But that was not what they were meant for. Thus he only proves that what was meant for one purpose will not necessarily do for another. If he really wants to get rid of abstractions, he must go back to the infinitely concrete, to the person who conceives all abstractions from a desire to refashion his experience into a more satisfying form. But how can a method ever reach a real concrete which begins by assuming that the individual observer is a figment of thought (p. 196)?

And so does not Mr. Haldane, too, start in the air? Does he not, by a *salto mortale* of abstraction, set his feet upon a pathway which leads straight away from reality to nowhere? Has he not made the fatal assumption that reality is something yet to be found, and to be wrested from the void and formless Absolute by titanic effort? And is it not truer and simpler to contend that reality we have with us always, and that *ultimate reality* is wherever our manipulation of experience stops? Of Mr. Haldane's method it is perhaps true to say that it is chiefly the first step that costs, but if it is a *faux pas*, the cost is irretrievable.

Perhaps, however, it is ungracious to scrutinize too closely a work delivered under the remarkable circumstances noted in the preface. Mr. Haldane there tells us that his lectures were extemporized speeches, and that he has printed "just what the stenographer took down, with verbal corrections." It is hardly fair, therefore, to expect contributions to eternal truth from an *ex-tempore* philosophy; but it is always interesting to hear what men in Mr. Haldane's position have to say about the ultimate questions of life.

Anthology of Russian Literature. By Leo Wiener. Vol. II. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1903. Pp. xi., 500.

Professor Wiener's second volume contains extracts from fifty-three authors, from Karamzín to Merezhkóvski, some of whom have never before been represented in English. The translations in verse are for the most part selected from previous writers; those in prose are usually by the editor. A brief biographical notice precedes the extracts from each author, and a "Sketch of Russian Literature in the Nineteenth Century" serves as a general introduction to the volume.

The effect of the whole is in some ways disappointing. The different authors are arranged approximately in chronological order, with no attempt at a critical grouping. Hence a reader is at first confused and disconcerted. (Perhaps an educated Russian, fresh from Poe, Bret Harte, and Mark Twain, might be similarly distressed by a chronological anthology of American literature.) The puzzled reader is again baffled when he turns for help to the editor's sketch, for in it he finds no clear account of the different currents in modern Russian literature, not even a satisfactory grouping of the various authors according to schools. This fundamental knowledge our reader must seek elsewhere. But, once blest with some general notions on "the movement of the sixties" and kindred topics, he will return to the 'Anthology' with new joy, for the essays here translated from such critics as Byelínski, Dobrolyúboff, and Písareff will make this second-hand knowledge really direct and vivid, and he will now be prepared to appreciate the editor's admirable dicta on modern Russian literature as a whole; on its incessant occupation with social problems, curiously accompanied by a lack of any systematic philosophical foundation; on its political importance combined with juvenile, unpractical exuberance. Here Professor Wiener tells the truth with a sanity and simplicity that contrast strongly with the vaporous criticism too often indulged in by writers on Russian subjects. Finally, on a second reading, the chronological arrangement of selections may by its very confusion give the truest impression.

The different extracts are well chosen, though some, from their fragmentary condition, are hard to understand. Here a few further words of comment would have been helpful. The essays by Russian critics are, as has been indicated, of especial value; indeed, one may regret that the editor has not given more of them, say, part of Mikhaílóvski's critique on Dostoyévski, or Dostoyévski's panegyric on Púshkin, or Turgéneff's "Hamlet and Don Quixote," even at the risk of shortening the translations from the story-tellers. Traces of Russian influence on the editor's language are occasionally to be found in the volume. Thus, on page 288, "God be with him" translates too literally a phrase which might better be rendered "Deuce take him."

In his introductory notes on the different authors, Professor Wiener has given full lists of such of their works as are accessible in English. These bibliographical data reveal a wealth of translated material that could have been suspected by few even among those specially interested in Russian matters. This information alone would make the 'Anthology' indispensable to every student.

The Autobiography of Joseph Le Conte. Edited by William Dallam Armes. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1903. 8vo, xvii., 337 pp. Ills.

Joseph Le Conte, scientist and teacher, known in two hemispheres and beloved wherever known, died in the Yosemite Valley, California, July 6, 1901. He was of mixed race, the blood of the French Huguenot and English Puritan mingling in his veins; and the characteristics of each were

blended in his temperament and colored his whole active life. He was born in Liberty County, Ga., February 26, 1823, and lost his mother a few months later. She was of Puritan stock, a descendant of an English colony (transplanted from Dorchester, Mass.) distinguished by rigid orthodoxy, an independent spirit, and high standards of morality. In this community slavery wore its least offensive aspect, and the duties of the owner to his wards were emphasized—facts which account for the lenient view taken by Professor Le Conte of a state of things into which he was born, but which has since been repudiated by civilization and condemned by moralists.

Young Le Conte inherited scientific tastes from his father, studied in country schools and at the University at Athens, Ga.; later taking the medical course in the New York College of Physicians and Surgeons, and graduating in 1845. In the following year he married, being in independent circumstances, and in 1850 became a pupil of Agassiz at Cambridge for fifteen months, and subsequently a professor in the University of Georgia. During the civil war he was in and of the South; and in 1868, when seeking an escape from the conditions which accompanied reconstruction, he was called, with his brother, to the University of California. Here, so far as the world is concerned, his active scientific career may be said to have begun, and here it continued until his death.

The present volume is edited by one of his pupils from manuscripts of an intimate character which he had prepared for the use of his children. It is likely to stand in the way of a more serious biography. Although a human document of undoubted interest, and perfectly comprehensible to one who knew the man, it is too intimate and offhand in character to give a just idea of Le Conte to a stranger. The breezy and buoyant optimism and Gallic lightness of spirit which made him so delightful a companion are hardly revealed by this book, which so abounds in unwarranted superlatives as to jar on the serious reader and annoy the friend jealous of his fame. Its publication, except for private circulation among his intimate friends, is, in our opinion, an indiscretion of which Le Conte himself would never have been guilty.

How to Make School Gardens: A Manual for Teachers and Pupils. By H. D. Hemenway, B.S., Director of the Hartford School of Horticulture. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1903.

That the style of this useful book leaves something to be desired, might appear from such a sentence as the following: "One reason why nearly 90 per cent. of the successful business men of to-day were brought up on the farm is because of the productive industry taught in early childhood in farm life." It seems as if the author meant to say: Ninety per cent. of the successful business men of to-day were brought up on the farm. They owe their success to the productive industry which they learned in early childhood—in their farm life. We have given a little prominence to this statement of the author's because it implies the occasion of his little handbook. The cultivation of self-reliance, the acquisition of some facility in handling things, and the training in habits of patience, neatness, and quick observation, he thinks to be well worth while in these days of abundant schooling. He believes, and in our opinion truly, that few appliances contribute more readily and pleasantly to the attainment of these ends than simple school gardens. That their usefulness is appreciated in Europe appears from the author's statement that more than one hundred thousand exist there. "France alone has more than twenty-eight thousand." In these gardens the pupils are shown practically the simpler details of horticulture, and are given charge of every stage of the cultivation, from the preparation of the soil to the gathering of the harvest. In this country the system has been successfully undertaken, and it is likely to extend rapidly. It can be combined with other instruction, as is well shown by the work at Hyannis, Mass. At the school gardens of the State Normal School there, the "products of the gardens are sold, the money is taken to the bank and deposited, and the children learn the method of depositing money and drawing checks."

This little volume contains, in the form of daily lessons, explicit directions for even young pupils, and this elementary instruction is offered in an attractive manner. Budding, grafting, and the like are given their proper place, and in most instances are so clearly described that even the most inexperienced teacher need not go astray. Of course, the teachers in their application of these rules will not find everything quite like Eden before the Fall, for they will have to contend not only with the "thorns also and thistles," but with the worst weed in our school system, namely, the stupid idleness of our atrociously long summer vacation. But since vacations are chiefly for the good of teachers, perhaps the unfortunate city pupils who have scarcely a glimpse of vegetation except in the parks, may be permitted to "run" the school gardens all summer. To them this handy guide will be serviceable. The author gives eight closely printed pages of references to recent publications on the subject; this indicates that school gardens are making their way.

We are a little sorry that the word plantain is here spelled plantin, and pusley spelled pussley; for these plants, although mere weeds, have figured in literature, and deserve the respect which correct orthography lends.

The Story of a Bird Lover. By W. E. D. Scott. The Outlook Co.

We have here the autobiography of the well-known ornithologist, Dr. W. E. D. Scott, curator of birds in the Museum of Princeton University. As such, it is something out of the ordinary in popular bird literature. It begins with the author's childhood, and shows that he was to the manner born, a fact that adds interest to his early recollections. He began his college education at Cornell, but ended it at Harvard, where he studied under Louis Agassiz, N. S. Shaler, J. A. Allen, and Asa Gray. From these masters he obtained a broad foundation such as is seldom possessed by writers on ornithology. After graduation he became connected with Princeton, and throughout the book he relates much that is of interest in connection with this New Jersey university. For the purpose of building up its ornithological collections he not only explored New York, New Jersey, and New England, but also made trips to West Virginia, Florida, Texas, Colorado, Arizona, and Jamaica. Although birds are his main theme in the account of these journeyings, he also gives valuable sketches of the scenery and people. He has the fine discretion not to weary his readers by tedious detail about his chosen subject, but changes his point of view often enough to give agreeable variety. Take, for example, his anecdote of a Mexican neighbor in southern Arizona, Jesus Maria Castro, very poor, but generous and gay, which illustrates the romantic spirit of his kind and their cheerful endurance of the vicissitudes of fortune. So Dr. Scott's chapter on Jamaica is highly interesting in its sketches of scenes, people and customs. Appended to the book is a bibliography of the author's scientific writings.

Many zoölogists appear to take less interest in a living animal than in a dead one; or, even if they do happen to be field naturalists, they seldom evince the fancier's interest in an individual animal. Dr. Scott, however, is truly a bird lover; and, more than that, he is actively interested in all live animals, even the domestic animals, which the up-to-date biologist with his head in the clouds so often ignores. The doctor's companionship with his red setter, Grouse, is one of the most charming things in the book, and his love for animals in general is pleasantly shown in the account of his domestic menagerie in his Arizona cabin. The lover of live birds will take especial pleasure in the description of what Dr. Scott calls his "laboratory for the study of live birds." It is the finest aviary in America, consisting of six rooms and containing 700 birds, some of which rear their young in captivity.

"Imagine a room, some twenty feet square, where over a hundred birds are enjoying liberty. Here are many robins, wood-thrushes, and bluebirds, the Baltimore and orchard orioles; bobolinks fly about as gayly as over the grass fields in spring. There are some eight or nine of these last-named birds, most of them males, and for two-thirds of the year, from January until late in August, their song is incessant. Here are thrushes from Europe, and the starling that characterizes that region; a number of kinds of starlings from India, and some babbling thrushes from that country. Meadow larks form an entertaining group as they stroll about the floor examining with apparent curiosity and interest every blade of grass of the fresh turf supplied daily. Song sparrows find congenial shelter in thickets, and blue jays, as well as green jays from Mexico, add to the vivacity of the scene. Cardinals and rose-breasted grosbeaks, as well as their relative the blue grosbeak, are all represented. Mocking birds, catbirds, and thrashers fly from one tree to another in the room (for it is large enough to have some six or eight small trees reaching from the floor to the ceiling), and seem to be as full of life and song and interest in affairs as though out of doors. Here is a robin with a nest in the corner sitting on her eggs, or a pair perhaps feeding young. In a calabash gourd at another point bluebirds find a place they like for breeding. It is a heterogeneous company, and the picture is at first confusing, both as to motion and sound. As one becomes accustomed to the scene, new details present themselves. A plover finds to his liking the vicinity of the shallow water tank which serves as brook or pond for these birds, and rails

peep out of the grass or run nimbly from one tussock to another, pausing on the way to inspect the attractions of the feed dishes. Many of these birds have been in captivity six or seven years, notably robins, bluebirds, grosbeaks, and orioles; while the plover has been a member of this society for five years."

The field chapters having exceptional ornithological interest are those which describe flamingoes and the nesting sites of herons and other plume birds. Dr. Scott visited these spots before and after the plume-hunters had raided them. The book, finally, is attractive also for what it does not contain, and impresses one with a sense of the knowledge that the author could impart if he had the ear of a student interested in any particular phase of bird life.

Slavery as an Industrial System: Ethnological Researches. By Dr. H. J. Nieboer. The Hague and New York: Martinus Nijhoff. Pp. xxvii., 474.

The author of this interesting volume is a pupil of Steinmetz, whose work on 'Die Entwicklung der Strafe' has been stimulus and model. Its pages, too, reveal both the virtues and the vices of the "exact" method initiated by Tylor, to which the ethnologists of Holland have taken such a fancy. The balancing of the descriptive and theoretical parts is fair, and there are a good index and a comprehensive bibliography, marred here and there by imperfect titles. An original feature of the book is the section (pp. 430-442), "Outlines of a Further Investigation of the Early History of Slavery." Both in content and treatment Dr. Nieboer's work is an improvement on Tourmagne and Letourneau. Naturally, as its title suggests and its unpartisan review of the data recorded corroborates, it is of a different order from the *Tendenzschriften* on both sides of the question in America. The principal topics treated are definition of slavery and distinction from kindred phenomena; geographical distribution; occurrence among the various economic and social groups of uncivilized mankind, mediæval Europe, etc.; internal and external causes. Among the chief causes of slavery may be reckoned: "open" as against "closed" resources, a high position of women (relieving the sex from drudgery and leading to slave-labor), commerce (favoring slaves who shall perform common every-day work for those devoting themselves to trade, and also some of the labor incident to the production of articles of commerce), the preserving of food over against living from hand to mouth (its preparation in large quantities in brief periods of time demands enforced labor), militarism (slaves as warriors), luxury (slaves as property add to the owner's influence and reputation), fixed habitations, living in large groups. Stimuli of considerable importance are also the existence of a slave trade, and the presence, in the environment, of "inferior" races. When women perform all the disagreeable work slaves cannot exist. The "noble" chase is also unfavorable to the development of slavery, which is much more prevalent among fishing peoples. Pastoral tribes seem to have no great use for slave labor, though it is by no means absent. With true agricultural tribes slavery is considerably more frequent. There appear to be certain "slave areas" in both hemispheres. The author points out how the sex factor prevents the complete enslavement of woman —there is a difference between slaves and subjected wives. Children, for another reason (they are always prospective masters and freemen), can hardly be true slaves.

For those who wish to get an idea of "the social value of slavery" this book is to be recommended as the most scientific study extant of the function of slavery among such of the savage and barbarous peoples of the globe (not all of them) as have practised it.

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About, Edmond. La Mère de la Marquise. Edited by Murray Peabody Brush. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Adams, Charles Josiah. How Baldy Won the County Seat. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 50 cents.

Adams, John. Primer on Teaching. Scribner's. 20c. net.

Allman, James. God's Children. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50c.

Alderson, F. Herbert. Indigestion: Its Prevention and Cure. Scribners. $1.50 net.

Anschutz, E. P. Dogs. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel. 75c.

As Others Saw Him: A Retrospect. A. D. 54. With introduction and notes by Joseph Jacobs. Funk & Wagnalls Co.

Banks, Kilroy. Farmer Kilroy on "Ivilooshin." Chicago: W. T. Keener & Co. 60 cents.

Banks, Nancy H. Round Anvil Rock. Macmillan. $1.50 net.

Baumbach, Rudolph. Tales from Wonderland. Translated by Helen B. Dole. A Lovell & Co. 30c.

Bispham, Clarence Wyatt. Columban. Edwin S. Gorham. $1.50 net.

Brown, Anna Robeson. Truth and a Woman. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Capey, Ernest F. H. Erasmus. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 net.

Channing, William Ellery. Discourses on War. Boston: Ginn & Co.

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Clemow, Frank G. The Geography of Disease. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. $4.

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Davidson, James W. The Island of Samoa, Past and Present. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh; New York: Macmillan. $8.50 net.

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Durst, Simon. Bub and Sis. Rimes No. 3. Woonsocket, R. I.: Woonsocket Publishing Co.

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Engels, Frederick. Feuerbach, the Roots of the Socialist Philosophy. Translated by Austin Lewis. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50c.

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Fisher, H. A. L. Studies in Napoleonic Statesmanship. Germany. Oxford (Eng.): The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. $4.10.

François, Victor E., and Giraud, Pierre F. Simple French. Henry Holt & Co. 60c. net.

Fowler, Harold N. A History of Roman Literature. Appleton. $1.40.

Gardiner, Samuel Rawson. History of the Commonwealth and Protectorate. Vol. VIII. Supplementary chapter. Longmans. $1.00.

Garnett, Richard. The Twilight of the Gods. Lane.

Godfrey, Elizabeth. Home Life under the Stuarts. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50 net.

Goethe, Wolfgang. Egmont. Edited by Robert Waller Deering. Henry Holt & Co. 60c. net.

Goldsmith, Milton. A Victim of Conscience. Philadelphia: Henry Coates & Co.

Graves, Charles L. The Life and Letters of Sir George Grove, C.B. Macmillan. $4.

Griffing, Jane R. Breakers Ahead. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c.

Growell, A., and Eames, Wilberforce. Three Centuries of English Book-Trade Bibliography. M. L. Greenhalgh (1135 Madison Avenue). $5.

Guide to Switzerland. Macmillan. $1.60.

Hall, M. E. Physicians, their Patients, Pills, Paregoric, and Poisons. 1448 Pacific Street, Brooklyn: The Author.

Lorimer, G. C. The Master of Millions. Fleming H. Revell Company.

McCardell, Oliver C. Reform in the Jungle. Washington: The Neale Publishing Co. 50c.

Millman, Helen. My Kalendar of Country Delights. John Lane.

Moore, John H., and Miner, George W. Teacher's Manual. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Moore, N. H. The Old China Book. F. A. Stokes Co. $2.

New International Encyclopædia. Vol. X. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Orr, James. David Hume. (The World's Epoch-Makers.) Scribners. $1.25.

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The Studio Library (Representative Art of Our Time). Parts VI. and VII. Lane. Each part $1 net.

Trollope, Anthony. Framley Parsonage. Lane.

Walford, L. B. Stay-at-Homes. Longmans. $1.50.

Weinburgh, Harry Bennett. Perfect Health. Peter Eckler.

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Wilkins, A. S. M. Tulli Ciceronis Rhetorica. Vol. II. Oxford (Eng.): The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.

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